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ERRATA.

Page 88, col. iii., line 3 from bottom. For "Charles the Great" read "Charles the Bald."

Page 90, col ii., line 36 from bottom. For "Löwenstein" read "Löwenstimm."

Page 104, col. i., line 19. For "legislation" read "legislatures."

Page 152, col ii., line 27 from bottom. For "nine" read "fifteen." Line 24 from bottom. For "seven" read "twelve."

Page 154, col iii., line 27 from bottom. For "1781" read "1861."

Page 232, col. iii., line 31. For "senses" read "sexes."

Page 244, col. i., line 13. For "wall" read "work."

Page 325, col i., line 7 from bottom. For "1829" read "1629." Col. iii., line 28 from bottom. For "1841" read "1848."

Page 326, col. i., line 4. For "literal" read "liberal."

Page 343, col. ii., line 19 from bottom. For "Franklin" read "Franklin B. Dexter's."

Page 406, col. ii., line 33 from bottom. For "sufficient" read "insufficient."

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 6, 1898.

The Week.

The scores of thousands of operatives in New England cotton mills who received notice of a reduction in wages just before the end of 1897 were not the only class of working-people in that section to whom such a holiday gift was made. The employees in a great shoe factory at North Brookfield, Mass., have just been informed that their pay will be cut down with the new year, and the operatives in similar establishments elsewhere fear that the example thus set will be generally followed. The only reason assigned by the manufacturers is that they are losing money, and cannot continue the business unless they reduce the wage account. The company in question has always enjoyed a good reputation for fair treatment of its hands, and they are more disposed to accept the claim that the cut must be made in order to keep the shops going than is sometimes the case when such an announcement is made by an employer. A local newspaper says that "the people of North Brookfield hope that the peace and general good-will will not be interrupted by the present unpleasant situation."

Why do shoe manufacturers find that they cannot pay as large wages hereafter as heretofore? Has any change in the conditions of the industry occurred during the past year? There has been one change, which is of great importance. A tax has been put by the Dingley law upon the raw material used in making shoes. The new tariff imposes a duty upon hides. This duty was imposed against the earnest protests of shoe manufacturers, who insisted that it would seriously injure their business. Six months have not passed since the law went into operation, and already a reduction of wages is found to be inevitable. Such a showing cannot be a pleasing spectacle for Republican Congressmen who promised prosperity as soon as a Republican tariff should go into effect, and who must meet next fall the interrogatory of a host of workingmen why prosperity involves smaller pay for them.

The wheels of the reciprocity chariot are tarrying unconscionably. One brake on them is the fact that we cannot surrender a dollar of revenue, in the interest of reciprocal trade, without still further embarrassing our Treasury. How can we remit any part of the duty on sugar when we need the whole and more than the whole? The second great obstacle in the way of reciprocity is the fact that the men who moved heaven and earth to get a high duty put on their products do not now propose to surrender a fraction of 1 per cent. of it. It certainly does look like interfering with vested rights, and we know what an awful thing that is. Take the lumbermen, for instance. They lobbied through a duty of $2 on white pine, which, as they boasted, meant $6,000,000 clear to them, and now are they to be asked to give up any part of that honest profit for the sake of reciprocity with Canada? Why, the very suggestion fills them with disgust; and they have their secretary notify Reciprocity Commissioner Kasson that nothing of the sort must be attempted. All they are asking is a protection of 20 per cent., while they are cheerfully paying 40 or 50 per cent. on other people's goods. Does Mr. Kasson want to rob them of their little all? Reciprocity must be had, of course—it is in the platform; but the lumbermen never did think much of reciprocity with "nations in the same temperate zones as our own." Reciprocity they thought to be well understood as a matter only for the tropics and Dagoes—something far off, anyhow, and with no relation to lumber. And that is what they all say: Reciprocity to the top of your bent, but touch our duties if you dare!

We unite with our protectionist friends in rejoicing that at last the Dingley tariff has made both ends meet during a single month. It is true, the December "surplus revenue" of $1,714,831, reported on Tuesday by the Treasury, leaves a net deficit of $44,376,663 for the six completed months of the fiscal year. It is true, also, as Dingley and his friends reluctantly confess, that a heavy deficit in January is inevitable, which will remove still further from the domain of legislative sanity Mr. Dingley's estimate of $113,000,000 increase in the revenues of the fiscal year. Still, a surplus is a surplus, and no true-hearted protectionist need now hang his head. When the wicked jeeringly refer to the "Dingley Deficit," all that is necessary is to point to the December surplus, and ask by what right such a tariff as that can be called a deficit-maker. Meantime, if internal revenue receipts increase as they have done in the past six months, seven millions over the corresponding period of 1896, let it be remembered that this increase must be ascribed to the customs schedules of the Dingley law, while any general shortage in revenue during the next few years must be set down to "anticipatory importations." The polysyllables involved in this explanation have done, we can ourselves testify, great execution already in the ranks of the enemy, and they may be made to do service as long as deficits continue.

Commissioner Evans fully confirms the worst that has ever been charged against pension attorneys as a class. He points out that during the past thirteen years $13,000,000—a full million a year—has been paid to such attorneys, a large proportion of the vast sum for really trifling services. He shows how unscrupulous agents persuade veterans to enter claims against the Government which the old soldiers would never think of presenting if left to themselves, and make combinations with incompetent or conscienceless medical examiners to put through absolutely fraudulent applications. In many cases the old soldier is illiterate, and a shrewd attorney prepares almost any kind of affidavit that he wants, and directs the soldier to sign it, which the latter does in ignorance of what it contains. Commissioner Evans reports that the Bureau unearths sharp practice of one kind or another by these attorneys every day, and he sees no hope of a reform except by Government oversight of the business. With this change in methods the pension bureau would have direct control of the attorneys, whose business it would be to see that all honest claims were promptly and intelligently presented; and if one of them should fail to do his duty or should be found incompetent, it would be an easy matter to remove him. It is a great thing to have a Commissioner who realizes the abuses of the existing system so thoroughly as Mr. Evans does, and the McKinley Administration will be entitled to great credit if it shall carry through the reforms which he advocates.

When the bill prohibiting pelagic sealing was on its hasty passage through Congress, the whole stress was laid on our duty to do what we asked other nations to do. We were asking the Canadians to give up pelagic sealing, and yet were open to the taunt that Americans were not above taking seals on the high seas. Let us make the nefarious business unlawful for our own citizens, and then our "moral position" will be much stronger in calling upon other nations to abandon it. That was the argument before the bill passed. But no sooner had it passed than it was found to contain a clause absolutely prohibiting the importation of sealskins or of articles made of sealskin. No sealskin muff or purse, no article of wearing apparel in which sealskin is even a part, can pass through our custom-houses without being ripped to pieces to see if the pelt carries the proper

stamp. No lady going abroad can safely take a sealskin coat along without a "certificate of ownership" from the Collector of the port; otherwise, this, too, on her return, will be torn open for examination. That is to say, while ostensibly passing a bill to prohibit pelagic sealing, we were really making a law to prohibit importation of sealskins. Incidentally we were giving an absolute monopoly of the sealskin trade in this country to the North American Commercial Company, which leases the Pribyloff Islands and is entitled to bring in its skins as before. Thus is our moral position made strong. Thus is a customs law again made to wring the soul of the foreigner and to cause the native to pay more for his clothes.

After weeks of hard labor, the Navy Board, headed by the Assistant Secretary, has finished its bill for the reorganization of the service, and transmitted it to Secretary Long, accompanied by a very long explanatory report, written by Mr. Roosevelt. As was expected, the bill provides for the union of the line and the engineers, promotion by selection, increased pay for the officers, and a retired list for the enlisted men, and is therefore the most radical measure ever prepared in regard to our navy or any other navy. It requires not only that each graduate of Annapolis shall be an infantry drill-master, a hydrographer, an electrician, a navigator, a naval tactician and strategist, and an ordnance expert, acquainted with the handling and making of guns, powders, torpedoes, armor, and projectiles, but that he shall also be fully able to care for and direct the intricate machinery of every kind to be found on board a man-of-war. Whether, in these days of necessary specialization, one officer can become expert in all these scientific matters, is a question that can be decided only after the system has been put in effect, for in no other service of to-day has it been thought of. Indeed, the only analogies that Mr. Roosevelt can draw are from the times of the Spanish Armada, of Blake, and of Nelson. It is well that the bill provides also for a body of warrant machinists, who will not be called upon to do "deck" duty, and upon whom the responsibility of the engine-room will mainly rest, as it does upon the engineers of to-day.

The proposal to regulate promotion by selection—that is, by having a certain number of the least able officers forcibly retired each year in order to promote their subordinates—is open to two very serious objections. The danger that these retirements will be largely affected by political and social influence Mr. Roosevelt himself recognizes, but seeks to minimize by having the weeding out done by officers of the highest rank. It is unfortunately true, however, that some of the most persistent seekers after and wielders of political influence in Washington, of late years, have been captains, commodores, and admirals, and they will probably continue to be, unless human nature changes or most stringent regulations are enforced. Furthermore, the voluntary or forced retirement each year of a number of able-bodied and—if the general standard is high—mentally qualified officers will add to the retired list fifteen or more members each year. If these men are employed on shore duty, it will be tantamount to an increase of the active navy; if unemployed, the Government will find itself with a new class of able-bodied pensioners, quite capable of earning large salaries, on its hands. Mr. Roosevelt lays stress upon the fact that the proposed increase will augment the pay of the navy "only" $600,000. That will be true this year, but not in 1899, and still less as the years go on and the retired lists of officers and men steadily grow, for the present one has largely increased from year to year during the last decade. That 180 more officers have been asked for is no surprise. Fifteen years ago the cry was, We must have new ships, and plenty of them, to keep our officers busy. Now, having built more ships than are needed by so fortunately situated and peaceably disposed a nation as ours, we must have more expensive officers. It is only a couple of years since the number of enlisted men was increased, and now there are calls for more of them, and will continue to be as long as there is any chance of aping European countries and heaping greater and greater burdens upon our own.

The factional opposition to Hanna in Ohio has proved to be more widespread and persistent than was anticipated, and the Foraker wing has detached from the machine enough members to carry its point if it can hold its men. At this writing it has won the first skirmish at Columbus by securing the organization of the Legislature, but the real fight over the senatorship is still to be fought. The opposition have the advantage temporarily, by reason of controlling the patronage of the Legislature, but they are suffering from the lack of popular support. They are repudiating all the obligations of partisanship, and yet they are unable to show that there is any patriotism or principle in their course. In this situation the champions of regularity are supported by public opinion, and it remains to be seen whether the bolters can stand out against the popular demands that they shall abide by the action of the party organization. The Republican opponents of Hanna are also embarrassed by the difficulty of making terms about the senatorship with the Democratic members of the Legislature, who are inclined to drive a hard bargain. As the voting for Senator will not begin for a week, and may drag on for a good while, the country is going to have a thorough exhibition of Ohio factional politics at its worst.

The method of selection which has been followed in regard to the men who are to operate the machinery of Greater New York is a totally new thing in the history of civilized government. Mr. Croker has been engaged for two months, mainly at Lakewood, New Jersey, in the task of choosing these men. Who have been his advisers in this great task? Has he taken counsel with our leading authorities on municipal government, our most eminent financiers, our successful merchants, our chief lawyers and professional men? Have any of these been to Lakewood and had audience at the Croker court? Not one of them has been seen there. If any of them had gone, he would have been given short shrift by the Boss, who has made it known to the world that he has no use for the advice of such citizens. Not only has he spurned the counsel of men of success in all walks and professions of private life, but he has confined his selection of men for office under the new government to persons who either have no private business, or so little of it that they are willing to abandon it on becoming public servants. This is right under the Boss system. Any other plan would have been absurd. Hugh J. Grant promised us in 1888, that he would make his appointments from the "highest order of citizenship that the county affords." The present Tammany boss has "moved farther into the wilderness" since he was restored to power. He openly spurns the highest order of citizenship and constructs his government from the lowest. The results of his policy will furnish material for thought to the students of government throughout the world.

It should be said of the new Police Board that we have never had a more complete embodiment of the bi-partisan idea than it presents. It is headed by Barney York of the Borough of Brooklyn, who is on it as "Boss McLaughlin's man." Its Treasurer is Tom Hamilton of the Borough of Manhattan, who is on it primarily as "Gibbs's man," but fundamentally as Platt's man, the information that he was Platt's selection for the place having convinced Croker that he was the man for it. He represents on the board the first instalment of the debt which Croker owes to Platt for the gift of the government of the city. The next man on the board is Johnny Sexton of the Borough of Manhattan, a Tammany district leader who is known as "Hugh J. Grant's man." The fourth and last member is Billy Phillips of the Borough of Brooklyn, who is known as "Willis's man," Willis being one of the

Republican deputy leaders in Brooklyn who helped Platt "turn down" the Hon. Jacob Worth for his atrocious conduct in supporting Seth Low in preference to Tammany. It will be seen that every member of the board is on it as the representative of an expert in machine politics. We venture to say that there will be no "bickerings" or wrangling in this board. It will run as smoothly as in the days when Jimmy Martin and Sheehan represented Tammany on one side and Mike Kerwin and Charlie Murray represented Platt on the other. Genuine bi-partisan boards never quarrel; they "divvy." Each side is awarded its share of the good things agoing, and there is no provocation for squabbling.

Objection has been made to our recent statement that the plan of Cuban autonomy gives less than the Canadian measure of home rule. It is said that the Governor-General of Canada appoints all the members of the Dominion Senate and names all the judges. Yes, but the Canadian House has the absolute power of the purse; the Senate can neither initiate nor amend a money bill. The proposed "Council of Administration" in Cuba has, on the other hand, powers concurrent with those of the House of Representatives. Moreover, in Canada the Governor-General makes his nominations, and performs all executive acts, by and with the advice and consent of the Council of Ministers. But who are these ministers? They are the leaders of the party having a majority in the lower house of Parliament. Without that majority they cannot remain in office a day. Sir Wilfrid Laurier became Prime Minister by carrying a majority of the seats in the Dominion House. As soon as he loses that majority, out he goes, and all his ministers with him. As it is really the Canadian Ministry, and not the Governor-General, in whom the executive power is lodged, and as the Ministry is a creation of the popular Chamber, it is really in the latter that all power, subject to English sovereignty, resides. It would be easy to show, if it were worth while seriously to discuss the proposed Cuban autonomy any longer, that it comes far short, even in theory, of granting any such degree of home rule.

French and English relations were as much strained in negotiations about Madagascar, it appears from a recent parliamentary paper, as in disputes about rights on the headwaters of the Nile. When the French protectorate over Madagascar was established, existing British treaty and trading rights were recognized. But little by little the pressure of French protectionism led to the attempted introduction in the island of the French customs tariff, to the detriment of British trade. When Lord Salisbury protested against this step, Prime Minister Hanotaux responded with the *coup* of annexing Madagascar outright, making it therefore French territory and subject, accordingly, in all respects to French law. But Salisbury still protested; France had obtained her position in Madagascar on the strength of certain assurances to England; now she could not go ahead to annul by annexation the stipulations which alone had made annexation possible. He proposed, however, to surrender all English claims in Madagascar provided all similar French claims in Zanzibar were withdrawn; and this compromise appears to have been accepted and to have ended the controversy. The whole illustrates the ticklish international questions which are apt to grow out of annexation of distant territory.

The Chinese are said to be not at all comforted by the assurances offered them that the occupation of Kiao-Chau and Port Arthur is to be only "temporary." This is not strange. There is a French proverb which says that "nothing is more durable than the provisional," and the Mandarins have doubtless heard of this, or have something equivalent in their own language. Nor can they be much reassured by recalling the facts about some recent "temporary" occupations of foreign territory. England's stay in Egypt was to be brief. As soon as order was restored and the finances consolidated, the red-coats would be seen no more in Cairo. But now they are on the march to Khartum, with palpable intent to stay. So of the Anglo-Indian expedition to Chitral. The English garrison was to be rescued, the tribesmen punished, and then withdrawal was to follow. But now all the fighting beyond the frontier is for the purpose of permanently annexing the territory. So of the French in Madagascar, the Russians in Persia and Corea. No wonder the Chinese officials are a little dubious about the entirely friendly and purely temporary seizures of their bays and ports.

The declaration, announced in the Manchester *Guardian* on Monday, that Great Britain will use the most-favored-nation clause in her treaties, to see that she gets from China whatever any other Power gets in the way of privileges, naval stations, mines, or monopolies of any description, makes the situation look considerably clearer. This declaration does not cover cessions of territory, but it contains an obscure hint that, if territory is ceded, there may be trouble. The reason why the grand expedition of Brother Henry has been sent out is plain enough in view of the condition of the German trade with China. This has been falling off steadily during the last year. It appears from the English *Financial News* that German exportations to China rose to $9,500,000, and German exports to Japan to $7,250,000, during the years 1895-6, as against $74,000,000 British. But during the last seven months of 1897 the seven principal articles of German exportation to China have fallen off in weight 49 per cent. Those to Japan have fallen off 46 per cent. in weight. The *News* has taken these figures from the Imperial returns, and what they mean we do not pretend to know, but the Consecrated Person evidently believes he can apply a remedy. The only efficient remedy would be to compel the Chinese to take their custom away from the British and make their purchases of Germans, but this can hardly be done. There is thus some reason to fear that after Prince Henry gets on the ground, he may find his rôle reduced to great insignificance. Lord Salisbury will now probably have to act very energetically, for though the British business man may be willing to let him dawdle and be timid when he is acting on behalf of Greeks or Armenians, we may be sure there will be no indulgence when British trade is at stake. The British naval force in the Eastern seas is so much greater than that of any other Power, especially if supported by Japan, that a determined man at the Foreign Office can really do what he pleases in those regions.

Some seventy German editors are now in jail for *lèse-majesté*, and they will be welcoming more of their comrades as soon as the Emperor gets time to read the "press clippings" on the royal speeches at Kiel. The German newspapers are loyal, and they are cautious, but "the gospel of your Majesty's hallowed person" was too much for them. Some of the other exuberances and mediævalisms of the speeches are to be accounted for by the high-flown official dialect, which in German is something as different from English as English is from Chinese. But that "gospel"! "Only one Gospel is preached to us Christians," said the Conservative *Kreuz-Zeitung*. The Agrarian organ observes that "it is not permissible to speak of the royal person as 'hallowed.'" "There is only one hallowed person on earth—the Pope," declared the Catholic *Germania*. The loyal *Tageblatt* gave up the offensive phrase as one "which for the present is beyond our humble powers of comprehension"; while the Socialist *Vorwärts* sardonically invited the Cardinals and Archbishops to enlighten the public about the new gospel. One paper even ventures to challenge William's historical knowledge, and to deny that the Hanseatic League decayed, as he alleged, for "lack of imperial protection." This is rank blasphemy, and the only proper answer to it is a good term of imprisonment. There is nothing like solitary confinement on a bread-and-water diet to inculcate proper ideas about hallowed Majesty.

BOSSOCRACY.

Very few people seem to have fully understood the importance of the event of last Saturday—the transfer of the government of this city to Tammany Hall. Many intelligent people, some of them, we regret to say, lawyers, imagine that nothing more happened than the commencement of a term of four years of a régime likely to prove very corrupt, which the indignation of the citizens was sure to overthrow at the end of that time. What was really witnessed was one of the most interesting events in human history, the establishment not only of a new government, but of a new form of government, much more novel in many respects than the government of the United States was in 1789. Some imagine that it was the creation of a Cæsarism, but they forget that no Cæsarism has ever been set up except by the use of force, and that all Cæsars have been either successful soldiers or masters of a great army. In the present case all the forms of existing laws have been observed, and the person who seems to play the part of a Cæsar has never been a soldier, has never followed any higher calling than that of a blacksmith, has fought in the pugilistic ring, has been tried for murder, and is quite illiterate. Many people, too, imagine that the change means simply the transfer of the offices to a new set of men of the same kind as those who usually hold offices in cities—that is, to men who have won some repute in other callings and have some business experience; that, in short, Cromwell has taken the officers who served under Charles I. and Louis Napoleon those who served under Louis Philippe, and that there will be no real change in the city administration. The fact is that an entirely new kind of men has been introduced into public life, for the first time, we think, in human history—men who have never won any repute in any calling, who have never followed any honest calling, who have no experience or character, and who have obtained their appointments on an absolutely new system.

In all civilized countries, even in China, the appointing power at least makes a pretence that he has selected his appointees for fitness. Under this new régime, which is called "Bossocracy," he makes no such pretence at all. Offices are filled just as peers are created. The Boss is the fountain of offices, just as the King of England is "the fountain of honor." Men get them just as they get a dukedom or the Order of the Garter, not because they deserve them, but because the Boss likes them. An office in New York to-day is bestowed entirely without regard to merit, just as Lord Melbourne said the Order of the Garter was bestowed, because there was "no d——d merit in it." This is the greatest novelty of all—the holding in a civilized state of a large number of offices by men who make no pretence to being fit for them, as functions, or of having ever deserved them, as honors. The same power which made this peculiar arrangement might clearly go one step further, and make unfitness meritorious, reward a man openly for being drunk, idle, and ignorant, a soldier for running away in battle, a cashier for embezzling funds, or a policeman for robbing a house.

Singularly enough, too, the establishment of this new government has not, like all other new governments, been preceded by either discussion or defence. No one has recommended it or apologized for it. It is not described or explained in any of our schools and colleges. Go into any one of them to-day, and you will find all lectures on government devoted to a form of government which has not existed in this State or city for some years, and the disappearance of which apparently few people regret, while the new one is passed over in total silence. Yet it is the most interesting government ever set up. Montesquieu divides governments into three classes, and his classification has stood for one hundred and fifty years—the republican, the monarchical, and the despotic. He gives as the "principle" of both democracy and aristocracy "virtue," as the principle of monarchy "honor" as the principle of despotism "fear." Well, this new government of ours, having come into existence comparatively recently, of course is not mentioned by him, but its principle is not that of any of the three governments of which he speaks. The principle of Bossocracy is the "stuff," as it is called, and means simply the hope of those who live under it to make something, however small, out of it and by any means, even if ordinarily considered discreditable. Neither virtue nor honor nor fear finds any place in it. It is thus, as is easily seen, organized on a new basis, and deserves the attention of publicists. What we need from some competent hand is a candid examination of the "stuff" as a new political force, the limits of its action, and its influence on national character.

Another very curious feature about Bossocracy is that, although it apparently wants nearly every one of the old marks of good government described by the text-writers, it has been accepted by this great city more peaceably than any other new government ever set up. No existing monarchy or republic has made good its position without prolonged discussion, angry protests, and often bloody conflicts. But Bossocracy has taken its place without any opposition worthy of the name, and on a simple demand for the places. When the Democrats first began to frame it, the Republicans looked on with interested curiosity; then proceeded to imitate them, and, after a few years, joined them in setting it up. This makes it seem as if it supplied a long-felt want, and as if its suitability to the times was so plain that recommendation was unnecessary. The general result is that the belief is spreading that human experience has made a great mistake as to the conditions of successful administration and as to the objects of government. We are entering evidently on another great experiment. We are apparently about to try whether we need honor, or honesty, or knowledge, or character, for the conduct of human affairs; whether rascality and ignorance would not do just as well, besides coming far cheaper; and whether the object for which governments are set up is not chiefly to enable the knaves to enjoy themselves. If this be true, of course it will cause the greatest remodelling of moral systems ever seen since civilization began. The Republican theory that dearness is a benefit to the poor man, full of mental perturbation as it is, would be nothing to the theory that thieves were public benefactors, that lying was the best of social bonds, and that tyranny was the best form of government.

REPORT OF THE MONETARY COMMISSION.

The aim of the Indianapolis convention of last year, to inaugurate "a consistent, straightforward, deliberately planned monetary system," has been carried out in the most admirable manner by the commission appointed to do the work. It would be rash to assume that the plan reported by the commission will be adopted at once by Congress. It would be improper to claim perfection for it in all details—no such claim is made by the members themselves. Yet the main object has been accomplished of giving to the friends and advocates of currency reform a definite scheme to unite upon and work for, instead of scattering their forces on various plans or wasting their strength as heretofore on mere generalities. The commission has given us a plan that can be easily understood and readily put in the form of a bill for the consideration of Congress. It has also put, in clear and forcible terms, the reasons why such a bill should be passed, and why the existing haphazard condition of the currency is fraught with dangers too grave to be longer borne.

This report is not exposed to attack on the ground that it is the work of bankers or of doctrinaires. The latter phrase is usually applied to persons who have risen to the position of instructors in universities and colleges. Only one such person was a member of the commission, and he was chosen to fill a vacancy. No national banker was on the commission. The membership was composed almost wholly of representative

business men of the country. They are the same kind of men as their constituent body, the Indianapolis convention, and these were the same kind of men as their constituent bodies, the commercial organizations of the United States. We have absolute assurance, therefore, that there is no politics in this report, no class interest, no deception, no design to favor bankers at the expense of other people, but that we have the plain truth as it is given to eleven men of intelligence, drawn from the ordinary walks of life, not appointed by political influence, and not paid for their services, to understand it. We put some stress upon these facts because so much lung power has been wasted in senseless objurgation against the national banks. Here is a document of the weightiest character relating to the currency question which no such banker has had any share in preparing. If it is to be attacked, it must be on other grounds than that of special and exclusive interest on the part of the men composing the commission. Something might be said of the high personal character and established reputation of the men composing the commission, but that would be superfluous.

The report begins with an enumeration and description of our ten different kinds of currency and the amounts of each in existence. It then takes up the subject of the standard of value to which all these things must be kept equal. Existing laws require that everything shall be kept equal to gold. Nevertheless, a considerable part of the voters in the last election supported a policy looking to a change in the present system and to a degradation of the standard. The reasons why the gold standard should be preserved and fortified are stated with clearness and without passion. The measures suggested to this end are (1) an explicit definition of the gold standard and a pledge that it shall be maintained; (2) a requirement that all obligations when not otherwise stipulated in the contract shall be payable in conformity with that standard; (3) the gradual retirement of the outstanding note issues of the Government.

To accomplish the third end it is proposed first to separate the banking functions of the Treasury from its other functions. The suggestion of Secretary Gage, that a Division of Issue and Redemption be established to which shall be transferred the gold reserve and all other assets and things belonging to the currency branch of the Government, is endorsed and made a part of the commission's plan. There are some differences of detail which we need not dwell upon now. The commission also endorses President McKinley's recommendation that Government notes once redeemed shall not be paid out again except in exchange for gold. It is recommended, also, that $50,000,000 of greenbacks and Treasury notes be retired and cancelled when presented for redemption, and that thereafter the retirement of said notes shall not exceed in amount the volume of new banknotes issued. The existing silver certificates are not to be disturbed. They are to be redeemed in silver dollars according to the terms of their issue, but silver dollars are to be exchangeable for gold at the Treasury at the request of any holder. No banknotes of less denomination than $10 are to be issued, so that eventually the field of circulation for small currency will be given wholly to silver and silver certificates. It is believed that under such circumstances there will be a constant demand for all of this kind of money outstanding in retail trade, so that none of the silver dollars will be presented for redemption. If presented, however, the obligations of both law and morality require that they be redeemed in gold, and it is essential that they should be so redeemed.

The last part of the report, which relates to changes in the banking system, is, perhaps, the one which will engage the greatest interest. It proposes to abolish gradually the present requirement of bond security for the issue of banknotes, and to substitute therefor note issues, based upon the general assets of the banks, which must not exceed the paid-up and unimpaired capital of the banks, and upon a common guarantee fund to be contributed in the form of a tax by all the banks. This guarantee fund must equal 5 per cent. of the notes outstanding, and, whenever reduced below that sum, must be replenished by an assessment on all the banks in proportion to the notes outstanding. Noteholders have the first lien on the assets of failed banks, and also on the liability of shareholders. The Government is not liable for note issues beyond the application of the guarantee fund and the assets to the purpose intended, but all the banks in the national system are responsible. This plan of note issues shall not take effect fully until the end of five years, prior to which time the note-issuing banks must have 25 per cent. of their capital stock invested in U. S. bonds and deposited in the Treasury. This is the Baltimore plan, with some variations, which we shall discuss hereafter.

The plan, as a whole, is worthy of the highest commendation, and the thanks of the business community are due to the members of the commission for the industry, intelligence, patience, and courage with which they have performed their duty.

ALLEN VS. FLOOD.

The case of Allen vs. Flood, decided in the English court of last resort on the 14th of December, is perhaps the most important English judgment rendered since the *Mogul* steamship case. Besides involving questions of the highest moment affecting liberty of contract and speech, it possesses great professional interest for lawyers, as having led to an authoritative exposition, by the ablest judges in England, of the nature and foundation of civil liability according to the system of law under which, not merely all English-speaking nations, but the whole civilized world lives.

The facts were not complicated, and may be stated in a few words. Flood and Taylor were two shipwrights doing "wood" work on a ship in the employment of the Glengall Company. They were engaged only by the day, and were liable to dismissal at any moment. There was a strong feeling against these men among the iron-workers employed by the company, arising out of the circumstance that the two "wood" men had previously done work in iron for another firm. The iron-workers, accordingly, called in Allen, a delegate or official of the Boilermakers' Union. Allen saw Halkett, the managing director of the company, informed him that there was danger of a strike, or that the iron-workers would be "called out" if they had to go on working with Flood and Taylor, and the two men were thereupon dismissed. They immediately sued, not their employer (because the latter acted entirely within his rights in discharging them), but the delegate Allen, and the question which has now occupied the courts for three years has been, Could damages be recovered against Allen because he procured their discharge? In the trial court the delegate was held liable, and the Court of Appeal affirmed the decision. When the appeal came before the Lords, however, it was found to be a case of such difficulty that they directed it be reheard by the judges who were called upon to advise the House of Lords as to the law. Six of the judges were in favor of dismissing the appeal, two only in favor of its allowance. But now, after taking the judges' opinion, the House of Lords has overruled it, and has allowed the appeal by the majority of six to three. It is said that no English precedent exists in which such a preponderance of judicial opinion and decision has been finally overruled. Ten judges and three Law Lords have been overruled by two judges and six Law Lords. It must be said, on the other side, that among the minority are numbered the greatest judges in England, and we doubt if any impartial American lawyer can read the opinions without coming to the conclusion that in the end the case was rightly decided.

The question which really caused most trouble in the case may be stated thus: A, for objects of his own, persuades B to discharge C, as B has a right to do. Can C sue A, and if he shows that some improper (*i. e.*, selfish) motive

operated on A's mind, recover damages? This and all the questions presented were fully disposed of by Lord Herschell's judgment, and his exposition of the law is so luminous that we cannot do better than follow it. It should be said in advance that the trial judge, Mr. Justice Kennedy, held that no case of conspiracy, coercion, or intimidation had been made out, but left two questions to the jury: (1.) Did Allen maliciously induce the company to discharge the plaintiff? (2.) Did Allen maliciously induce the company not to engage the plaintiff? Both these questions were answered in favor of the plaintiff, and damages were awarded. The question on which the Judges were asked to advise was: "Assuming the evidence given by the plaintiff's witnesses to be correct, was there any evidence of a cause of action fit to be left to the jury?"

Lord Herschell, after stating the facts, said that the question before the court was whether the findings of the jury entitled the plaintiff to a judgment. This question, he said, must be answered in the negative (because the defendant had done nothing unlawful) unless the finding that his behavior was "malicious" made him liable. This made it essential to determine what "malice" meant, because there could be no greater danger to a community than that a jury should be "at liberty to impose the penalty of paying damages for acts which are otherwise lawful because they choose" to call them malicious. He then showed that the judges who took the opposite view from him, in attempting to define malice, had got no further than making it equivalent to some sort of bad motive, or "such a disregard of his neighbor as no honest and fair-minded man ought to resort to." But this is no legal test, because it "makes men's responsibility for their actions depend on the fluctuating opinions of the tribunal before whom the case may chance to come, as to what a right-minded man ought or ought not to do in pursuing his own interests."

He then cites some cases in which it seems to have been suggested that legal malice includes persuasion where the object is to benefit the person who uses the persuasion at the expense of another, and points out that numberless instances may be put where such persuasion, "which is of constant occurrence in the affairs of life," is not considered even reprehensible. One of the commonest illustrations would be persuading a workman to strike, but Lord Herschell puts his whole reasoning in a nutshell, and enforces it by a homely illustration, easily understood by every one, man or master, employer or employed. Every one, he says, has a right to pursue his employment without molestation or obstruction, but this is only a deduction from a wider right to do what we please generally, and this wider liberty includes the right to say what we please (the right of free speech)—*i. e.*, to exhort, command, advise, and induce, provided we do not slander, or deceive, or commit any other legal wrong. Unless one is shown thus to have abused his right, he cannot be called upon to justify himself because his words may interfere with some one else in his calling. If the butler, says Lord Herschell, quarrels with the cook, and tells his master that they cannot remain under the same roof, and thus induces him to discharge the cook, must the butler pay the damages?

While finding the decision entirely in accord with the general drift of American authority, we should be inclined to suggest that in this class of cases another principle, which for some reason judges and counsel of great eminence often fail to notice, has an important bearing on the true conclusion. This is the principle that, as a rule, legal liability exists only when the efficient cause of the damage complained of is found in the defendant's act. When it is found in the voluntary act of a third person, the defendant is not liable, because he is not, in fact, as men look at such matters, responsible. In Allen vs. Flood the act which caused the damage was the act of the master and not of Allen. He had a perfect liberty of choice to discharge or not to discharge, and the discharge was consequently his individual act. But for this principle, legal responsibility, as we know it, would cease to exist, and a new system would be introduced, under which a man could not open his mouth, in any matter in which he had an interest, without running great risk of an action for damages. The Lord Chancellor, in his opinion, actually goes so far as to suggest that the lawfulness of what we say or do depends on there being no "indirect motive" present; the prevailing opinion is founded on what we believe to be the sound and ancient principle, that civil liability has no necessary connection with motive, but is closely and inevitably related to that notion of responsibility which we apply every day to one another, in our ordinary dealings and judgments.

TRUMPERY LIBEL SUITS.

A batch of newspaper libel suits was brought recently before the Lord Chief Justice and a special jury, in the Court of Queen's Bench, London, and disposed of in a manner quite different from that followed in our courts under similar conditions. The first case was that of a professional magician against a newspaper which had commented in a jocose manner upon a project which he had for making money out of the Queen's Jubilee. He had made an agreement with some property-owners in St. Paul's Churchyard, to take down their shops and erect his grand stand in their places, pledging himself to rebuild the shops free of cost after the celebration was over. In commenting upon this plan, the offending newspaper had spoken of the magician's grand stand as his latest Aladdin's palace, and intimated that the magician might be playing a trick, since he had "so often seriously deceived the public." The magician made formal complaint to the newspaper, through his solicitors, that the article was calculated to throw doubt upon his ability to carry out his project, and thus interfere with the sale of his grand-stand seats. The editor replied that his remarks were intended to be humorous, and he believed that that intent was sufficiently obvious to prevent pecuniary damage to the scheme.

When this case came before the Lord Chief Justice, and the offending paragraph was read to the court, his Lordship asked in some surprise: " 'Deceived the public'—is not that true? Surely that has been Mr. Maskelyne's [the magician's] business. I know he has often deceived me." There was general laughter in the court-room at this direct method of meeting the case; and his Lordship continued, asking the plaintiff's counsel: "Where is the libel? Is it any thing more than a chaffing article? Really, for a man of Mr. Maskelyne's reputation to think that this article involves any imputation upon his character seems to me ridiculous." In response to this, all the plaintiff's counsel could say was that he thought the article was calculated to injure the seat-selling prospects of his client, and that instead of being always engaged in the business of deceiving the public, his client had devoted himself repeatedly to the exposure of deceits foisted upon the people by others. When he had finished, the foreman of the jury said that he and his associates were of the opinion that there was no libel and did not think that the case should proceed. The case was thereupon dismissed, the defendant's counsel saying they were quite willing to declare that no imputation was intended in what was sincerely meant to be a joke.

After this, two other cases were presented against as many newspapers for the same offence. There was a misunderstood joke at the bottom of these complaints also. The Registrar of the Croydon County Court alleged that he had been held up to ridicule and damaged in the estimation of the community, because, in reporting an incident in his court, in which a bogus lord had been ejected from the room for using bad language, he was said to have "roared" at the offender. The newspaper accounts sought to make the incident ludicrous by picturing the bogus lord as waving his arms and belaboring with his umbrella the officer who ejected him, but the only reflection made upon

the Registrar was in the assertion that he "roared, 'Turn that man out.'" When the Lord Chief Justice had the case fully before him he asked the plaintiff's counsel in visible surprise: "Is the whole thing that you complain of here that it stated that the Registrar roared? I do not know what these cases are coming to at all." When the counsel had endeavored to show that the charge was likely to bring the Registrar into disrepute by making him appear as having acted in an undignified manner, the truth being that he had not "roared" but had spoken quietly, his Lordship said: "There is no judge so low that he cannot afford to pass over matters of this kind. This gentleman, I see, is said to be a member of the bar. He ought to have better sense than to take notice of trash such as this."

In this case, as in the preceding, the jury volunteered the information that they had reached the conclusion that there was no libel, and the cause was dismissed, as was its fellow against the other newspaper. In disposing of the entire batch the Lord Chief Justice said:

> "I cannot avoid making this observation. There is no more valuable remedy for the protection of the character of private and public persons than the law of libel, but there is no remedy so susceptible of abuse as that law, and I am very glad to see that juries are ready and able and firm enough to discriminate between trumpery cases and real cases—by trumpery cases I mean such as those we have been dealing with this morning. The courts are not intended for the ventilation of unreal and unsubstantial grievances, but for the vindication of character from real imputations, aspersions, and wrongs."

This view of the law of libel is especially pertinent in this city at the present time, for never in our history has the business of trumpery, or, as we know them, frivolous libel suits been prosecuted with such systematic persistence as at present. We have, in fact, a considerable body of lawyers who devote their energies entirely to it. They scour the newspapers for reflections of all kinds upon anybody and everybody, in the hope of making them the basis of suits for damages in libel. It makes no difference where the matter appears, whether in the news or in the editorial columns. When they find it, they go to the persons whom it concerns and tell them that there is a "house and lot," or a "small fortune," or some other alluring thing in it for them, and offer to bring the suit for a half share in the sum secured. This business has assumed enormous proportions in recent years, and it seems to have attracted envious attention in England. It is a great pity that our courts do not dispose of it as summarily as the Lord Chief Justice did. Our libel laws are far less stringent than the English laws are, but our court methods are quite different, so far as the part which the Judge takes in the proceedings before him is concerned. At the same time, our judges have full power to prevent frivolous cases from going to the jury, and they might exercise this much more frequently than they do.

THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

NEW YORK, December 30, 1897.

The fifteenth annual convention of the Modern Language Association, held December 27-29 at the University of Pennsylvania, passed off successfully, and will be remembered with pleasure by all who were in attendance. Philadelphians long ago set a high standard in the entertainment of scientific societies; there was reason to expect good things, both formal and informal, and this expectation was abundantly fulfilled. The address of the President, Prof. Albert S. Cook of Yale, though entitled "The Province of English Philology," was not an attempt to delimit English in contradistinction from other philologies (this would hardly be necessary), but rather a *pro domo* for philology in general. In an urbane and well-turned argument, which was full of quiet edification for those who heard it, Prof. Cook paid his respects to the defamers of philology from Seneca down to a certain living toreador, whom he did not call by name, and whom we shall therefore forbear to mention. The attack was made to appear a very old story, resting always upon the same sort of bad logic and narrow prejudice. The speaker did not say, Father, forgive them, for they know not what they do; but he deftly laid bare the mental condition on which that famous petition is grounded. Some dull men had indeed taken to philology in every age of the world—because there was not room for all the dull men in the other professions. Prof. Cook closed with a plea for a broad interpretation of philology, as the science which aims to make the past relive "in its form and pressure" through the study of its surviving records. He deprecated, as many have done before, the identification of philology with linguistics, urging at the same time, as a fact proved by experience, that literary study cannot really thrive without careful attention to the matters of language. The spirit is the main thing, but the spirit is revealed only through the letter; wherefore the letter can never be unimportant.

In the course of four half-day sessions of the Association more than a score of papers were read. To single out any of them for comment in a brief report like this would be unfair, since the mere selection, to say nothing of the comments, would inevitably reflect the writer's private bias. Suffice it to say that the programme was of at least average scientific interest, several animated and profitable discussions having to be cut short for lack of time. Of the twenty-eight papers listed, a plurality had to do with the English language and literature; the Germanists being less in evidence this time than the Romance philologists. As its next President the Association elected Prof. Alcée Fortier of Louisiana, and it was agreed to hold the next meeting at the University of Virginia. It is also worth noting that action was taken looking toward a joint session with the Philological Association and the Oriental Society in 1899. Whether this initiative will lead to the end desired remains to be seen, but the cause is at any rate good. This was demonstrated at the memorable Whitney meeting three years ago.

A minor incident of the Philadelphia convention is of sufficient general interest to deserve mention by itself—namely, the report of progress submitted by the Committee of Twelve upon college entrance requirements in French and German. The appointment of this committee was ordered a year ago in response to a communication from the National Educational Association, which is endeavoring to bring about, for the country at large, a somewhat greater uniformity in preparatory standards and in modes of testing a candidate's fitness for college work. The Modern Language Association was invited to put itself on record, as counsellor of the Educational Association, with respect to the preparatory study of French and German; to agree upon and define certain grades of preparation, the meaning of which could be definitely understood by teachers everywhere, and which could then be prescribed by the colleges in their own way without any impairment of their existing prerogative. The matter was felt to be one of considerable educational importance, and was accordingly turned over to a large committee, with elastic orders to investigate and report. The committee has done a great deal of work during the past year, chiefly in the collection of facts, opinions, and suggestions pertaining to the teaching of French and German in the secondary schools of the United States. The collated returns from several hundred circulars were given to the full committee at Philadelphia, but as several important questions were evidently in need of further investigation, it was decided to appoint a number of sub-committees, report progress to the Association, and ask for further time. One of these sub-committees is charged with reporting recent contributions to the methodology of modern-language teaching; another will study the question of French and German in grades below the high school, while a third will draw up model courses of different lengths, and define the grade of attainment to be aimed at in each. It is expected that these committees will take their tasks somewhat seriously and present reports of scientific value. Another year must therefore elapse ere the general committee can be ready with its final report. Meanwhile, teachers and others interested in the committee's work can obtain a hearing for their views if they have any practical suggestions to offer. The chairman is Prof. Calvin Thomas, Columbia University, New York.

THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

NEW YORK, January 3, 1898.

The thirteenth annual meeting of the American Historical Association, in Cleveland last week, was one of the most successful and important ever held. From a pedagogical standpoint the principal event of the session was the report of Prof. A. C. McLaughlin of the University of Michigan, chairman of the Committee of Seven appointed a year ago to consider the study of history in schools. Although this report was by no means final, the general lines of investigation and solution of the problem seem to have been fairly established. The question early resolved itself into two, the determination of an ideal course of history in the schools, and the question of college entrance requirements in history. Of these

the first absorbed the greater attention, owing to the greater divergence in the standards and facilities for history teaching in the schools. The extremely tentative general conclusions on which the committee agreed regarding this question were as follows. It was suggested that a course of four years of five hours a week should be the goal of teachers of history. It was further suggested that the first year be devoted to Greek and Roman history to the downfall of the Empire, studied not as entirely isolated subjects, but as related, together with some consideration of the history of the more ancient nations; the second year, to general European history from perhaps the fall of Rome to modern times, a period of equal weight and importance, though the question of the line of division between the first and second year's courses was left open for the present. It is possible the committee may recommend later some such arrangement as will include general European history to 800 or to the formation of the Holy Roman Empire in the first year's work. The third block or period includes English history, which, although in itself possibly undeserving of so much attention as its predecessors, may be given greater weight by dwelling upon its broader aspects of continental relations and imperial development, and be studied in part as an amplification of European history, with England as the central and illustrative figure. The fourth year, it was agreed, should be devoted to American history, with special reference to the preceding work, having civil government as a collateral study, and regarding present conditions, institutions, government, and law in the light of evolution.

As to methods, it was suggested that a narrative text-book should be used, aided by collateral reading largely in secondary material, written work, reviews, and recitations, topical work, maps; and, as far as possible, sources should be used by the teacher for illustration, to add reality and concreteness to the instruction. In its final printed report the committee hopes to indicate what sources it considers suitable, and in other respects to be as helpful and suggestive as possible. The question of training in history in grades below the high school was postponed until further light could be shed upon that subject by an examination of the present status of history teaching in the schools in this country and abroad. The committee's report was approved by the Association, and the committee continued.

The paper of Superintendent Nightingale of the Chicago public schools on the same subject followed almost exactly the same lines and reached practically the same conclusions as that of the Committee of Seven, which, by the way, will meet again next April in Ann Arbor. The discussion as to the extent to which sources may profitably be used in the teaching of history below the Graduate School was led by Prof. A. B. Hart of Harvard, E. P. Cheyney of Pennsylvania, and J. A. Woodburn of Indiana, and was extremely animated. The general weight of opinion inclined on the whole towards a judicious use of sources and so-called "source books" by the teacher, and to some extent by the student, whenever practicable, as a vivifying adjunct to text-book, lecture, and class-room work, and this view was borne out later in the discussion on the report of the Committee of Seven.

Among the most pleasant and profitable features of the meeting were the two joint sessions with the American Economic Association. The first of these was occupied with a discussion on the opportunities for American students of history and economics in Europe, led by Prof. C. H. Haskins of Wisconsin, who read an exhaustive and interesting paper on "Historical Studies in Paris," and by Prof. H. Morse Stephens of Cornell, who spoke on facilities for American students at Oxford. The opinion of each of these speakers and of those who followed was that, more and more, American students must realize that the chief good of study abroad is not to the beginner, but to him who has already obtained his training, method, and information here. The second joint session was taken up with a paper by Prof. A. T. Hadley of Yale on "Rate-Making and Taxation: Their Resemblance and Difference," attended by discussion, and with an extremely interesting debate on the relation of the teaching of economic history to the teaching of political economy, led by Prof. H. B. Gardner of Brown, H. R. Seager of Pennsylvania, and G. W. Knight of Ohio State University. Of the various papers read before the Association, probably those of most general interest were the admirable study of the teaching of history in German Gymnasia by Prof. Lucy M. Salmon of Vassar, and the estimation of State historical societies by R. G. Thwaites of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin and Prof. J. Franklin Jameson of Brown.

By far the most important question on the administrative side which came up for consideration was that of the identification of the *American Historical Review* with the American Historical Association. Certain plans were discussed and certain steps taken to this end, and the result will appear at some further meeting. In the way of other business the Association was shown to be on a sound and satisfactory financial basis by the report of the Treasurer, Dr. C. W. Bowen of New York. The next meeting will be held in New Haven, December 27, 28, and 29, 1898; and it is greatly to be hoped, for both social and financial reasons, that the Economic Association may, as this year, convene at the same place at the same time. The officers of the Historical Association for the ensuing year are: President, Prof. George P. Fisher of Yale; First Vice-President, James F. Rhodes; Second Vice-President, Edward Eggleston. The other officers are continued with a few changes. Ex-President James Schouler is added to the Executive Council, ex-officio; Prof. George B. Adams and President E. M. Gallaudet retire from the Council, and Chief Justice Fuller and Prof. A. B. Hart were chosen to fill the places thus left vacant. The report of the Manuscripts Committee of the Association by Prof. J. Franklin Jameson consisted mainly of an announcement of the forthcoming volume of the Association report. This will include five valuable sources for American history, the letters of Phineas Bond, English agent in Philadelphia, 1787-1789; a monograph on Canadian history; a collection of letters of the High Federalist, Stephen Higginson; the diary of Edward Hooker about 1805; and Prof. F. J. Turner's valuable collection of correspondence of the intrigues between Genet and George Rogers Clarke regarding the contemplated expedition to attack New Orleans. To these, among other material, will be added a bibliographical descriptive list of archives. Succeeding volumes, it is expected, will contain among other things a bibliography of Colonial and State Legislatures to 1800, and accounts of material in the various State archives.

No report of the meeting of the Historical Association which omitted all notice of the social side of its activities could pretend to completeness. The various receptions by hospitable Cleveland citizens and clubs, the great luncheon of the combined Economic and Historical Associations, together with the luncheon given them by the Western Reserve University at Adelbert College, and the usual Historical Association reunion, added much to the pleasure of the meeting.

THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.

NEW YORK, January 3, 1898.

The American Psychological Association met in Christmas week at Ithaca with the American Naturalists and Affiliated Societies, which included this year for the first time the newly formed Botanical Society and Section H of the American Association for the Advancement of Science (Anthropology). It will probably have a regular winter meeting hereafter with these societies. The Psychological Association commanded a good attendance, and the same is true of most of the other societies—the physiologists and anthropologists being exceptions.

The programme of the Psychologists was full and interesting, and for the first time it extended over part of the third day. The first day was devoted largely to experimental papers and reports. Much research work already done and awaiting publication was reported from the laboratories at Columbia, Yale, and Princeton, by their respective directors, Cattell, Scripture, and Baldwin, with interesting details of new apparatus. In the afternoon the abundance of material required the operation of two sections, one of which was occupied with a further report of the committee on mental tests, which, it may be remembered, made a preliminary report last year. Prof. Jastrow of Wisconsin, a member of the committee, gave the main paper on the subject, laying down what he considered the requisites of a scheme of tests which could be made generally available in colleges and normal and high schools. Following him, Prof. Cattell analyzed last year's report with a view to indicating the amount of agreement which existed in regard to the tests proposed; and Prof. Baldwin reported further researches carried on in his laboratory on the methods of investigating and testing memory. On the whole, the afternoon's discussion brought out many interesting aspects of the matter of physical and mental tests. The interest in it may be judged from the facts that the committee was continued, and the Association appropriated $100 to aid the committee in carrying on its investigations. This appropriation is the first in the history of the Association, and indicates both its flourishing financial condition, and the beginning of a policy of lending its aid and encouragement to scientific projects which seem to be for the general good.

The morning of Wednesday was devoted to the address of the President, Prof. Baldwin, and a well-planned discussion on the psychology and anthropology of Invention.

The President's address was on "Selective Thinking," which he defines as "the determination of the stream of thought." His general point of view may be described as a continuation into the sphere of selective thought of the principles of motor accommodation and organic selection worked out in his recent book on 'Mental Development.' The address, which appears in the January issue of the *Psychological Review*, was distributed the day before, and so came into the discussion on Invention. The discussion proper was opened by Prof. Royce of Harvard with an elaborate paper. He first laid out the topic, indicating its main problems and bearings, and then reported some interesting experiments carried out by him to determine the actual working of the mind in the invention of new varieties of simple hand-drawn figures. This is the first attempt to bring the inventive processes to the test of experiment, and it was generally acknowledged that the speaker made a distinct "lead" which psychologists could take up with profit. The second speaker was Prof. Jastrow, who emphasized the phenomena of variation, and gave hints toward the statistical treatment of the facts of invention. Dr. W. M. Urban of Princeton followed with a special examination of the "Utility-Selection Theory of Mental Development," devoting attention to the recent theory of Dr. Simmel of Berlin and to the President's address. In the general discussion which followed, the anthropological side of invention was well presented by Dr. F. Boas of Columbia and Dr. Magee of the Bureau of Ethnology at Washington. Abstracts of the discussion may be found in the Proceedings, to be published in the March number of the *Psychological Review*, and the principal papers will appear in full in that or a later issue of the same journal.

On Wednesday afternoon the Psychologists met with the Affiliated Societies to hear the discussion of the Naturalists on the "Biological Problems of To-day," in which each of the subjects Palæontology, Botany, Anatomy, Psychology, Physiology, Developmental Mechanics, Morphogenesis, had its main problems stated by an expert, from the platform of the most recent advances. The general result was good, despite the very uneven character of the addresses. They varied from the admirable résumés by Morgan and Davenport to the inadequate report by Prof. Wilder of Cornell, who represented the problems of anatomy by presenting his own views of the morphogenesis of the olfactory lobe! Psychology was represented by Prof. Cattell, who hardly took the occasion seriously enough.

On the third day the time—only the forenoon—was given to more philosophical papers which do not lend themselves to brief reporting. The social features were pleasant, including a reception to all the societies, tendered by President Schurman. As to reception and entertainment, the University authorities made admirable arrangements, and much gratitude was felt to the local committee, officered by Profs. Gage and Rowlee. The next meeting of the Psychologists is to be with the Naturalists, probably in New York, barring the possibility of a one-day session in Boston in connection with the American Association next summer. The newly elected officers of the Psychological Association are: President, Prof. Hugo Münsterberg of Harvard; Councillors, Profs. Creighton of Cornell and Delabarre of Brown, and Dr. Kirschmann of Toronto.

Correspondence.

THE SPECIE CIRCULAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am certainly grateful, as I doubt not others will be, to Mr. Catterall for his communication, in No. 1696 of the *Nation*, in regard to the "alleged specie circular of 1827." I beg to say, however, in reply to Mr. Catterall's remark that if I "had looked a little further," I should "have found that the instructions of Rush did not stand alone, but were supported by like instructions, both before and after Rush's incumbency of the Treasury," that I did "look a little further," and had before me the various circulars from which he quotes, and the speeches of Benton and others to which he refers; and that I did not introduce them because they did not appear indispensable to the elucidation of the small point to which my attention had been attracted, namely, the alleged "similarity" of the two circulars of 1827 and 1836. Now that Mr. Catterall has made such interesting and instructive use of this additional material, I am disposed to regret even less that I did not try to use it myself.

William MacDonald.

Bowdoin College, December 31, 1897.

PLATO SHELVED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There has recently come into my hands an interesting specimen of modern academic eloquence. It is entitled "The Passing of Plato," and purports to be an address delivered at the sixth annual commencement of the Leland Stanford Junior University. The ingenuous youth of that institution of learning are herein given to know that, during the last hundred years, physical science has completely transformed the world and shown mankind that all previous history has been a mistake. This beneficent consummation might have been realized far sooner had not the development of the good genius of humanity been arrested at its birth in Greece some four hundred years before Christ. It was Socrates and Plato who stayed the progress of civilization by introducing the vain distinction between mind and body, and accustoming mankind to the pernicious exercise of "pure thought." To Platonism, the incarnate antithesis of the scientific spirit, is chiefly due the long night of the Middle Ages, broken by a few stray gleams at the Renaissance, but completely dispelled only by the new dawn of physical science in the present century. *Pauca tamen suberunt priscae vestigia fraudis.* Ahriman still lingers in those "Plato-ridden institutions," our elementary and secondary schools. But he will soon be expelled from his last stronghold, and then happiness and science will dawn, though late, upon the earth. Then shall we abandon the idle distinction of mind and body; philosophy will "give up that solemn bluff"; the old education will no longer be defended by "mystic pictures of its fancied relation to an imaginary soul"; the graduate will discard the foolish millinery of caps and gowns, the undergraduate will study, not for a degree, but from pure love of science, and all will be well in the most scientific of all possible worlds and universities.

All this would be merely funny were it not that it is typical of a style of eloquence and a conception of human progress that threaten to be very potent in moulding opinions and shaping policies. There seems to be no tribunal of educated opinion of which our popular teachers stand in awe when they mount the platform. No peal of Homeric laughter greeted President Andrews's statement that Virgil is an indecent writer, that Plato is a Hobbist, and that John Stuart Mill owed nothing to the classics. And the scientific reputation of the author of this pamphlet will not suffer at all from the unscientific character of the philosophy of history which he has taken at second-hand from Lewes's 'Biographical History of Philosophy' and Lange's 'History of Materialism.' Of what avail is it to tell him and his readers that Plato advocated the endowment of mathematical research, demanded and predicted the application of mathematics to physics and astronomy, and insisted that all leaders of public opinion ought to be trained in the severest science of the age? What heed will they pay to the observation that the Middle Age was not so narrow because it studied Aristotle, but was unable to get beyond an imperfectly understood Aristotle because it was so narrow? How can he feel the absurdity of identifying progress with the "Passing of Plato" if he is not aware of the simple and verifiable fact that the influence of Plato on the world's best thought and literature during the last fifty years has been greater than at any time except the Renaissance and the age of Neo-Platonism?

The eloquence of this discourse is wasted on a dead issue. Science is anything but a Cinderella or a persecuted martyr at the American university. No humanist now attacks science or, except in casual controversial petulance, says a word in disparagement of "her." One might as well speak disrespectfully of the Equator or run a tilt against the law of gravitation. The question of the next twenty years is not whether physical science shall be cultivated at the university and continue to receive the lion's share of buildings and appropriations. It is, rather, Shall the humanities be cast out altogether as obsolete rubbish in order to secure what our writer calls "the cleanest action" of the educational system? When disheartened as to the issue of this controversy, I sometimes encourage myself with the reflection that the instinct of self-preservation in humanity will never tolerate, as the dominant or exclusive type of modern education, a discipline the final flower and outcome of which is such a rhetoric and such a philosophy of history as we find in this pamphlet.

Paul Shorey.

University of Chicago, December 29, 1897.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR BY WAY OF LATIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I speak of "the time-problem" in preparation for college, in connection with the ordinary public schools?

In the spring of 1888 a book called a "Language-Book" was in use in our grammar-schools, employing a nomenclature in part

translated from the German. A noun was a *name-word;* an adjective, a *quality-word;* a verb, an *action-word;* an adverb, a *how, when,* or *where-word.* After one year and two terms spent on this book, a class took up an ordinary grammar, when this clumsy nomenclature, so needlessly sown in their hapless minds, had to be uprooted, and an unusually bright boy said he had not expected to find parsing so difficult. Much of his trouble undoubtedly came from finding himself obliged to call everything by a new name. Although the book is discarded, the case is still in point, for the boy is now halfway through Harvard College, and I can say definitely where some of his time was wasted. The moral is, that text-books require college supervision from the outset. When scholars arrive in the high school, it is already too late to think of saving time; the time is lost in the grammar school.

Why spend five years in studying English grammar to gain results confessed to be so unsatisfactory? One reason why they are so is, that the work is too advanced for the minds of the children, which would be more fitly employed in acquiring the jingle-jingle of the Latin inflections, leaving the parsing for a later day. When the time for that arrives, the principles of grammar are the same in all languages; while, owing to the lack of inflection in English, it is actually easier in Latin to see how the various parts of speech agree, and to grasp the relations of case.

When the boy of the Middle Ages sat down to study grammar in the monastery schools, he did not study English grammar or German grammar; he went directly to work on Latin. Why cannot the boy of the present day do the same? It would be killing two birds with one stone. He would get no less than he gets now of the English (which is evidently so much dead matter; he does not assimilate it and cannot use it), and he would be laying his Latin foundation instead of leaving that for the high school and an age when he will acquire it less easily, and will be fit for more advanced work. As it is, he has almost nothing to show for five years' work. If he began with Latin, he could not avoid having his inflections, while the age from eight to ten years is of all others the age for learning them—the age at which a jingle-jingle is so readily acquired and so indelibly retained. Five years is the age set for learning to read. Eight should be set for beginning Latin. I have heard complaints from children whose parents' anxiety had not allowed them to learn to read until the age of seven. The hard-pressed boy of the period might with equal reason complain, "Oh, why did you not give me Latin sooner?"

If he spent two years on the inflections, he would be using two years to advantage which are now all but wasted. He should not be expected to parse, as the graduate from the "Language-Book" was. He should learn only the inflections, and he should repeat them orally and write them on the board; for one child takes things in more easily at the ear, and another at the eye. Both should be considered, and the former has been too much disregarded of late with all the mischievous individual writing on paper, which isolates children instead of letting their minds rub one on other. It is the same with spelling. Oral spelling was long forbidden in our schools, which is one-sided, for the reason above mentioned. Such a fad, going hand in hand with the phonetic system of spelling (that stupendous failure), has produced a generation that cannot spell. Their letters, written in my young days, would have reflected great discredit on the individual; now they simply expose the system.

Educators have yet to learn the currents of that unknown sea, the child's mind. They might very well take a lesson from the great Nansen, the apostle of fitness, and, seeking out those currents, patiently float with them—not impatiently strain athwart them. The grouping of cases in the modern arrangement of the inflection of Latin nouns, for instance, is a snag which interrupts the flow without leaving any permanent trace, for it is a distinct, conscious effort of the mind, and the child will forget it when he would not forget the jingle of the cases in their natural sequence.

HELEN MANSFIELD.

GLOUCESTER, MASS., December 27, 1897.

Notes.

'The Sacrament in Song,' a collection of extracts from poems bearing on the Communion, fitted for a Christian daily year-book, with a preface by the Archbishop of York, will shortly be issued by Henry Frowde.

A Genealogy of the Sanborn Family, compiled by V. C. Sanborn of La Grange, Ill., is nearly ready for the printer. It will embrace a chapter, by Mr. Frank B. Sanborn of Concord, on the mode of life and general character of the New Hampshire people in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries; together with numerous portraits of prominent bearers of the name, and other illustrations.

'Literary Statesmen and Others,' by Norman Hapgood (Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.), is a collection of essays in literary criticism. The book has nothing to do with statesmanship, although there is some allusion to it in the essay on John Morley, and Lord Rosebery and Arthur Balfour are subjected to examination. But this examination relates only to their writings, and in the case of Lord Rosebery it is slight enough. Mr. Balfour is more carefully estimated, and Mr. Morley receives even more critical study. In fact, the essay on Morley is a very clever piece of criticism; discriminating, appreciative, and, on the whole, just. The papers on Stendhal, Mérimée, American Art Criticism, and American Cosmopolitanism, do not impress us; that on Henry James is more substantial. Mr. Hapgood possesses both critical insight and literary skill; but his criticism seems to us to lack unity and continuity. In dealing with particular aspects of style, however, it is often suggestive.

In a privately printed pamphlet, Mr. J. C. Schwab has told in great detail the 'Revolutionary History of Fort Number Eight.' Naturally the attention is concentrated on the military movement, and no attempt has been made to place the fort in its relations with the general plan of campaign, if, indeed, there could be such a plan when Washington could not tell where the next blow would be struck on his force, demoralized by the ill-advised Long Island occupation and subsequent retreat. Fort No. 8 was a redoubt hastily thrown up by the British on what is now the Schwab property to cover the attack on Fort Washington. It is to be feared that few will agree with the writer's military opinions. To speak of the British army as the best organized and "officered military body ever seen up to that time" is too favorable a judgment; while to "epitomize" Washington's skill as a general by his "ability to run away from the English troops and to escape being drawn into battle except under circumstances more favorable to their side," is too unfavorable to American generals. With a changing and untrained army, or often with only the shadow of an army, it required true generalship to keep any front to the enemy. A well-drawn map accompanies this praiseworthy essay in Revolutionary incident.

'Historic Letters,' from the Wayne and Persifer Smith collections in the State Normal School at Westchester, Pa., opens with a letter from Arnold to Wayne on this capture of Fort Washington, and closes with a letter from Jefferson Davis to General Smith. So long an interval covered in less than forty pages of large type implies that the letters are few in number; the material, however, is good, and well deserves preservation in this neat form. Gates, Irvine, Sullivan, Wayne, and Schuyler are the more important writers. The letter of Irvine tells a gruesome story of the treatment of deserters and those who tempted them. It would form a good text for an Anti-War Society. A portrait of Washington (one of Peale's) and two minor illustrations are given. Mr. G. M. Philips is the editor, and the pamphlet is privately printed.

'Figures Contemporaines,' by Bernard Lazare (Paris: Perrin & Cie.), is one of those collections of newspaper articles to which journalists are becoming decidedly too partial. Newspaper writing seldom has the polish and the literary finish one expects to meet with in critical studies presented to us in book form. But it is not even studies that M. Lazare gives here; it is the sketchiest kind of talk about a number of writers, fifty altogether, who belong to the past and the present, the immediate past and present. He is apparently desirous of distinguishing himself as a *frondeur;* and while some of the things he says are no doubt true, the general tone of the articles smacks too much of their origin—the columns of a lively newspaper whose business it is above all to be entertaining. Nothing is added to our knowledge of the authors treated of, and something is taken from our enjoyment of them.

The second series of René Doumic's 'Études sur la Littérature Française' is published by Perrin & Cie. The reproach addressed to Lazare's bookful of emptiness cannot be transferred to M. Doumic's, which offers substantial reading and information well put in literary form. The influence of the great critic who now presides over the fortunes of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* is visible in the ideas expressed and also in the style, though in neither case does the originality of M. Doumic suffer from the fact. He, too, speaks fearlessly what is in his mind, even if he lacks the force and the authority of M. Brunetière. His articles on Madame Geoffrin and Madame Roland, on Zola, Goncourt, and France, appear to us to merit the praise of outspokenness and justice. He is not blinded by the great reputation of any one of the quintet, and seeks evidently to give what to him is the true view of their merits and demerits. M. Doumic is writing better than he did, and gain-

ing something of a charm of manner in his appreciations which considerably heightens their value from the literary point of view.

The perplexing task of critically grouping the productions of recent and contemporary German writers has been remarkably well performed by Adolf Bartels in 'Die Deutsche Dichtung der Gegenwart; die Alten und die Jungen' (Leipzig: Avenarius). The author, himself one of the younger members of the craft, gives evidence of very extensive reading and great independence, originality, and soundness of judgment. It is only by means of such a survey as this that one can realize not only the great literary activity in Germany during the last two generations, but also the goodly proportion of truly superior talents among the large number, not to speak of the two or three geniuses or "partial" geniuses. It should be said that the author's standard is high, notwithstanding the large number of names in the index, and that the 114 octavo pages of text are not an annotated catalogue of names and titles, but a noteworthy essay in literary history and criticism, quite as interesting and valuable as the recent publications of Litzmann, Wolff, and others, which do not cover as wide a field as the present work.

A rather pragmatical article by Karl Pearson, on the decadence of German science, which appeared some time ago in *Nature*, and was subsequently the occasion of a sharp polemic, was ostensibly a review of two recent German books, Dreyer's 'Methodenlehre und Erkenntnisskritik,' and Volkmann's 'Grundzüge der Naturwissenschaften,' but the real thesis was "the departing glory of German science." Now it may well be that Dr. Pearson's extended reading justifies his general contention, but it is very unfair to these two books to assume that they would alone justify or even suggest it. Volkmann's at least is a brief, wholly popular, suggestive, and useful book. Written in a minor key, evidently a by-product of more important work, expressly disclaiming the attempt to make a rigid final system, and in no way characteristic of the ordinary German scientific treatise, it was a very unfortunate selection for so weighty a thesis.

Nansen's fine Norse physiognomy in a vigorous etching forms the frontispiece ornament of the new *Minerva*, that invaluable bond between the learned institutions of the world (Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The scope is ever expanding, and the present volume takes in for the first time a number of scientific, archæologic, collegiate and bibliothecal institutions in France, Italy, Greece, and India. The precious index of names has been prepared by Dr. F. Mentz, who will hereafter be a regular member of the staff of *Minerva*.

From Lemcke & Buechner also we receive the handy pocket 'Geschichts-Atlas,' a companion to the 'Atlas Antiquus' issued four years ago by the Gotha firm of Justus Perthes. What is now offered is a chronology of historical events from the Christian era to date, under the respective countries of Europe, with a section allotted to America, not brought down beyond 1865. These tables are followed by maps clearly colored and not too crowded, of which the only American one is of Mexico and the United States. Small as these maps are, every space is utilized for side-maps on a larger scale, so that the series is pretty rich in geographical information.

Finally, the same German and New York firms bring us the issue for 1898 of the venerable *Almanach de Gotha*, in which there are many changes and some wholly new features, such as the articles on Abyssinia and the Grand Republic of Central America, and the sections descriptive of those factors of human brotherhood, the international bureaus and unions for various scientific, humane, and statistical objects. Some stress is laid on the extra trouble imposed on the editors by the diplomatic changes attendant upon President McKinley's accession to office; and that potentate might well feel a pang of remorse when he witnesses the magnanimity displayed in coupling his portrait with that of Queen Victoria and of Queen Wilhelmina of Holland.

The *Musenalmanach* for 1898, edited by Dr. Otto Braun, and published by Cotta in Stuttgart, contains three pieces of prose fiction: "Scharka," by Max Haushofer, "Eigenes Leben," by Ernst Muellenbach, and a most ingenious and entertaining *Märchen*, entitled "Ben Saccaria's Wunderhorn," by J. R. Haarhans. The contributions in verse are by the best of contemporary German poets, among whom W. Jensen, H. Lingg, Max Jordan, G. Scherer, F. Dahn, G. Ebers, H. Vierordt, A. Matthaei, and Agricola von Hörmann may be especially mentioned. There are excellent sonnets by the editor, Otto Braun, and several pungent epigrams by Ludwig Fulda. The volume is neatly printed, and is rendered additionally attractive by six full-page engravings.

Students who are fortunate enough to be familiar with Flemish will welcome the second volume of Dr. Paul Fredericq's 'Geschiedenis der Inquisitie in de Nederlanden,' in which he follows the fortunes of the Netherlandish Inquisition and its victims during the fourteenth century. The period here treated is, perhaps, the most interesting one in the Low Countries, prior to the rise of Protestantism, as it comprises the overthrow of the Templars, the persecution of the Beguines and Begghards, the remarkable developments of the Flagellants and the Dancing Mania, and the various forms of mysticism, more or less moral, in which the boundary line between orthodoxy and heterodoxy was so nebulous that a man like Gerard Groot might either be persecuted himself or be an inquisitor persecuting others. The history is further varied by the competition between the Episcopal and the Papal Inquisitions, and the intervention of the secular power, either to use the Holy Office as its tool or to limit its field of action, as the politics of the moment might suggest. Professor Fredericq's familiarity with the sources, and skill in exposition, are too thoroughly recognized to render it necessary for us to do more than express the regret that he has not chosen to render his labors accessible to a wider circle of readers than will be able to derive benefit from them in the idiom in which they are presented.

The Programme of the Royal Statistical Society, London, for the current session, which opened so strikingly on the 14th of December with President Courtney's inaugural address, is to be followed on the 18th of January by a paper from Sir George Baden-Powell, M.P., who has taken the Colonial Empire under his special care, and will discourse upon the Foreign Trade of the British Colonies. Other subjects to be dealt with are: "Old Age Pensions," by Sir Henry C. Burdett; "Female Employment in Factories, with special reference to its effects on the health of the employed and of their children," by Miss Clara E. Collet, M.A.; "Further Notes on the Utility of Common Statistics," by Sir Robert Giffen, recently Assistant Secretary to the Board of Trade, now retired on pension; "Local Taxation in London," by G. Laurence Gomme; "Poor Relief in Scotland; its Statistics and Development, 1791 to 1891," by C. S. Loch; and "Life Tables, and the Registrar-General's Mortality Statistics," by A. C. Waters. Contrary to the usual custom of London societies, the statisticians have their meetings first and their dinners afterwards, and very good the latter are, as those who have joined them know.

I. Zangwill, Professor Dowden, Édouard Rod, and Karl Frenzel pay tribute to the memory of Heinrich Heine in *Cosmopolis* for December. The personality of the poet, the pathos of his life and long agony, the complexity of his character, have proved the most tempting side of the subject to the English and French writers. The veteran writer Karl Frenzel discusses the worth and influence of Heine's poetry, which he is disposed, in a measure, to rank among world literature.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for December contains a summary of recent investigations of the surface currents of the North Sea, made in order to ascertain their part "in transporting the floating or pelagic eggs and larvæ of marine fishes." Two kinds of floats—bottles and strips of wood—were used, and "the results showed that the bottles were much more reliable than the wooden slips." Among the conclusions reached were, that the circulation was from the north of Scotland southerly to the Wash, and thence northeast along the Danish and Norwegian coasts; that the average daily speed of the movement was about two or three geographical miles, and that the principal cause of the circulation is "probably the influence of the prevailing winds." There is also an account of the climate, products, and industries of Queensland, and a slight sketch of the antiquities and legends of Anaga, a district of the island of Teneriffe.

The latest *Bulletin de la Société de Géographie* opens with an account of an exploration of the river Kota in the French Congo. One of the greatest obstacles to the progress of the expedition was the frequency of tornadoes, of which there were often two in the course of a day. This is followed by a description of a tour in Cyprus, made for the purpose of observing the traces of the French colonists who followed the Crusaders. Incidentally the author, M. C. Enlart, praises the British rule as a model of administration, and refers especially to the efforts being made to reforest certain districts, by prohibiting the pasturage of goats and the planting of the eucalyptus. In some notes upon districts of the French Ivory Coast, there is an interesting account of the native methods of gold-mining. Shafts are sunk to the depth of from sixty to a hundred and fifty feet, in groups of six or eight, which are joined by tunnels. The blocks of quartz, when detached, are drawn to the surface by ropes made of vines, and are carried to the village. Here they are crushed and washed. In one of the districts a native can, by three or four months of hard labor, make, above his expenses, an ounce

or an ounce and a half of gold dust. The only currency is gold dust, which is valued at three francs the gramme.

The climate of eastern Siberia is the subject of the first article in the *Annales de Géographie* for November, of which the special purpose is to show its resemblances to and differences from the climate of the North American regions in the same latitude. This is followed by a sketch of Russian explorations in Central Asia from those of Przhevalsky, in 1871, to the present time. Upon an admirable map are traced the routes of thirty-two different expeditions. Among the most interesting of these is that of the Kalmuck lama Baza-Baksha, who, during a three-years' pilgrimage to the Buddhist sanctuaries, visited Lhassa. An account of his travels in Kalmuck, with a Russian translation, has just been published in St. Petersburg, the first book of the kind in that language. There is also a description of the little known district of Cao-Bang, on the northeastern frontier of Tonkin, which is apparently rich in undeveloped resources. The soil is capable of yielding all tropical productions; valuable trees (as the paper mulberry), bamboo, and aromatic plants grow in great profusion; and on the accompanying map are noted numerous gold and iron mines. The inhabitants consist principally of three native races, differing fundamentally from the Annamese and Chinese, whose attempts at subjugation and assimilation they have successfully resisted. This district is traversed by three great trade routes, leading to important Chinese cities.

The Maryland Geological Survey, recently instituted, and now in charge of Prof. W. B. Clark of Johns Hopkins University, has lately issued its first report, in liberally handsome form and with an abundant supply of useful material. General sketches of the physical and geological features of the State and of their exploration occupy nearly 200 pages; a bibliography covers seventy pages; and a first report upon a magnetic survey, by Prof. Bauer of Chicago University, fills 120 pages. The volume is well illustrated with maps and plates.

The appropriateness of an association between geological and magnetic surveys is illustrated in a recent article in the *Journal* of the Franklin Institution by B. S. Lyman of Philadelphia, who discovers a surprising correspondence between certain slight deflections of the magnetic lines in the eastern part of Pennsylvania and the course of a profound fracture or fault by which the deep underground structures are dislocated. The dislocation occurred so long ago in the earth's history that the surface inequality on its two sides has been obliterated by denudation; the line of the fracture is practically invisible, under the soil, but it is nevertheless located by the discordance of the adjacent rock formations. The fault line and the magnetic deflections were determined independently, and yet present a remarkable accordance. Delicate magnetic observations may therefore come to be applied in future to tracing concealed geological structures.

On retiring from the rectorship of the University of Vienna, October 28, 1897, the distinguished Oriental scholar Prof. Leo Reinisch delivered an address, in which he expressed his warm approval of the enlightened policy of that institution in admitting students to its privileges without distinction of sex. He stated that during the past year Gabriele von Posanner had, on completing the regular course of study in the medical department and passing a satisfactory examination, received the degree of M.D., and that this was the first time the University had conferred such a distinction on a woman. The progress of civilization, he added, is constantly increasing the complexity of human life, and thus presenting new problems for solution. Under the present social and industrial conditions young women of the better class, but of moderate means, can be saved from physical, intellectual, and moral deterioration only by having full scope for the development of their mental powers. The higher education of woman, he thinks, will tend to prevent "the money-bag from being the chief motive to marriage," but will not interfere with her functions and duties as wife and mother. In this connection he alludes to the well-known fact that the great men who have exerted the most powerful and permanent influence upon the intellectual development of mankind, have been, as a rule, the children of intellectually superior women; while, on the other hand, the decline of Mohammedan civilization in the Orient is due, for the most part, to the systematic exclusion of women from all higher culture, thereby stunting their mental faculties and nullifying their proper influence on social life and the education of the rising generation.

One of the fruits of the present agitation of the woman question in Germany is a concise biography of Mary Wollstonecraft, with an admirable analysis and appreciation of her 'Vindication of the Rights of Woman,' by Helene Richter. It is published in Vienna.

—The *Century* for January contains an elaborate account, by George Byron Gordon, under the title "The Mysterious City of Honduras," of the recent explorations and discoveries at Copan. It is nearly sixty years since Stephens made the world acquainted with the fact that in the heart of Central America existed the remains of a prehistoric city, interesting in the same way that Baalbec and Palmyra are interesting, but perhaps more mysterious. Many an American of mature years can recall the astonishment with which he first saw Stephens's plates. "Skepticism and mistrust," as stated by Mr. Gordon, they could but excite in the mind of any casual reader. But the explorations and excavations since Stephens's day, and especially those recently conducted by the Harvard Peabody Museum, in which Mr. Gordon has played an important part, have only proved the truth and accuracy of the early narrative, while they have deepened the mystery. Until the Maya hieroglyphs and maguey books can be deciphered, we cannot know much of the history of the civilization of which Copan seems to have been the capital city; but in its remains we have a stupendous archæological fact, such as science must puzzle over for a long time to come. The drawings show us sculpture, monoliths, altars, stairways, "temples, palaces, and piles stupendous," covering the site of a city seven or eight miles long and two miles wide, neither Aztec nor Indian —ruins, perhaps, before the "halls of the Montezumas" were designed—the remains of a people once possessed of an advanced civilization, the key to which we possess, while the means of using it is gone. Gustav Kobbé contributes an article on "Every-Day Heroism" which is well worth reading. It is a collection of stories from actual life of heroic self-sacrifice in the performance sometimes of ordinary duty, and sometimes of something very much out of the range of ordinary duty. Heroism from the earliest times has meant a great variety of things, and the heroes of blood and war have had so much space devoted to them that it is no more than fair that the magazines should give some attention now to the heroes of peace, as the *Century* is doing. Hero-worship is a good cult if the heroes are well chosen; but for an industrial people they ought not to be selected from the annals of rapine and slaughter. In passing, we may suggest as a hint towards the production of another paper in this series, that one of the supreme tests of heroism is endurance—not the capacity, fine though it be, to "hold her nozzle agin' the bank" while others look on, nor to perform a single act of glorious self-devotion, but to undergo cheerfully. Christian heroism this used to be called, but the pagans knew something of it, too. Mr. Kobbé is evidently on the right track.

—The *Atlantic* for January has a curious article on "The Present Scope of Government," by Eugene Wambaugh, in which an attempt is made once more to restate an old problem, that of the true "sphere of government." Prof. Wambaugh enumerates what he calls the "enlarged" functions of government, and gives about three pages of them, beginning with the promotion of morality, and ending with the ownership and care of cemeteries. His list might have been longer, for there is hardly any department of life into which the government of civilized societies does not introduce regulations of some sort, but the writer seems to be on a false scent. He thinks as soon as government becomes popular, it is immediately guided by an intention to promote the common welfare, and there ceases to be any visible reason for "emphasizing the old formula"; the old formula being "the philosophical theory as to the benefits of natural liberty." This is an idea which has been fostered in the past by American politicians and enthusiasts; but we have never seen it seriously advanced before by a serious writer on government, that watchfulness against invasions of liberty ceases to be of importance when the institutions of a country become democratic. When we think of the new Tammany slate, it is amusing to read that "an intention to promote the common welfare" is almost invariably the rule with us. A much more accurate proposition is that "the actual scope of government must continue to be the resultant of the interplay of a natural desire for enlargement of governmental functions and an equally natural repugnance to unnecessary enlargement." How much further, however, does this advance us in the inquiry? The essay is clever but vague, owing, as we shrewdly suspect, to a want of clearness on the writer's part as to the true method and limits of political inquiry. Mr. E. M. Shepard has an elaborate article on what might be called Greater Tammany ("Political Inauguration of the Greater New York"), in which he takes a cheerful view of our future. Every one will be glad to know that he is undismayed, but the foundation of his hope is simply the undeniable fact that, as we have improved

non obstante Tammany, so we shall continue to improve in the future. This is what we have always maintained in these columns, and no fair-minded man can call the view pessimistic.

—Stories, poetry, information, and pictures all go to the making of a magazine, and of these the greatest in bulk seem to be stories. Even when the contribution belongs under the head of information, it is called a story, if possible, and thus *Scribner's* is able to save Mr. Lodge's account of the Revolution from being avoided as history. His "Story of the Revolution—the First Step—the First Blow," is made as light a narrative as possible, and is accompanied by many entertaining illustrations. The other contribution to which the publishers call attention on the cover is Mr. Thomas Nelson Page's "Red Rock," the first instalment of a novel of the war. Bret Harte's doggerel on "The Birds of Cirencester" (told for children *à la* Ingoldsby Legends) is good in its way. This, and some of the other January verse, lead us to wonder whether the public was not mistaken in supposing that the magazines brought out their avalanche of December poetry as their best in stock. To judge by the January improvement, the Christmas verse was simply an inferior lot worked up to look attractive and to be absorbed by the holiday market.

—In *Harper's*, Laurence Hutton has an article called "A Group of Players," which contains several pleasant anecdotes of Booth, Wallack, Barrett, and others. Mr. Hutton's knowledge of the stage and of actors is very great, and he generally recalls characteristic touches. Thus, no one who ever saw Lawrence Barrett can fail to be amused at learning that, while he had a simple and unaffected pride in his humble origin, he was terribly annoyed by a rumor that his real name was "Larry Brannigan." Of Booth's eccentricities and generosity many examples are given, and a conversation is recalled which embodies a phrase showing his keen interest in what may be called the affinity of the arts. Of Lester Wallack it is said his weakness as a writer of reminiscences was his fondness for dwelling "on what his father had said to the Duke of Wellington," "to the exclusion of his father's conversation with Elliston or Kean." A curious fate now threatens a successful actor in the phonograph. It seems that a "nickel-in-the-slot" machine has been constructed which preserves for ever, among other things, "the ravings of John McCullough," *i. e.*, lunatic scraps from *Virginius*, *Spartacus*, and *Brutus*, given in his voice and winding up with an insane laugh. A very pleasant paper is that on Stuttgart by Elise J. Allen. The illustrations and text together make an excellent guide-book to the old Suabian city, and the writer has the great qualification, which so many Americans and English people lack, of understanding the German character. This is most of all important in Suabia, where the naïveté of the race reaches a point which seems ludicrous even to the German mind. To many foreigners all Germans are Suabians, but we can hardly be mistaken in thinking that the land of Grimm's heroic "Seven Suabians" is the only spot in Germany which could have produced and preserved the legend of the old judge here given.

—Upon the discovery, in 1855, of Bradford's Journal in the Bishop of London's Fulham palace, permission to copy it was granted to the Massachusetts Historical Society. Taking advantage of this favor, and for securing "a fair and exact transcript" of the only original and continuous chronicle of the Pilgrim church and colony for its first half century, the services of Rev. Joseph Hunter, an officer of the British Museum, were secured. Mr. Hunter (famous for discovering the acting of "Twelfth Night" in the Middle Temple in 1602) engaged a gentleman who he knew "would execute the work in a scholar-like and business-like manner"; he "gave attention and supervision while it was in progress," and at its close reported: "The transcriber has done his work in a very satisfactory manner, preserving all the peculiarities of Bradford's writing, and the copy is, I think, as perfect a representation of the original as could well be made. I have perused the copy, turning often to the original when I thought there might be some error, and there has hardly been an instance in which I did not find it exact. I made the collation with much attention," etc. The gratification of the Massachusetts Society in receiving the copy, they declared to be "second only to that which would be experienced at the sight of the original," and they published it immediately, filling therewith the third volume of their fourth series. None of their multitudinous issues is more valuable or more interesting, or has been considered so accurate and authentic. The rescue, however, of the original itself from British captivity by Mr. Bayard, and its coming home to Boston in 1897, must subject the Hunterian copy to a new test. Indeed, the photographic facsimile executed last year and now scattered through the world must lead to the detection of errors hitherto unsuspected in the London transcript.

—A very noteworthy omission, amounting to nine consecutive lines, has met the eye of the present writer. It occurs on p. 179. of the Boston volume and p. 122 in the facsimile. The following lines not found in the former work are copied literatim from the latter, the facsimile:

having their libertie to make their own provissions. But some of these which came last, as the ship carpenter, and sawiers, the salte men, and others that were to follow constante employments, and had not an howers time from their hard labours, to looke for any thing above their alowance; they had at first 16 ʷ alowed them, and afterwards as fish & other food could be got, they had abatemente to 14 & 12, yea some of them to 8, as the times and occasions did vary. And yet thos which followed planting & their own occasions & had but 4 ʷ

After detecting this serious omission, the present writer at once recognized it as a case of what is technically styled *homœoteleuton*, or sameness of endings. The last words in the facsimile before "having their libertie," which is the first clause in the omitted lines, are "had but 4 ʷ." But these words are identical with the last words in those omitted lines. It is clear that the scribe had written them where they first appear, and, when he would go on in his task, mistook their second appearance for the first, and so wrote only the words following that second, unawares leaving nine lines uncopied. This palpable mistake, in spite of manifold and careful endeavors to guard against such a mortification, is not the only one in the Massachusetts printed copy. It emphasizes the value of original documents.

THE CONSTITUTION OF 1653.—I.

History of the Commonwealth and Protectorate, 1649-1660. By Samuel Rawson Gardiner, M.A. Vol. II. 1651-1654. Longmans, Green & Co. 1897. 8vo, xxii and 503 pp.

Historians of the Commonwealth are overpowered by the personality of the Protector; even Mr. Gardiner cannot entirely escape from the disease of Cromwellianism. Readers of his last volume, admirable though it be, may reasonably regret that the pages expended on a candid but sympathetic analysis of Cromwell's motives and aims have not been devoted to a thorough examination of the remarkable constitutional experiment which ought to make the year 1653 for ever noteworthy. A reviewer, at any rate, may be allowed to dismiss from his mind the interesting but unimportant inquiry as to the proportions in which enthusiasm and public spirit were in Cromwell mingled with duplicity and ambition, and may reasonably endeavor to bring into prominence the characteristics of the earliest (as it is one of the most ingenious) of written constitutions. The Instrument of Government (or, as we should now say, the Constitution) of 1653 merits attention, and this for two reasons. It was the type of a new kind of polity; and a study of the Instrument shows that Puritan constitutionalism was in its essence, even more than in its form, essentially unlike the constitutionalism of modern England.

What, then, were the main characteristics of this earliest of written constitutions? The constitution which anticipated the treaties of Union and welded England, Scotland, and Ireland into one state, is marked by four salient features. The Executive constituted under the Instrument of Government was the strongest executive which has ever existed in England. "The Government," to use modern phraseology, was not the Protector, but, a very different thing, the Protector and his Council. This body was endowed with the widest authority; it held in its hands the whole civil administration; it had complete control of the armed forces; it determined the foreign policy of the state; it had the right to declare war and make peace; and these constitutional powers were supported by adequate resources. Under the Constitution were maintained an army of at least 30,000 men and a sufficient number of ships; and for the support of the military and naval forces there was provided a constant yearly revenue, while the Constitution also insured to the Government £200,000 per annum—which, we take it, was equivalent to about a million of our money—for the maintenance of what we should now call the civil service. These revenues were not dependent for their existence on an annual or other act of Parliament. They could be legally raised under the Constitution without any Parliamentary authority.

At the head of this powerful Executive stood the Protector; but the Council itself was a body well adapted for the effective exercise of power. It consisted of not less than thirteen nor of more than thirty members; it might, that is to say, be a little smaller than a modern English cabinet, and was, when raised to its full number, not

much larger than the Senate in the time of Washington. Every Councillor held office for life; he could be removed only for actual and proved breaches of duty, such, for example, as corruption. He held his position, that is to say, on a tenure even more certain than the tenure by which English judges have held their places since 1689. The first body of Councillors were appointed under the Instrument. Vacancies, as they occurred, were to be filled up by a complicated system of appointment, which, as far as one can judge, would have led to the result that, while few men would have become Councillors who were not members of Parliament, no man could be chosen who was not acceptable to the Council; and it is no bold conjecture that, had the Instrument of Government remained in full force, the Council would in effect have filled up vacancies in its body by coöptation. The Protector, it will be said, towered above the Council. As regards Cromwell, this is obviously true, though Cromwell, as Mr. Gardiner points out, was at the Council board no despot, and his Councillors were no ciphers; but, under the Constitution of 1653, succeeding Protectors would have in all likelihood become the leaders or even the servants of the Council, for the Council, among its other attributes, had the right of electing the Protector, and all experience shows that a small body of statesmen with the right of electing their head will in general succeed in choosing, as they will always endeavor to choose, that one of their members who will carry into effect the wishes of the electors. And however this may be, in considering what was the authority of the Executive under the Instrument of Government, we must look upon it as a body which would usually act in harmony with the Protector. Whenever this was the case, the Council created by the Instrument of Government was constituted so as to possess greater powers than have fallen to any King or Cabinet since the time when the House of Commons became an essential part of the English polity.

Henry the Eighth, it may be suggested, committed acts of tyranny which could never have been perpetrated by the Protector and his Council. This is true, but the prerogatives of the Tudors, ample though they were, were limited on every side by custom. No Tudor possessed a standing army; no Tudor could despise the power of Parliament. The authority of Henry and of Elizabeth rested on their capacity for recognizing the permanent will of the nation. Modern cabinets, again, have disposed of armed forces, and have expended revenues, incomparably larger than the armies or the revenues at the disposal of Cromwell, but the strongest of ministries has been dependent for its very existence on the support of Parliament, or, in truth, of the House of Commons. The Cromwellian Council was a permanent body which was intended to outlast one Parliament after another; and, what is of even more consequence, the power of the Council was not in reality balanced by a body with anything like the weight of the houses which had at times withstood the wilfulness of Elizabeth, and had, during the Civil War, destroyed the power of the Crown. For the single House of Representatives elected under the Constitution of 1653, though called a Parliament, was in reality a very different thing—a mere legislature. This transformation of Parliament into a legislature was, in truth, one of the main alterations introduced into the Constitution of England, though nothing is more probable than that the Constitutionalists of the Commonwealth did not fully recognize the nature of the revolution which they had effected.

The first Parliament of the Protectorate possessed, indeed, some prerogatives or advantages which did not belong to the Parliaments of the monarchy. It became an essential part of the new system of government, it was necessarily convened every three years, and, when so assembled, could not be adjourned, prorogued, or dissolved for five months. It was, further, what we should now call a reformed Parliament; it was so constituted as, in theory at least, to reflect the will of the people far more accurately than did the House of Commons at any time up to the great Reform Bill of 1832. The small boroughs—the rotten or nomination boroughs of later times—were abolished, the rising towns received representatives, the centre of political power (as far as it depended upon parliamentary representation) was in the main transferred from the population of the towns to the country electors, and among the country electorate there was no residuum of poor laborers. Every elector was required to possess property worth £200, or, if we allow for the change in the value of money, property real or personal which would be worth at the present day about £1,000. The object of the Cromwellian reformers clearly was the same as the object proposed to themselves by Chatham and his son, namely, the vesting of political authority in the small but independent country landowners. Whether this change would ultimately have strengthened Parliament is open to question, but it certainly was intended to give moral authority to the representative body. To all this we must add that, in matters of ordinary legislation—in all matters, that is to say, which did not touch the Constitution—Parliament was endowed with absolute authority. It was authorized to pass bills over the head (as we should now say) of the Protector. All that he could in strictness do was to insist upon the reconsideration of measures which did not meet with his approval. In matters of legislation, the Protector possessed nothing but the dilatory veto which the Constitution of the French Republic has conferred on the President, and which no President has ventured to use. But, for all this, Parliament was deprived by the Instrument of Government of the powers by whose exercise the House of Commons has finally obtained an authority hardly distinguishable from sovereignty. To Parliament was given only an indirect share in the appointment of the Council. It was denied the means of dismissing a single Councillor from office; it ceased to wield without restraint the power of the purse, for considerable revenues were by the Constitution itself guaranteed to the Protector; nor did the legislative powers of Parliament remain unlimited, for they could be exercised only in accordance with the Constitution.

For the third and most important of the changes introduced by the Constitution of 1653 was, if we may use modern terms, the transformation of a "flexible" into a "rigid" Constitution. According to the view taken by Mr. Gardiner, the Instrument of Government made the whole of its provisions—or, in other words, every article of the Constitution—immutable. There is nothing in itself unreasonable in this interpretation of the Instrument. During the sixteenth or the seventeenth century, lawyers who used strongest language about the authority of Parliament held in effect that Parliament—a term which in their mouths of course meant the Crown and the two houses—would not or could not constitutionally change the fundamental laws of the realm. The Puritan leaders, though forced, under the stress of circumstances, to become revolutionists, were in spirit stanch Conservatives. Their indignation had been excited by the despotic innovations of the Crown, and the preservation of liberty was in their minds associated with the rigid maintenance of established custom and inherited rights. It must never be forgotten that it was not the enlightenment of Bacon, but the crabbed legalism of Coke, which earned the veneration of parliamentarians. It is therefore quite possible that the authors of the Constitution of 1653 wished to endow the fundamental institutions of the state with a fixity which, though not secured by law, has been in fact insured by the force of custom. But to any one who studies the Instrument of Government with the eye rather of a lawyer than of an historian, the fact, strange though it be, soon becomes apparent that its unknown authors were men of subtle intellects and of great sagacity, and that, with a foresight rarely found among the framers of constitutions, they had provided the means for constitutionally changing the greater part, at any rate, of the polity which they had framed.

A careful perusal of Article 24 leads to the following result: Laws were by the Constitutionalists of 1653 divided into three classes: (1.) Ordinary laws, which did not touch the provisions of the Instrument, or, in other words, which did not affect the Constitution. Such laws could be enacted by Parliament with or without the consent of the Protector. (2.) Laws which amended the Constitution, but did not affect certain fundamental provisions thereof referring in the main to religious freedom; such laws could be enacted by Parliament with the consent of the Protector, but not otherwise. (3.) Laws which affected or restrained the effect of these "fundamentals" contained in articles 35 to 37; such laws, if so they can be called, could not be enacted at all: they were *ab initio* invalid. On this point the Instrument is absolutely clear. Article 38 enacts "that all laws, statutes, and ordinances, and clauses in any law, statute, or ordinance to the contrary of the aforesaid liberty, shall be esteemed as null and void." The "aforesaid liberty" is of course the religious liberty guaranteed by the Constitution, and it may be well to note that, with a tenderness for religious freedom which may perhaps be fairly attributable to the breadth of Cromwell's own sympathies, the very article which invalidates any law that should restrict, does not invalidate any law which should extend, the sphere of spiritual liberty. However this may be, it is plain that the Constitution was not in reality as a whole unchangeable. The greater number of its articles could be changed by Parliament with the assent of the Protector. The only amendments which were constitutionally forbidden were amendments, if so we may call them, intended to restrict the guarantees for freedom of religion.

Here we come across the fourth noteworthy feature of the Constitution of 1653.

It introduced into the world that conception of guaranteed rights which is familiar to the Constitutionalists of every country but England. Whatever be the logical merits of this idea, it has certainly been fully accepted by the people of countries such as the United States and Switzerland, where religious and political freedom has flourished; and any one who reflects upon the nature of English law and the habits and traditions of English and of American courts may feel a conviction, as certain as it is allowable for any sensible man to entertain about events which have not happened, that, could the Constitution of 1653 have held its ground, the existence of a written and more or less rigid Constitution which guaranteed certain rights would, in England, as it did in a later age in America, have changed the whole position of the judiciary. Once acknowledge that a law passed by the Legislature is null and void, because it contravenes an article of the Constitution, and a court influenced by the ideas common to the whole English people will be certain to hold that, in any given case, the courts must treat such law as a nullity. But if this be once conceded, the result inevitably follows that the Judges must pass judgment upon the constitutionality of laws, or, in other words, the judiciary must become the protector of the Constitution. It is no vain imagination that, had the Instrument of Government remained the supreme law of the land, Hale might in England have performed the task and obtained the fame which in the United States fell to the lot of Marshall.

Here, then, we have embodied in the Instrument of Government as remarkable—we may perhaps say as admirable—a constitution as has ever been consciously framed by men bent on founding a well-grounded commonwealth. If we look simply at its terms, we should think the Constitution of 1653 at least as well constructed and as likely to endure as the Constitution of the United States. We all know that the Constitution of 1653 had no permanence, and that its very existence has been all but forgotten by Englishmen. In another article we shall consider what were the reasons why the Constitutionalists of the Commonwealth failed utterly in the attempt to erect a Government which should secure to the English Commonwealth the advantages both of order and of liberty.

RECENT FICTION.

St. Ives. By Robert Louis Stevenson. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Captains Courageous. By Rudyard Kipling. The Century Company.

Hugh Wynne, Free Quaker. By S. Weir Mitchell, M.D. The Century Company.

King Washington. By Adelaide Skeel and William H. Brearley. J. B. Lippincott Co.

An Open-Eyed Conspiracy: A Saratoga Idyl. By W. D. Howells. Harper & Brothers.

The most careless reader of Mr. Stevenson's novels has probably suspected that, besides being a first-rate story-teller, the author might be, in many other lights, an unusual and rather fine sort of man. With that knowledge of his actual life which is public property, on closing 'St. Ives' the longest thought can hardly fail to be about the man, particularly about a spirit so bright and a courage so dauntless that his great gift of story-telling seems in comparison but a common thing, a quality of mind borrowing distinction from less obtrusive qualities of soul. The swan of fable singing as it dies, the soldier shouting for his country as he falls, and the captain calmly going down with his ship, all captivate the multitude conscious of a certain moral splendor about figures facing death with such serenity and fearlessness. 'St. Ives' compels us to dwell upon an even more impressive exit from life, and to find even more heroic the figure of a peaceful man of letters who, lying long in the jaws of death, resolutely defied pain and, knowing no fear, took his leave with the grace and gayety of Lovelace going to the wars.

The fine figures of Mr. Stevenson's creation represent two classes—men whose actions are governed by the fear of God and a stern interpretation of the moral law, Hebraic rather than Christian; and men who would be raging heathen but for the saving virtues of honor, courage, and courtesy. For himself, he could not help belonging to the one that was his breed; and by romantic temperament and æsthetic sympathy he was able to identify himself with the other. In creating the gentleman of many aliases, Viscount Anne de Keroual de Saint-Yves, he threw off the restraints of heredity and upbringing and became a bold, witty, graceless, gallant noble of France and soldier of the empire. None of his scampish adventurers is more freely and naturally drawn than St. Ives, and of all he is the most astute, light-hearted, and attractive. Viscount Anne is a worldling *de race;* neither the horrors of a childhood spent in the shadow of the guillotine, nor hard apprenticeship in the practice of war, as Champdivers, private, Eighth of the line, nor constant association with "brawling, bruising, ignorant pillars of low pot-houses," had power to chasten his external frivolity, or could teach him to regard any situation as too serious to be mastered by ready wit and beautiful manners. Perilous adventure was, of course, the breath of his nostrils, and he would far rather fight than eat or sleep; or, at least, no one can doubt his preference, though, as a matter of fact, he is always conspicuously running away.

The first flight, from Edinburgh Castle to the English home of the Count de Keroual, is a splendid bit of narrative pressing on at hot pace, yet leisurely enough for ample characterization of people and places and for love-making and brawling by the way. Up to the parting with the Gilchrists at Swanston cottage, the illustration of the art of story-telling is pretty nearly perfect, and if we had to make a choice of the most vivid and entertaining scene in all Mr. Stevenson's novels we should hardly hesitate to say, "Chapter ix. of 'St. Ives'." The second flight, in the claret-colored chaise, with the wrathful disinherited Viscount Alain in full chase, has not the same authority, the same easy command of material and expression, while the third flight—all that follows the Assembly ball—is a comparatively disorderly scamper. It happens that at the Assembly ball Mr. Stevenson left off and Mr. Quiller Couch, working from the author's notes, finished the tale. No one can say what Mr. Stevenson would have done with his notes, but when we remember the fantastic and unrelated ending of 'The Ebb Tide' there is no certainty that he would have spared us Viscount Anne's adventures in the balloon, or the voyage with the mysterious Captain Colenso—an extravagance which no author except Mr. Frank Stockton could perpetrate and be forgiven. Mr. Stevenson's taste was not faultless; yet it is not probable that he would have crowded the final scenes in Paris with such commonplace devices, or overwhelmed Viscount Alain with such melodramatic defeat.

The conclusion of St. Ives's love story seems to us more in Mr. Stevenson's manner than the narrative of adventures. Always shy of the passion of love, Mr. Stevenson, in using it as a motive, conceded the smallest possible amount of emotional and sentimental detail, and Mr. Quiller Couch scrupulously respects his reticence. Though the lovers are always head over ears in trouble, St. Ives is as gay as a lark, and Miss Flora Gilchrist far from a lovelorn damsel. She has practical sense and courage in adversity, qualities which, when embodied in a beautiful woman, went to make the sort of woman that, so far as he has given us his confidence, Mr. Stevenson most admired. As St. Ives, incessantly playing with tragedy, is never tragic, and only once, in describing his relations with a transient figure, the aged French Colonel, achieves pathos, there is no scope for Mr. Stevenson's most impressive style, no passage where the poet's presence is intimated in impassioned prose. But as an example of his narrative style, his gift for telling just what was seen and said and done, of giving a distinct personality even to the least of the actors in the drama, he has left us nothing so characteristic as 'St. Ives' except 'Kidnapped.' The Viscount's perfect command of the descriptive epithet is alone enough to insure him a long literary life.

Good a story-teller as Mr. Stevenson was, if the test is ability to give an impression of truth, Mr. Kipling is perhaps a better one. This is not to say that he is a bigger figure in letters, for that emphatically he is not—a declaration which some serious seeker for truth may hereafter attempt to make good, or perchance refute, in a bulky and unprofitable volume. But, for the stories, in the last analysis a candid admirer may be forced to admit that perhaps none of Mr. Stevenson's could be quite and all true, while even an enemy could display only childish rancor in denying to every one of Mr. Kipling's the seal of a scornful veracity. Equally profitless would it be to dispute their interest. He imagines things so strongly, and he knows things so well, that subjects, however alien to our thought and tastes, become at once of the utmost importance. We reproach ourselves for having lived so long in neglect or contempt of them. The cod-fishing industry is not intrinsically, of itself, apart from Mr. Kipling, an occupation that invites attention from those who dwell remote from the Banks, knowing the fish chiefly as a substance triangular and tough, with no suggestion of the ocean about it except the salt. Cod-fishing has never been made a "cause," that we should shout for it, or even denounced as a pleasant vice, that we should hasten to know it in order to suppress it. Cod-fishing, except for fishers and their families, has always been but a name for a transaction on the deep which nobody could be expected to inquire into. All this until Mr. Kipling chose to sweep the pampered son of an American millionaire off from the decks

of an Atlantic steamer into a fisherman's dory and set him to catch, split, and salt cod for three months. Thus suddenly knowledge about cod-fishing has been widely diffused; it has become picturesque, absorbingly interesting in every detail, and doubtless a source of hope and consolation to the parents of insufferable boys. The description of Harvey Cheyne's apprenticeship on board the *We're Here* is a capital expression of Mr. Kipling's singular ability for investing plain facts with the arresting charm of fiction by imparting his own vigorous interest in them to the reader. The abrupt, disagreeable first chapter, and the chapters narrating the rush of the Cheynes across the continent to meet their lost darling, show that rare and wonderful imaginative force which occasionally makes fiction more real than life itself. The characterization of the cod-fishers is feebler, vaguer than anything of Mr. Kipling's we can think of, and the corrupt English which they speak has never been heard on the Gloucester shore or from the deck of a Canuck fishing-smack. On the other hand, Harvey Cheyne is known and detested by every one except his mother wherever a score of Americans may be gathered together. Not less familiar and dismal is Mrs. Cheyne, with her nerves, her doting subservience to the abominable child, her selfish command of the husband so lavish of wealth and with the patience of a thousand donkeys. Mr. Kipling has drawn her with a vindictive irony which implies that he has made arrangements for permanent absence from her country. "She" is not likely to forget the picture of her ridiculous self controlling the railroad system of a continent by her hysterical cry, "Hurry," or to forgive such an innocent-seeming paragraph as that announcing the arrival of the Cheyne special at Chicago: "It is on record that the last crew took entire charge of switching operations at Sixteenth Street, because 'she' was in a doze at last, and heaven was to help any one who bumped her."

The reminiscences of 'Hugh Wynne, Free Quaker,' make a very readable historical novel. Most historical novels are not readable, and, so far, Dr. Mitchell has scored a success. The tale is dull at first; the inherent tediousness of childhood's memories being increased by a formal, constrained style which is mistakenly supposed to give the eighteenth-century *cachet*. Once Wynne is grown up, the story moves, and the style is correspondingly freer and more natural. The long and rather involved tale of love, war, and colonial social life is carefully constructed and linked smoothly; the scenes and situations are vivid, some of them spirited, and there are at least two admirably drawn and strongly contrasted characters—Hugh's father, John Wynne, a sombre-minded Quaker, and his aunt, Miss Gainor Wynne, a sort of chaste colonial Baroness Bernstein.

There are persons still living who suppose, perhaps erroneously, that behind the commercial reasons for the revolt of the Colonies, there was discontent very general, very profound, very passionate, with the rule of kings and the supremacy of aristocracies, and that the Revolution was largely an expression of resentment against the existing social order, and even a protest against the idea which its continued existence involved and proclaimed. Such persons, after reading 'Hugh Wynne,' can hardly escape being confused in mind, and, if imaginatively attached to theories, troubled in spirit. All their cherished ideals are shattered. There is not even a passing bow to freedom, equality, and the rights of man. Jefferson, Franklin, and the rest were not "fathers of the Republic"; they were "founders of an empire." Washington was no impeccable patriot leading his people to a higher destiny. He was a haughty, reserved, arrogant aristocrat, blasphemous at times; he was a soldier of the King, temporarily out of work, and, all on account of a trifling extra cost for a cup of tea, willing to turn his hand against his master and plunge his country into a long war of which the issue was most uncertain. The men who captured Major André, and those who condemned him to death for conspiring with a traitor, were so insensible to the charm of birth and breeding that no gentleman could speak of them without a shudder. Washington felt the ignominy of his own part in the regrettable incident so deeply that he could not permit the unfortunate young Englishman's name to be mentioned in his presence. Arnold himself was not half a bad fellow. It is true and undeniable that he tried to sell his country; but then he had always kept open house in Philadelphia, and had married a daughter of a first family, and had got into luxurious extravagant ways, and really needed a good deal of money to keep him going. Why Hugh Wynne and his Aunt Gainor joined the rebels, it is useless to inquire. All their tastes and habits were aristocratic, and they had plenty of money to pay for tea at any price. Clearly, on the evidence, the Revolution was a colossal folly. A society apparently better-bred, more polished, altogether finer and gayer than anything known in America during this century, was broken up by it, and whatever the people not in the "Governor's set" may have gained by it does not appear in Dr. Mitchell's quite readable historical novel.

This question is not answered in another novel of the Revolution, not quite readable. The title, 'King Washington,' is rather agitating. The "Colonial Dames," the "Daughters of the Revolution," the exclusive Massachusetts coterie of "The Twenty-nine," have compelled us to acknowledge the noble origin of most of the native population of the United States, but have not yet prepared us to believe that Washington ever was, or could have been, or would have been, a king. On page 293 of this novel our incredulity is confirmed by Washington himself. The story is a meandering, romantic account of an attempt to kidnap Washington, when, towards the close of the war, he was in headquarters at Newburgh. A young woman implores him to spare the chief agent of the conspirators. Washington, we are told, "removed his glasses and did not think it beneath his dignity to wipe the tell-tale moisture from his eyes." Then, quite in the good old cherry-tree-and-hatchet manner, he spoke: "The power to pardon does not rest with me. In America no one person is King." It has been the fate of many great men to be misunderstood, but few have been made to appear ridiculous so persistently as Washington.

Mr. Howells's 'Open-Eyed Conspiracy' is one of the light, brilliant performances with which he occasionally amuses himself between serious labors. Mr. and Mrs. March, spending a few weeks at Saratoga, the one philosophical and ironical, the other impulsive and literal, both inveterate meddlers, involve themselves in the affairs of a forlorn rustic beauty. Always protesting that they have nothing to do with it, they get her engaged to marry one of their pet young men. Slight as the episode is, it attracts attention to a change amounting to transformation that American social life has undergone in the last ten or fifteen years. The glory of the Saratoga caravansaries has departed; culture shuns them; fashion recognizes them not; aspiring plutocracy would not be found dead there. Only benighted Cubans imagine them still to be the centres of fashion which ante-bellum legends describe them. There is a crowd, heterogeneous, brilliant, appearing very rich and even splendid, but the presence of a really "nice" person is as rare as that of an angel. All this Mr. March, who knew Saratoga long ago, and still has a fondness for it (a fondness shared, but less frankly owned up to, by Mrs. March), notes, as he sits positively sizzling even in the shade, or strolls beneath the splendid trees, or lounges about the big hotels where he doesn't stop, where Mrs. March wouldn't stop for untold gold. The tone of Mr. March's reflections is genial, humorous, ironical, hardly a serious note; nevertheless, he manages to contribute impressively to that series of social studies which, by their brilliancy and comprehensiveness, we trust may insure for Mr. Howells enduring fame.

NOMINATIONS.

Nominations for Elective Office in the United States. By Frederick W. Dallinger. [Harvard Historical Studies, Vol. IV.] Longmans, Green & Co. 1897.

Mr. Dallinger's book goes over ground which is familiar to every one. He begins with an historical sketch of the nominating machinery in the United States, in which he traces the rise and growth of the present primary and convention system. The sum and substance of this chapter, the drift of which is entirely historical, is to show that the present system is modern. It has little or no relation to the old caucus, nor to the system of self-announced nominations (the English system), at one period common in the South. It is the application of representative, democratic institutions to a purely party business within party lines, and is made the analogue, so far as possible, of those institutions themselves; the primary corresponding to the town or ward meeting, and the convention to the Legislature.

The first chapter is followed by a description of the present system as it exists, and by an account of the defects observed in its operation, while the remainder of the book is occupied with a discussion of the remedies proposed. We shall not weary our readers with rehearsing the shocking story of the abuses of the system, for they may be summed up in a few words: Instead of the primaries and conventions turning out candidates fairly representative of the community, they tend to fall into the hands of a local "ring" headed by a corrupt manager or boss, who himself nominates; the primaries and conventions merely registering his decision, and that decision being dictated mainly by his own private interests. His nominees are, in the main, place-men dependent on the taxes for a living which his favor provides, forming a close corporation or "machine," which effectually bars the door to

any nomination not authorized by him. Through his control of the nominating machinery, he fills all departments of the government with his private agents, and thus, though elections seem to remain free, he really determines whom we shall elect, and becomes himself the government, though he may not hold any office in it. When we come to the question of remedies, we find that a great number have been proposed, among them minority representation and regulation of primaries by law; but the remarkable thing about this part of the book is that the author, whose familiarity with the history of the subject no one can dispute, dismisses all the specifics proposed, and tells us that he knows of but three things likely to have much effect on nominations—a diminution in the number of elective offices, absolute separation of local from national and State politics, and, above all, the abolition of the spoils system, and consequent destruction of the class of professional politicians. We may perhaps throw some light upon the view of the important subject of nomination to which Mr. Dallinger's researches tend, by calling attention to one or two points involved, though not expressly stated, in his study.

Down to very recent times, writers who have discussed the fundamental questions of government have generally failed to foresee the importance of the nominating system in a modern representative democracy enjoying a wide suffrage. In Greece and Rome, owing to the narrow local suffrage and the fact that representative institutions did not exist, the difficulty now felt did not arise. Nor was its future importance anticipated by Montesquieu, Hobbes, or Locke. When the authors of the 'Federalist' discussed the proposed Constitution, and explained the mode contrived for electing the President, their explanation showed that they had never thought about the detailed work of nominations at all. "The people of each State," they said (Fed., No. 671), "shall choose a number of persons as electors," as if this function would be performed by the whole people coming together in a sort of State meeting and balloting. Attention has been frequently directed to the fact that the Electoral College, which they intended to be a body of notables, speedily came to be a body of nobodies—dummies selected by party machinery to cast a foreordained ballot; but it is at least equally curious that the method by which the candidates for electors were to be chosen should not even have occurred to them or to their critics. As they say themselves: "The mode of appointment of the chief magistrate of the United States is almost the only part of the system of any consequence which has escaped without severe censure, or which has received the slightest mark of approbation from its opponents." What they were thinking of when they talked about "the people," was really some small classical, mediæval, or Renaissance city community, the inhabitants of which knew each other more or less by sight, and in which the number enjoying the franchise was very small, and the notables all men of established position, known by sight to everybody in the place. Having in their minds a very different sort of community from that which was destined to establish itself in America, they could not foresee the result of their scheme, and they accordingly gravely state that "they have not made the appointment of the President to depend *on any preëxisting bodies of men, who might be tampered with beforehand to prostitute their votes;* but they have referred it in the first instance to *an immediate act of the People of America.*" Yet to-day the nomination of the candidates does depend on preëxisting bodies of men, and we have only to turn to such a book as the autobiography of Mr. John Sherman or the present account to find that certain portions of these bodies are universally known to be purchasable, while nomination of any one for an office by "an immediate act of the People of America" is a mere phrase signifying nothing.

When Louis Napoleon obtained possession of France and shrewdly constructed a tyranny resting on universal suffrage, it began to be perceived that the business of placing before the people the candidate for whom, or the question on which, they were to vote was no less important than the extension of the right to vote itself. We see the same thing continually in private corporations and stock companies, when stockholders continue bad managers in control because the ticket is made up by the managers themselves, and even vote away their own rights because the method of presenting the question to them is devised by those whose interest it is that these rights shall be voted away. We know now that on the control of nominations the whole character of any government, or the conduct of private corporate affairs, may easily turn. In the long run, any one who controls them must control everything.

Unless we are mistaken, it will be found that whenever the suffrage is very extended and popular, the business of nominating candidates for elective office falls into the hands of a small number of men, or into those of the candidates themselves. Hence, in a democracy, the first question is, What is the character of these bodies? In this country, self-nominated candidates are beginning to reappear (and in our opinion as time goes on their number is likely to increase); but, as a general thing, candidates are nominated by "preëxisting bodies," and the character of the candidates depends in the long run on the character of these bodies. To believe otherwise is to believe that the tree is not to be known by its fruit. Now to-day these bodies are not bodies of distinguished or even responsible men, but aggregations mainly of obscure and irresponsible men, "politicians" by profession, whose very occupation is a by-word, who are frequently corrupt, and who, when not actually dishonest, are biassed against the selection of good candidates by every habit and influence of their lives. The condition of our legislatures, of the Senate of the United States, is enough to show that the machinery of selection works badly, and yet, as we have said, upon the selection of candidates by these or other bodies depends the whole future of the government. Hence, it is the universal conviction of those who have given much attention to the subject, that the present low character of the men turned out as candidates by our nominating system cannot continue if our system itself is to last. The government might go on long after its essential virtue had departed, but, as it degenerated, the country and its civilization would decline; laws would cease to be observed, property and life would become less secure, provision against the future would not be made, debt and expenditures would increase, and in the end, whether through the effect of war or intestine commotion and disorder, rotten forms would be swept out of existence by the strong hand, and some sort of despotism be established in place of the institutions we have known. A cynic might even say with some plausibility that we need not wait, and that we are actually now living in the state of things we dread for our children, that our dumb legislatures are but a modern copy of the silenced Senate of Rome, and our Platts and Crokers the vulgar despots of a vulgar age. To this length we do not go, simply because we are inclined to believe in the inherent power of cure possessed by the germ of freedom—the *vis medicatrix libertatis.* But let no one doubt on what road we are travelling. The sign-post is the working of our system of nominations.

The modern primary and convention system was introduced in order to make nominations more representative, and so they no doubt did for a time; not until a comparatively recent date did the public awake to the fact that the system had fallen into the hands of permanent "preëxisting bodies" or committees, which, under the supervision of a Boss, and to a great extent in his pay, manipulated and prearranged these conventions and primaries. In the days of the caucus and congressional nominations, nothing of the sort was heard of, and we have no doubt that one of the most potent causes of the rapid perfection of the new system, and its present smooth working, was the corruption of the civil service by the spoils system, which, in the years after the war, came to its height and is still most powerful in local and municipal politics. If this view is correct, the gradual improvement of the civil service which is going on all the time must be taking away from the Boss a large part of his capital. The Post-Office and the Custom-House, and even the Navy-yard, are pretty nearly free from his grasp already, and in time the municipal and State service will be; he can still keep a governor and legislature, however, and this he does almost entirely through a rotten nominating system, combined with appeals to party feeling.

Bad as the boss system is, it should show us the direction in which improvement, if at all, is to come. The business of selecting candidates in a modern community can be managed only by a comparatively small number of persons. If we wish the nominations to be representative of our interests and aims, people who are really representative must themselves nominate—whether by "petition," or by self-announced candidature, or by a citizens' committee, matters very little, they must nominate, and they must at the same time take away the causes which make the Boss's control count at present for so much. If the class of men engaged in political life were representative, we should get representative nominations now. But how can they become so? The author has enumerated some of the means. We should add to them everything that could diminish the enormous pecuniary stake which elections keep before the eyes of the greedy and unscrupulous, and especially the control of the Legislature over private and local interests, over cities, corporations, over the tariff. Two hundred million dollars was once given as a fair estimate (p. 150) of the annual incomes represented by patron-

age, local, State, and national. The complete reform of the civil service means the complete removal of this fund as a temptation to the predatory politicians. Cut down the number of elective offices, and cut off the corporate and municipal plunder and the tariff, and the Boss's occupation will be gone; politics will again become a representative career, and nominations will be free. If the view of those who insisted thirty years ago that the abolition of the spoils system was the necessary first step towards this goal was correct, then in another generation, or even sooner, we ought to see the final extinction of the present system of boss encroachments on the right to nominate for office. If they were wrong, then free government on this continent is certainly doomed.

All attempts to avert this fate by legal remedies have hitherto proved unavailing, and, if our analysis is correct, must continue to prove so. Even if we could imagine the primary perfectly protected by legal supervision, it is impossible to compel the good and wise to take part in it, and the real "machine" is only a congeries of voluntary meetings of those who wish to accomplish a certain end. To suppose that those who wish to make a free nomination of the best man for a given office (for this is always the object of an election, so far as the public at large is concerned) can unite in a choice with those who wish to select the tool of a ring, is nonsense, because no two persons who have opposite and conflicting objects in view can unite to carry them out, and no law can enable them to do it. The only thing which those who desire better nominations than the primary produces can do is exactly what they are doing—abandon the primary and nominate for themselves. All that the law can do is to make this easy. We see no reason why the State should not permit any one to be a candidate for any office who will give a bond with sufficient sureties to reimburse the State for the additional expense which his candidature causes. However this may be, there can be no doubt that the more freely men of character and position can come forward and enter into honorable competition with the creatures of the machine for the right to discharge a public trust, the sooner will the grasp of the masters of the latter upon the government be unloosed.

School-Boy Life in England: An American View. By John Corbin. Harper & Bros. 1898.

This is an entertaining and valuable book, but to a superficial or ill-informed reader the entertainment is not unlikely to obscure the real value. The author, from residence at the University of Oxford, and the personal acquaintance which such residence naturally develops with sons of the great English public schools, is able to draw a very vivid, but decidedly rose-colored picture of the occupations, sportive and serious, the temper, and the traditions of those extraordinary institutions. He has selected Winchester, Eton, and Rugby as his special themes; and those among us who fancy that the last of the three overtops all other English schools may be surprised to be told, what is perfectly true, that Winchester is fully the equal of Eton and above Rugby in general English estimation, and that Winchester men say that Arnold's work at Rugby was simply a development of what he learned at Winchester. Mr. Corbin is so enthusiastic to show the noble work of the English schools, with their magnificent traditions, that he seems to ignore the fact that much of this noble work to-day, especially at Winchester, could never be done—indeed, could never have been started—without throwing many traditions and prejudices to the winds. Arnold's Rugby boys made fine men, and so do those trained by his successors; but Arnold's Rugby boys pulled up the stakes set out by Robert Stephenson's surveyors for the Birmingham Railway. The great value of Mr. Corbin's book for Americans lies in his treatment of the extent to which English public schools may serve as models for American boarding-schools. It is admirably handled, and portions of it show a combination of wise candor and wise reserve rare in such discussions.

Mr. Corbin regrets that his space does not allow him to give some account of Harrow, the school of Sheridan, Byron, Peel, and Palmerston. This want is in a manner supplied by 'Old Harrow Days,' by J. G. Cotton-Minchin (London: Methuen & Co.). In this very vivacious and somewhat amusing book the heroes, butts, sports, and triumphs of Harrow are dealt with in the peculiar Harrow tone, which can never be acquired by an outsider, yet will reveal itself fully to every one who has the most superficial acquaintance with Harrovians. It had its culmination in Palmerston: a detestation of hypocrisy that becomes the opposite vice, which Aristotle called "irony"; a strong conviction that an English public-school boy, and particularly a Harrow school boy, is the last triumph of the race, and that if one leaves in the sixth form, the perfect life (as the sensible man would define it) consists in being a sixth-former to the end of your days. There is a personality for praise or ridicule in Harrow talk, and in this book especially, which is often more amusing than considerate. It may raise one's opinion of Harrow's energy, pluck, and steadfastness, but hardly of her gentleness, seriousness, or readiness to learn from others.

Ornamental Design for Woven Fabrics. By C. Stephenson and F. Suddards. London: Methuen & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

The Americans are said to be an ornament-loving people. If this love can only be so chastened that it shall become submissive to simplicity, appropriateness, and restraint, we shall take a great stride in civilization. Far away as such a condition seems to be when one looks at all the miscellaneous ugly and useless objects set out before us in the shops, these are certainly less gaudy and crude and even less useless than the smaller collections of ten or twenty years ago. Much lies in the hands of our manufacturers. If they will give us good designs—designs which are based upon the principles of decoration proved to be sound by centuries of suitable use—we shall learn to like them and to choose them. But the artisans must also be trained and enlightened. To this end it is most encouraging to find not only the technical processes being more thoroughly taught, as in the trade-schools, but that such collections as the Trades Museum in Philadelphia and the excellent beginning made in our city by the Misses Hewitt at the Cooper Union are open to the public, so that men of any class may see examples of technically beautiful productions of other nations and periods. This is what the French have done for a century past. We have heard a couple of men who were painting blinds on a summer-house in France discuss an exhibition of Louis Quinze furniture and appreciate its beautiful qualities with satisfaction and understanding. When may we hope for that here? But we must hope; and as the helps multiply, we shall be nearer to reaching such a condition.

One such aid is the book before us; an excellent, straightforward treatment of the special manufacture of fabrics. Without any waste of fine words, the writers, from the trades colleges at Bradford and Leeds, not only have explained the preparation of designs for each class of fabric, as any practical worker might have done, but have, with taste and judgment, set forth and illustrated the laws of repetition, contrast, variety, symmetry, balance, repose, etc., which govern all good composition. These laws are exemplified by plates from Japanese, Flemish, Spanish, French, and Italian stuffs which are remarkably well chosen for beauty, good arrangement, and technical usefulness. The following of the steps, from the simple line and spot idea through the filling up and elaboration of the plan, is clear and easily comprehensible. In short, the whole work would be instructive reading to any one who wished to learn to know the good from the bad in composition, whether he were buyer, seller, or worker.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Album d'Antiquités Orientales. Paris: Ernest Leroux.

Almanach de Gotha. 1898. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

Battershall, Rev. W. W. Interpretations of Life and Religion. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.50.

Child Memorial Volume. [Harvard Studies and Notes in Philology and Literature. Vol. V.] Boston: Ginn & Co.

Clark, Rev. G. W. Romans and Corinthians. [A People's Commentary.] Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. $1.25.

Cortina, R. D. Verbos Españoles. 5th ed. R. D. Cortina.

Downer, A. C. The Odes of Keats. With Notes and Analyses, and a Memoir. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.

Drummond, Henry, The Ideal Life. Addresses Hitherto Unpublished. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

Drummond, Henry. The Monkey That Would Not Kill. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.

Dubois, Abbé J. A. Hindu Manners, Customs, and Ceremonies. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.

Fincham, H. W. Artists and Engravers of British and American Book-Plates. Dodd, Mead & Co. $5.

Goode, G. B. The Smithsonian Institution, 1846-1896. Published by the City of Washington.

Gorion, M. Mémoires. Paris: Ernest Flammarion; New York: Brentanos.

Grinnell, G. B., and Roosevelt, Theodore. Trail and Camp-Fire. Forest and Stream Publishing Co. $2.50.

Haliburton: A Centenary Chaplet. Toronto: William Briggs. $1.25.

Huntington, A. M. A Note-Book in Northern Spain. Illustrated. Putnams. $3.50.

Ireland, W. A. Demerariana: Essays, Historical, Critical, and Descriptive. Georgetown, Demerara: Baldwin & Co.

Johnson, C. F. What Can I Do for Brady? and Other Verses. Whittaker. $1.

Kellogg, Eva M. C. Australia and the Islands of the Sea. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co.

Mariotte-Davies, Prof. P. An Elementary Scientific French Reader. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 40c.

Newcomb, C. B. All's Right with the World. Boston: Philosophical Publishing Co. $1.50.

Orr, Charles. History of the Pequot War. Cleveland, O.: Helman-Taylor Co.

Porter, Rose. Daily Souvenirs. For My Lady's Desk. New York: E. R. Herrick & Co. Each $1.

Postgate, J. P. Silva Maniliana. Cambridge: University Press.

Rand, T. H. At Minas Basin, and Other Poems. 2d ed. Toronto: William Briggs.

Scott, F. G. The Unnamed Lake, and Other Poems. Toronto: William Briggs.

Stickney, J. H. Earth and Sky: A First Grade Nature Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Trübner, K. Minerva: Jahrbuch der Gelehrten Welt. 1897-1898. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

Van Siclen, G. W. Bearing of the Greater New York Charter on Real Estate Interests. Record and Guide Publishing Co.

Van Siclen, G. W. Promissory Notes, Checks, Bills of Exchange, Bonds. The New York Negotiable Instruments Law of Oct. 1, 1897. Record and Builders' Guide. $1.80.

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APPLETONS'

Popular Science Monthly.

JANUARY, 1898.

The Aryan Question. (Racial Geography of Europe, XII.) Prof. WILLIAM Z. RIPLEY. Illus.

A history of this interesting controversy, and a statement of the theories at present most favored by anthropologists.

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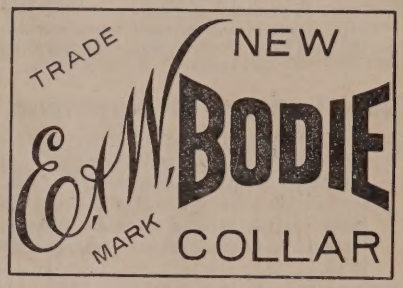

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 13, 1898.

The Week.

The debate over civil-service reform in the House is proving most fortunate for the believers in the merit system. The spoilsmen are more open and unblushing in their attitude than ever before, and they are thus making the cause which they champion more offensive than it has previously appeared. Gen. Grosvenor of Ohio on Thursday confessed that he and his kind sympathize with Tammany in this city because the two sets of politicians hold the same views about patronage. "Hundreds of thousands of Republicans," he said, "felt a secret sympathy with Mayor Van Wyck, who announced that none but Democrats would be appointed to office under the new city government." Gov. Black said in his message that when what Gen. Grosvenor called "the late unlamented Republican government of New York" came into power, there were 15,000 Tammany men in office, and when it expired there were still 15,000 Tammany men on the pay-rolls; and Gen. Grosvenor declared that "the Republicans had been justly punished for keeping these enemies in their camp." The friends of the merit system have made very effective replies to the assaults of the spoilsmen upon it, but these replies were hardly necessary. Such diatribes as Gen. Grosvenor's answer themselves, and make votes for the reform.

The attacks on the federal civil-service law which were daily made during the debate in the House, suggest the desirability of an "eligible list" from which the people could select a candidate for Congress. It is safe to say that, under the present system, constituencies know almost nothing of the views of the men they vote for as regards public questions at large. There is usually some one subject on which a candidate must be "sound"; that condition being met, all others are disregarded. The necessity for some protection of this kind against charlatanism received a striking illustration in Monday's debate in the House, when a New England constituency, undoubtedly composed largely of reputable and churchgoing people, was put to shame by the speech of its Representative. The speaker was "Cy" Sulloway of New Hampshire, a country lawyer "with chin whiskers." After attacking the supporters of the civil-service law as "the eunuchs of politics," he went on to say:

> "Why, if St. Peter was on earth to-day as an official of the United States Government and wanted to hire gate-keepers for some of the golden streets, he would have to apply to this commission to get a list of eligibles, and, when the list was submitted, if it was like the average list, the good St. Peter would be impelled to say: 'My God, I have not seen such a gang since the day I was crucified!' "

We should not care to insult any New England constituency with the assumption that it would allow a man to remain on its "eligible list" of congressional candidates after reading such a speech by him.

We fear that Secretary Gage has inadvertently given aid and comfort to the spoilsmen by some of his remarks about the need of exempting from the classified service various positions in the Treasury Department included in President Cleveland's order of May 6, 1896. As to the advisability of exemption we say nothing. We will concede, if any one insists, that it may be an open question whether the order was not too sweeping. But Mr. Gage's argument for exempting deputy collectors of internal revenue seems to us not to have its eye on the fact. He says that a collector, responsible as he is legally and financially for his deputies, ought not to be compelled to select them from "an eligible list, the names on which he may know nothing about," but should be allowed to choose "men concerning whose personal characteristics and integrity" he has knowledge. But supposing the eligible list abolished, will the collector be allowed to choose his own deputies? Not at all. Before he gets his office—as a condition of getting it—he has to agree to a "slate" of appointees to every position in his gift. It comes down to an alternative between an eligible list about which he knows nothing, and a "slate" thrust in his hands by the boss who creates him, about which he also knows nothing. The idea that any collector is nowadays left free to look about him and choose his own subordinates is absurd. He appoints the men he is ordered to appoint. Imagine the scornful laughter of a boss who should find his collector wanting to know about the deputies on the "slate." "That's my affair," he would say; "I am responsible for them, not you." The bosses will all endorse Secretary Gage's reasoning, but they will do it, not in order to improve the service as the Secretary intends, but to debauch it as they intend.

In Mr. Bryan's speech at Chicago on Saturday we read his desire that the campaign of 1898 and the greater one of 1900 shall be fought on the silver issue pure and simple. We read also his apprehension lest this issue shall be complicated with the banking question. His attempt to lug in Gen. Jackson and his fight against the Bank of the United States is very significant. Jackson was one of the "gold-bugs" of the period in which he lived. The gold bill was passed by his friends, during his administration, and it bears his signature. Gold had been driven out of circulation by the legal ratio of 15 to 1, and there was a loud demand, especially among the Jackson men, that the ratio should be changed in such a way as to banish silver and supplant it with gold. Benton was the leader of this movement in the Senate, and Benton was also the leader of the Jackson men in that body. He fought for the gold bill and secured its passage. To claim Jackson as a silverite in the face of these facts implies either dense ignorance of history or a remarkable development of "cheek."

Mr. Bryan's use of the phrase "national bank" is equally deceptive. He said in his Chicago speech:

> "It is especially fitting that at this time the American people should recall the name of Andrew Jackson and gather inspiration and encouragement from his public career. We are engaged to-day in a contest very similar to that in which he played so conspicuous and honorable a part. During his term of office the national bank attempted to overawe the representatives of the people and control the Government. He grappled with it and overthrew it."

Why did not Mr. Bryan call the bank which Jackson overthrew by its right name, viz., the Bank of the United States? Evidently because the phrase national bank needs only the addition of an *s* to make national banks, thus assimilating the fight which Jackson made to the one which the Populists and some Democrats are carrying on now. The truth is that the whole force of Jackson's animosity against the Bank of the United States was directed against it as one corporation enjoying the deposits of the money of the Government; that is, a monopoly. His veto of the bill rechartering the bank was grounded upon that idea alone. He had no objection to banks generally. He had none to those that were not monopolies. A good deal might be said to show that his fight against the Bank of the United States was a fight against a windmill which he mistook for a giant. In this case, however, he demolished the windmill instead of being unhorsed by it. The material fact is that he removed the deposits from the big bank because it was big, and put them into other banks because they were small, or at all events not open to the charge of being monopolies. Now we have no such case at the present time. There is no monopoly bank. All the banks that we have are of a kind that Jackson would have favored if there had been any in his day. Mr. Bryan's uneasiness on the subject is

very easily explained. He fears lest the bank question may supersede the silver question as a political issue. Hence his gross perversion of history in dragging Jackson into a controversy so unlike the one in which he took part. Hence his bitter attack on Secretary Gage.

Americans are the proudest as well as the freest people on earth, intensely jealous for their liberties and fiercely resentful of any encroachment upon their rights. We know this because we have heard it said. But, for such a nation, we do delight in submitting without a murmur to every annoyance and interference and maddening espionage and regulation that our rulers take it into their heads to inflict upon us. Was there ever such a bit of small-minded and vexing tyranny of power as our new Treasury regulations about sealskin cloaks? Ladies sailing for Europe have to get a "certificate" that their cloaks are really their own, and that they were made up before pelagic sealing was made illegal; otherwise, their property will be confiscated on their return. Arriving passengers will for some days be in uncertainty and in terror lest their sealskin garments be stripped off them in the custom-house, and they turned out shivering into the streets of the second city in the world. On Sunday in Detroit, family groups strolling on the bridge to the Canadian shore were stopped and warned that if the ladies wanted to bring their sealskin cloaks back they would have to take out the "certificates." The vexation and meddling could not well be more intolerable.

But does anybody complain? Does any indignant husband write to the papers? Does any exasperated woman acquire an unwonted volubility on the subject? Are there protests and appeals addressed to Congress? No, the untamed American takes it meekly. It is just one of those "queer" things about the tariff which we shrug our shoulders at and say nothing. But if such a thing had been attempted in an enslaved country like England, the papers would have been filled with angry communications, the Government would have been deluged with inquiries and threats. A mere dog-muzzling order last summer raised such a row that the Ministry were frightened out of their senses. Such an offensive law as this stealthy enactment of ours about sealskins would be enough to upset an English government. But the haughty American bows his neck and bares his back without a whimper. We must say that there is something significant in these attempts of our rulers to take away our clothes. First they made their law—their "breech-clout legislation," as we called it at the time—to prevent people from bringing clothes from Europe. Now they expect us to act on the Scriptural principle of giving our cloak also to the man who has taken away our coat. But why this zeal to make us go naked? Is it not a symptom that Dingley is really a barbarian at bottom, and that, in his laws, he is but enacting the part of the "civilized" Patagonian, of whom Darwin tells, who threw away his clothes when with his tribe again, and showed himself the howling savage he was?

The developments about the nomination of Charles P. Bryan as Minister to China illustrate perfectly the absurdities of the system by which places in the diplomatic service are apportioned. Mr. Bryan had no fitness for the Chinese mission and no special desire for it; indeed, he picked it out only because it seemed to be the best place that had not already been disposed of, and what he wanted was a good place. When certain Republican Senators, who had learned what a "fresh" young man Bryan was, protested to the President against sending him to so responsible a post, Mr. McKinley set out to see if something "equally as good" could not be provided for the Illinois office-seeker without the risk to American interests involved in sending him to Pekin. A plan was suggested by which Mr. Newell, who is considered a more capable man, might be transferred from the Netherlands to China, Minister Conger from Brazil to the Netherlands, and Mr. Bryan sent to Brazil, where there is nothing to do, and the same salary ($12,000) as in China. But this change fell through because the Minnesota friends of Minister Newell said that he was so comfortably placed at The Hague that he was disinclined to go to China, although his salary is only $7,500; and "thereupon," it is announced, "the President decided to let the Chinese appointment stand." Thus do we show "the heathen Chinee" the superiority of Christian civilization in the art of government and secure the China trade.

The discursiveness of Gov. Black's message is a distinct sign of Plattism. During the city canvass we could not get a Platt man to discuss city affairs. He always wanted to discuss silver, and Hawaii, and the tariff. Nothing is a better mark of good government than the practice on the part of officials of keeping to matters which concern them. Relevancy is the chief mark of efficiency. For instance, the Governor admits that the State, through its "labor bureaus," has done all it can for labor. But he then goes on to talk of things with which he has, as Governor, nothing to do, and what is worse, which he evidently does not understand, making one regret more than ever that he should have said so much about the civil service. Lamenting over disputes between laborers and employers, which are simply disputes about prices, and are no more preventable than disputes about the cost of clothing, he makes the following remark:

> "If present conditions continue, disputes will frequently arise, and I believe it would be wise to encourage the method of university settlement. No man can be a fair judge who does not understand both sides, and while he may acquire this understanding after the trouble has arisen, his capacity to effect a settlement is greatly reduced because of the inflammation which invariably goes with a declared grievance. It is not only harder to settle a dispute when opponents have come face to face, but in the case of labor troubles large sums of money are lost while the dispute goes on. The plan of university settlement is not so much to compose differences as to prevent their occurrence. Its wisdom is obvious."

Now, this makes a little "intolerant criticism" absolutely necessary. There is no such thing as "a method of university settlement," either for composing differences or preventing their recurrence. If the Governor knew what a "university settlement" was, he would not have made this ludicrous observation. He made somewhat the same mistake last year, but as no one in politics called his attention to it, he seems not to have given himself the trouble to make inquiries about the matter. A "university settlement" is so called because, as a rule, provided by university graduates, here and in England. It consists in a house built or hired or furnished by such men and their wives, like Toynbee Hall in London, and in which they reside all or part of the year, for the sole purpose of promoting friendly social intercourse between the different classes of society, by lectures, concerts, conversaziones. No university settlement has ever thought of acting as an arbitrator in labor disputes. If it did, it would soon become worthless. The settlements have no qualifications for such a task. There is no "university settlement" method of doing so. The whole scheme and purpose of these settlements was explained by Canon Barnett of Toynbee Hall in the *Nineteenth Century* for December. The rôle the Governor has assigned them is the product of a lively imagination.

It was clearly a Tammany belief at the opening of the legislative session that a "deal" with Platt at Albany might be arranged, otherwise Tammany statesmen would not have been introducing measures which could be passed only with the aid of Republican votes. They have presented in both houses a bill to give the Mayor power to remove members of the Board of Education, and have been considering the preparation of others to abolish the Court of City Magistrates and possibly the Board of Rapid Transit Commissioners. There could be no hope of passing such measures except through a "deal," and it is

difficult to see why they should have been presented if there had been no expectation of passing them. At the same time, a "deal" to be effective must include acquiescence by the Governor in the resulting legislation, and even so defiant a scorner of "intolerant clamor" as Gov. Black might well hesitate before openly allying himself with Tammany Hall. Indeed, the announcement is made, apparently by authority, that he will not sign any bills of this sort. The fact is recalled that he blocked some measures of the same nature which were favored by the Platt machine at the last session, and there is certainly every reason why he should maintain such opposition now.

We are glad to see that the Civil-Service Reform Association is determined to keep up the fight for reform more vigorously than ever. The curse of our politics is that the old American tradition which made graceful submission to defeat at the hands of honorable opponents who were only seeking the same ends in a different way, is still preserved in dealing with people who are no more a political party than a party of safe-robbers, and seek nothing from the community but its money. It is almost ludicrous to see self-respecting citizens kissing the hands of these people as their masters, and offering to help them, simply because they have been knocked down and their purses taken. Tammany is to-day making a clean sweep of the city offices. There ought to be a political party to resist the process, as far as the law allows, in the name of good government. There is no such party. Our policemen have joined the burglars, and they are all "having a little something" together. We must, therefore, be grateful to the Civil-Service Reform Association for keeping the flag of decency and order and law still flying, by reminding the eminent Coler that the civil-service rules of December 31, 1897, are still in force, that under them no man can be appointed except after open competitive examination, and no member of the classified service can be removed without reasons in writing and opportunity of defending himself. Consequently, if Mr. Coler pays any man who has not been so appointed, he is personally liable for the amount he pays; if he refuses to pay a man who has not been so dismissed, he can be enjoined. The Association will put the law in force if necessary. We only hope the office-holders will assist it by standing their ground. The practice of running away when a Tammany man appears to take the place, is treason to the government and the law.

The letter which Mr. Roberts, Comptroller of the State, has addressed to Mr. Aldridge of the Public Works Department, upon the subject of canal improvements, depicts what has been from the outset the inevitable sequel of the latter's appointment by Gov. Morton in 1895. Mr. Aldridge was credited with saying at the time of his appointment that it was his intention to "make the canals Republican." Mr. Roberts shows that this is what he has been doing. Mr. Aldridge had been an active Platt politician for several years, and was an avowed believer in machine politics. Almost his first act on entering office was to defy the civil-service law of the State in regard to the selection of subordinates in his department, and nothing but a decision of the Court of Appeals availed to convince him that he must obey the law. He seems to have been taking the same contemptuous view of the law in regard to the expenditure of the $9,000,000 voted by the people for canal improvement. As Mr. Roberts says, the people voted this expenditure upon the statement and understanding that the contemplated work could be completed for that sum. Mr. Aldridge has been at work on a totally different basis, knowledge of which he has concealed from at least two of his fellow-members in the Canal Board, the Comptroller and the Attorney-General. These officials say that they gave their approval to the plans for the expenditure of the $9,000,000 with the belief, based upon Aldridge's statements, that the entire work would be completed within the appropriation. Now they learn from Aldridge that at least $7,000,000 more will be necessary to complete the work, and they are asked to support him in a request to the Legislature to authorize this additional expenditure. The Comptroller refuses to do this, on the ground that so large an additional outlay ought not to be undertaken until formally authorized by the people. He says with unanswerable force: "It would appear to me that we have no right to assume that the people would have authorized the expenditure of $16,000,000 for this improvement simply because they authorized the expenditure of $9,000,000, or that they would have authorized the expenditure of $9,000,000 had they realized that that sum would only half do the work." This style of reasoning, however, will seem very childish to Aldridge and Platt.

The extraordinary excitement in France over the Dreyfus affair, renewed as it is just now in the trial of Count Esterhazy, arises from the stirring of two powerful passions—those connected with the national defence and with anti-Semitism. Anything that touches the army has, since 1870, touched the heart of "mutilated" France. Plans for revenge on Germany are no doubt extremely vague in the French mind, but their very vagueness gives the best opportunity in the world for all sorts of wild fears to be excited in connection with them. If the army is as unready as it was in 1870, if the plans of mobilization are sold to the Germans, Frenchmen think themselves "betrayed" again, and there is no more furious being in the world than a Frenchman who thinks himself betrayed. But the peculiar exasperation due to dislike and dread of the Jews has to be added in to account for the pitch of popular frenzy which the Dreyfus affair has touched. Other officers have been tried and convicted for selling documents relating to the national defence, and no national explosion followed. In 1890 Lieut. Bonnet was convicted at Nancy of this offence; in 1888 an adjutant was found guilty of a similar crime; the same charge was fastened upon Capt. Guillot in 1895. But they were not Jews, and Dreyfus was. That he was rich, and that therefore no motive for his treachery could be produced, of course only heightened his offence in the popular mind; it was just that kind of causeless crime which his race was famous for. As the Anti-Semite *Libre Parole* said, from the beginning, "The officer is a Jew," and that was enough. The Minister of War and the court-martial continue to assert that the proof against Dreyfus was conclusive. It would seem highly desirable to publish it then, inasmuch as the only documents which have been published turn out to be far from conclusive.

The German logic in the argument for a big navy is as hard to follow as that of our own reasoners on the same subject. Look at our beggarly array of war-ships, said William to the Reichstag; actually fewer now than in 1885. How can you expect to develop a foreign trade with no fighting-ships to protect your merchant marine? But we thought, timidly interposed some one, relying on parliamentary privilege to escape a prosecution for treason—we thought our foreign trade had been increasing rather remarkably. Of course it has been, triumphantly reply the German Admiralty, and print figures to show that Germany's foreign commerce expanded more than $200,000,000 between 1881 and 1895. Well, how could that be with the battle-ships actually diminishing? And if trade has been doing so well without a big navy, why must we have a big navy in order to make trade do well? This might look, to the merely human intellect, as the theologians say, like a "poser"; but naval logic is not at all embarrassed by it. The answer to it is, (1) trade has increased because we are a strong, enterprising, inventive people, but we shall not remain so a day longer without a lot of war-ships; (2) your view is colonial, provincial, and altogether outgrown; (3) we are going to have ships, anyhow, and you had better look out, or you will be in jail for *lèse-majesté*.

THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE AND CURRENCY REFORM.

The prompt and cordial response given on Thursday by the Chamber of Commerce to the call for the reassembling of the Indianapolis convention was a very encouraging symptom. The remarks made by Mr. Rhoades, Mr. Dodge, and others, implied that the commercial interests of New York approve of the report of the Monetary Commission, and that they may be counted on as the supporters of a vigorous movement for currency reform. The brief speech of ex-Secretary Fairchild, giving some account of the reasons governing the commission in reaching their conclusions, received the warm applause of the Chamber.

In this speech we desire to draw attention particularly to the concluding portion, which explains why the commission saw fit to endorse the plan for banknote issues based upon the assets of the banks. It is agreed upon all hands that if such note issues can be made safe—that is, if they can be so made that the noteholder shall in no case be a loser by accepting them—then such a system is much to be preferred to the present system of bond-secured note issues. The reasons why it is better are that it is less expensive, more convenient, and more responsive to the exigencies of trade. It is less expensive because the bank is not obliged to invest its capital at the outset in Government bonds which command a high premium in the market. The primary object of banking is to collect the little streams of floating capital in the community into a common reservoir and use the same for the discount of commercial paper—in other words, to furnish ready means to the producers and dealers in goods, thus quickening the industries of the locality and bringing a return to the owners of the capital so employed.

This is the main part of the credit system of modern times, of which banknote issues are one branch, but not the largest division. The largest branch is the system of checks and deposits, as to which no Government-bond security is required, and upon which no limitation is put by law except that a certain reserve of cash shall be kept in proportion to the deposits. Note issues are liabilities of the bank of identically the same nature as deposits, differing only in the time that they usually remain outstanding. They circulate rather more widely than checks, but they are payable out of the same fund, and usually in the same way. Ordinarily the notes would be as safe as the checks, even without any Government interference. But it is indispensable, for various reasons, that the notes should be safer than the checks—in fact, that they should be perfectly safe. It is acknowledged that anything short of this—any system which should leave a workingman exposed to the loss of his wages by bad banknotes—would be swept aside with popular fury upon the first occasion of such loss. No such system could survive, or ought to.

The plan proposed by the Monetary Commission has certain safeguards intended to prevent any such loss. These are matters of detail. The fundamental principle, as stated by Mr. Fairchild, is that everything of a pecuniary nature, including the Government credit, is based upon the business transactions of the people, that these business transactions are for the most part carried on through the medium of the banks, that the assets of the banks are the kernel and essence of the whole mass, and that if, at any particular time, they are not sound, we are all bankrupt, the Government included. This is demonstrably true. It is patent at a glance. Therefore, the plan of banknote issues based upon the assets of the banks is philosophically sound, and it is only necessary to provide against sporadic cases of failure, and against premeditated swindling, in order to make such issues safe in all cases. This it is proposed to do in part by a system of mutual insurance through the medium of a common guarantee fund.

The advantages of such a system in a financial sense have been often explained. Are there not advantages of a political sort also to be looked for? The demand for the free coinage of silver in the Southern States (without whose cooperation free coinage as a political issue would disappear in a twinkling) has been based on the idea, honestly entertained, that that was the only way by which a sufficient amount of currency could be obtained to meet the wants of trade. It is useless to argue with a man or a community in whom this conception has gained lodgment. The only thing to do is to put before that community some better remedy for the supposed evil. That the South is open to conviction in this way there is abundant reason to believe. At all events, the present is a most favorable time for testing the disposition of that section. If her people are offered the opportunity to issue banknotes without a previous pledge of Government bonds, but with adequate safeguards for the goodness of the notes, and if they still prefer the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1, then we shall at least know where we stand. We may begin to buckle on our armor for the same sort of campaign in 1900 that we had in 1896. But in no case should we support any system of banknote issues that we did not regard as absolutely sound.

OPTIMISM AND PESSIMISM.

If a business man, seeking credit from a bank or from a fellow-merchant, were asked on what he based the expectation that he should be able to meet his notes at maturity, and were to say, "I do not know exactly, but I am a lucky fellow; no serious misfortune has ever happened to me, and I feel sure all will come out right in the end"—would the bank or a fellow-merchant be satisfied and let him have the money? If the general of an army opposed to Napoleon, or Moltke, or Grant, were asked for what reason he thought he should beat him, and were to answer that he had no reason except the abundance of his resources, or the goodness of his cause, would his Government be apt to let him try his fortune? Would it not be dreadfully frightened, and look about at once for somebody who had a plan of campaign and knew how to manœuvre an army? Is there any department of human activity, except government, in which an optimist has any standing, or is listened to? None, so far as we know. In human business, naked, unaided optimism, optimism which has nothing to rest on except buoyancy of temperament, has no place. It would speedily ruin any human undertaking. What successful business rests on is thinking clear and seeing straight, and leaving nothing to chance which can be kept from chance. What the business man seeks is a clear, dry light, not a rosy light, or a pink light, or a "dim religious light." An optimistic bank or an optimistic dry-goods house would soon have a visit from the sheriff. An optimistic business man would soon become a penniless laughing-stock. The type of such men is Wilkins Micawber, who is always waiting for "something to turn up," and believing that it is sure to do so.

But this optimism, which has to be so sternly denied a place in business undertakings, actually has complete control of our government—so much so that any attempt to question, decry, or criticise it is treated as what is called "pessimism," which to many minds is a kind of disease, whereas in nine cases out of ten it is simply the application to politics of business principles. It is passing judgment on politicians and measures by the same rules by which men carry on trade or commerce, and keeping a constant watch against self-deception. Baseless optimism is the characteristic of children. A child, from want of experience, thinks he shall be happy and well to-morrow because he has been so to-day, and he naturally hates the man who bores him with warnings about the quicksands and snares of life. A successful man knows something of contingencies, and succeeds by providing against them.

A very striking illustration of the way optimism works in politics may be found in Mr. Dingley's financial career. In Congress, he alleged, without any data to go on, that the additions to the tariff which he proposed would increase the

revenue by $113,000,000. This was the amount by which he *wished* to increase it, and he said, therefore, that this was the amount by which he *should* increase it. The pessimists told him this was a mistake, and instead of an increase, he has a deficit of over $40,000,000 in the first half year. But you may be sure he hates the pessimists. Again, some New York tailors told him that by annoying European travellers returning in the fall, overhauling their baggage and levying duty on their wearing-apparel purchased abroad, he would secure $10,000,000. He believed this story, because this was the amount he wished to get from this source. Well, in the month of September, when most travellers return, he got $96,000. In the other months he probably did not get half as much, and if he has got $400,000 in all in the six months, it is the very outside. For this he has exasperated thousands of his countrymen, and made his government the laughing-stock of foreigners. But we may be sure he damns the pessimists.

Another illustration is the career of Platt. Platt has been coming for fifteen years—that is, slowly building up a machine like that which the Democrats constructed under Fernando Wood, Tweed, and Hill. He has done it all in the light of day, in the presence of all the people of the State. Every year has seen a little addition made to his power; has seen the influence of enlightened and educated opinion on the State Government gradually diminishing; has seen the habit of open discussion declining; has seen the passage of the Legislature and of the high officials more and more under the control of this one corrupt and ignorant man—has seen, in short, the gradual disappearance of the old State of New York, the State of Marcy, and Silas Wright, and Seward, as a political organization. All this time the pessimists have been pointing out how, according to all human experience, this would end; but it was not till Platt owned the Legislature, like cattle, had made himself Senator, like Tiberius, had committed every kind of fraud in support of his power, and had combined with Tammany to hand the city over to the hordes of corruption, that the optimists could be induced to say a word or lift a finger against him. They are busy now warning, and denouncing, and lamenting, but they remind us of bank clerks who, after having allowed strangers to rove about the building and visit the vaults for days, should begin to descant on their rascality when they found the securities gone. Any one may read in Friday's *Tribune* what is really the wail of the optimists over Platt's gross abuse of the confidence of his unsuspecting countrymen.

One of the worst features of political optimism is its crass reliance on material prosperity. In this field it has, of course, an easy victory over the pessimists. Nothing can hinder America from being the greatest money-making country in the world for centuries to come, except loss of security for property, which is not in the least likely to occur. No matter what changes of government may take place, whether we live under a free constitution, or a Cæsar, or a boss, we may be sure population will grow, the revenue swell, the hotels become more gorgeous, the teas and luncheons and the private cars become more numerous. No pessimist who is not a blockhead will deny this. But what about the old American government, "consecrated by the prayers of Puritans and the blood of patriots," as Wendell Phillips said—the government of free men, "knowing, uttering, and arguing freely, according to conscience"? Where will this be? Is optimism saving it? Has optimism as yet provided means for its rescue from foreign malice or domestic treason? The very worst feature about political optimism is the utter indifference to *tendencies* which it teaches; and yet tendencies to the good citizen are what rocks are, or ought to be, to the careful seaman. Nothing in the great ocean of modern democracy needs closer watching. Optimism teaches us to pay no attention to them, but, when we see something unpleasant occurring, to dismiss it from our minds and "whoop her up with the boys." So our city to-day is in the hands of a band of ignorant foreigners, acting in concert with a band of knavish natives, and we are furious with any one who reminds us that nearly all great evils have small beginnings.

"*STRAIGHT LINES.*"

There never has been any telling what new phase the Hawaiian question would next take on. New reasons for annexing it crop up nearly every day. The Government was overthrown by missionaries' sons on account of the heathenism and unchastity of their own converts. It was then proposed that we should annex it lest England should get it, though it had long been formally announced that it was under our protection, and that we should not allow any other Power to take it; so that we had then to believe not only that England would take it, but that she would go to war with us to get it. On England's failing to lay claim to it, we were to take it as "a key to the Pacific." We then all went to work to discover what "a key to the Pacific" was, and all we could learn was that "a key to the Pacific" was an island in the Pacific where we should invite foreigners to come and fight us. But here Capt. Mahan intervened in an unseemly and unpatriotic fashion by saying boldly that an island in the Pacific would be of no use as a place to fight in, unless we had a fleet to protect the island; that to make an island a "key," it has to have fleets to anchor around it, and that we had no fleet ready, and were not likely to have one for some years. This seemed to bring the discussion into an *impasse*. A great silence came on the Hawaiians as soon as they found they were of no good as a "key." So they waited to see what would happen next. The key theory had been their main reliance, and its breakdown seemed to paralyze them.

Light suddenly came from an unexpected quarter. As soon as the Consecrated Person sent Our Brother to China to seize the Bay of Kiao-Chau, the Hawaiians felt that their clock had struck twelve. Russia and Germany were going to seize bits of China; this showed at last—that we should seize a bit of China? that we should enter into an alliance with England and Japan in order to get a fair share of the booty from Russia and Germany? Heaven forbid. "Such a thing is not for a moment to be supposed." What it showed was that we should seize Hawaii. It proved the futility of all the leading arguments against the seizure—the sudden departure from our traditions; the absence from our system of any machinery for governing dependencies; the admission of alien, inferior, and mongrel races to our nationality; the opening of fresh fields to carpetbaggers, speculators, and corruptionists; the un-Americanism of governing a large body of people against their will, and by persons not responsible to them; the entrance on a policy of conquest and annexation while our own continent was still unreclaimed, our population unassimilated, and many of our most serious political problems still unsolved; and finally the danger of the endorsement of a gross fraud for the first time by a Christian nation. All these things the Consecrated Person disposed of at one stroke by seizing Kiao-Chau Bay.

The absence from this reasoning of an undistributed middle at first plunged us in perplexity. But it seems that there is no middle term in it of the ordinary kind, and we are not to look for one. The syllogism runs in this way: The Consecrated Person has seized Kiao-Chau Bay; if we draw a straight line from San Francisco to Hong Kong, or from Victoria to Sydney, or from Nicaragua to Shanghai, it will pass through Hawaii; therefore we should annex Hawaii. This conclusion seems overwhelming if the straight lines aforesaid really pass through Hawaii; we should be the last to resist such ratiocination. But do they? All depends on this. In a little work published by the Hawaiian Government, which lies before us, there is a map which shows that a straight line from every important place on earth, if drawn carefully with a ruler, does pass through Hawaii. Straight lines on this map from Port Stanley, Valparaiso,

Lima, Panama, New Orleans, San Diego, Portland, San Francisco, Victoria, Sitka, Bering Strait, Kamtchatka, Katar, Yokohama, Shanghai, Hong Kong, Hue, Singapore, Borneo, New Guinea, New Hebrides, Sidney, Auckland, and Tahiti, all meet in Honolulu. It seems as if more "straight lines" meet there than in any other place in the world, and they undoubtedly suggest the conquest of all the places they start from, as part of the great work before us.

But, being of a cautious temperament, we looked at the official Pilot Chart of the North Pacific, issued by the Hydrographic Office in Washington, and we found, either that the Hydrographic Office had been "got at" by the British, or that "the straight lines" did not get to Hawaii in the manner described by the missionary government. The only lines which meet in Honolulu are one from San Francisco and one from Yokohama, and one from Hong Kong. But they are not straight. That from San Francisco deflects about 15 degrees south, and that from Yokohama about 10 degrees. Hong Kong is the only place that sends a line approaching to straightness, to Honolulu. It is only the Hong Kong steamer that comes in honestly, or can be fairly used by us to justify annexation. We can find no precedent for using as "a key" any island which could not be approached in a straight line, and we think every government should be careful to have lines drawn on its maps that will support its policy. Railroad companies are always mindful of this in making their maps. Their own line is always the shortest between any two given places, and the places it reaches are always the principal ones. If we are to annex by lines, we must see that the lines are straight, and that there are plenty of them. We must not allow our maps to be got out by ignorant astronomers or navigators. Lively "American" newspaper men are the people for that sort of work. A map constructed by them of any sea, inlet, island, or bay is sure to show that we ought to have it, that we always owned it, and that, if we do not take it, two Powers at least are waiting to grab it or buy it.

TROUBLES OF THE FRENCH PRESS.

The report that a more stringent libel law is to be pushed in the Chamber must surprise those who know how stringent the French law of libel already is. Our leading editors would go to jail in a body if they were living under it. The most violently suspect politician, the all but proved rascal, is safe, under the French law, from having his name bandied about in the newspapers as with us. All must be done by way of insinuation. Thus, when the scandal of the sale of Legion of Honor decorations in President Grévy's time came out, the *XIXe Siècle*, which fired the train, and which had all the facts and all the names in its possession, had to be very guarded. Instead of naming outright the trafficking General, it could only say that he was "un officier général porteur d'un nom historique." So the woman in the case, Madame Limouzin, could be alluded to only as a "certain lady living not far from the Arc de Triomphe."

The French newspapers have long had a bad name, and, we fear, with warrant, for venality. This may be due in part to the fact that they have not built up such valuable business properties as we know all our newspapers to be—on their own confession. Without a large income from advertising, the newspaper proprietor, who "must live," has in France had peculiar temptations when an Arton has a Panama "campaign in the press" to make, and 2,000,000 francs to do it with. But it is not because their columns are more than ever purchasable, or are thought to be, that the new complaint against French newspapers has made itself heard, and is believed to inspire the attempt to increase the risks and penalties of libel by the press. The trouble lies in practices borrowed from the most offensive English and American newspapers. What the French call "reportage" has grown portentously among them in recent years. The lying interview (the introduction of the thing has compelled the poverty-stricken French language to invent the verb "interviewer"), the exploitation and glorification of crime, the frothy blowing up of the trivial and of empty gossip—all the peering and prying and impudence and insult which we know so well under the name of reporter's enterprise, has made its way into French journalism to the dismay of its victims.

In the recently published 'Mémoires' of M. Goron, ex-Chief of the Paris "Sûreté," he has a chapter devoted to the press in its relation to crime. It is curious to see our most advanced newspaper methods there reproduced. The French press, too, is coming to have its sleuth-hound reporters, keener of nose than any Javert that ever lived, able to see deeper into a millstone than Sherlock Holmes; and as for comparing them with any mere policeman or detective, why, the thing is absurd. In Paris as well as New York the reporters drive the police authorities frantic with their meddling, their rage for defeating justice by indiscreet publicity, their advising criminals of the steps taken to effect their capture. M. Goron intimates that more than one fleeing felon has owed his escape to a friendly hint conveyed to him by the *Petit Journal*. So high had the evil mounted that M. Goron's predecessor determined at one time to shut his door in the face of all reporters, to give them absolutely no news. But they at once turned upon him so savagely as the greatest criminal going, and proceeded to make his life so miserable, that he was forced to rescind his obnoxious order. His only resource was to make his "renseignements" to the newspapers as mysterious and misleading as possible.

All things come at last to the novelist in France, and so we have the French reporter, new style, made the subject of a realistic "roman contemporain." The book is by M. Paul Brulat, and he entitles it 'Le Reporter,' warning the reader that it is only "the first volume of a series on contemporary journalism." This of itself suggests that a new journalism has grown up in France to be studied—and why should it not be? asks M. Brulat.

> "Why should the press escape the investigation which we moderns apply to all worlds, to all professions? We have studied judges, priests, soldiers, workingmen, peasants, tradespeople, politicians—why not journalists? The press which denounces, attacks, scourges, assumes the right to expose all abuses and redress all wrongs, can scarcely expect to remain unassailable, to withdraw itself from criticism. . . . Why should it dread the results of an impartial scrutiny of itself? It certainly can lose nothing by having the truth known, so great is the zeal of journalists in discrediting each other."

Under M. Brulat's realistic pen a sad picture comes out of what Gaston Deschamps calls, in the *Temps*, the "stupefying progress and the monstrous methods of *reportage*." One would think, he says, to judge from the growth and popularity of this kind of journalism, that the French nation was made up solely of hysterical *concierges*. Thus we see how our Servant's Own newspapers are extending their conquests. Nor does M. Deschamps omit to ask what is the complicity of the public in the monstrosities of journalism. It is for each one, he writes, to make an examination of his conscience on this subject. Do peaceable citizens like a daily douche of filth and crime and scandal? If not, why do they appear to like it by patronizing those who put it on sale? We wearily recall asking such questions ourselves more than once, and if M. Deschamps gets a rational answer to them, he will be luckier than we have been.

If unable to suppress or discourage an irresponsible, a crime-loving and crime-breeding press, how can we arm ourselves against it? How can we help the public mind to free itself from its terrors? This, too, is a question which they are asking in France, and one of the most sensible answers we have seen is that given by M. Raymond Poincaré in the *Revue Bleue*. A first step, he says, is to free ourselves from the superstitious regard for the printed page. There is, indeed, something besotted, something Arabic, in the awe of otherwise sensible men in the presence of a few lines of print. There it is in the papers! But, as M. Poincaré says, the very absurdities of the typographic gods thus worshipped are working their ruin. Even unedu-

cated people are beginning to say that an extravagant article in a newspaper is of no more account than the maunderings of a drunken man in a café—perhaps it is really just that, only with the advantage of being in type. This is a great gain. To know Mumbo Jumbo of the press for the toothless old idol he is, is the beginning of better things. Then, as M. Poincaré adds, it is necessary for honest men to cultivate the new form of courage which the excesses of the modern press call for. They must learn to despise its attacks, to contemn and denounce its lies, to loathe its grossness. When we come generally to treat a coarse mountebank who has managed to possess himself of ink and paper and a cylinder press, as still nothing but a coarse mountebank, and leave off silly talk about "editors" and "the press," we shall have done a good deal towards driving back into its native sewer much of what passes for news and journalism.

IRISH AFFAIRS.

DUBLIN, December 25, 1897.

The Irish land question, as usual, is occupying a large share of public attention. The last Land Act was passed in 1896, and was a patch on the former medley of land laws. It purported to make great changes in the existing system, but one of the reasons why laws in Ireland fail in their intended effects is, that their administration is usually placed in the hands of persons who abhor the principles on which these laws are based, whose practice, if not whose object, is to make out that the new and disliked law means nothing, or as little as possible. And so it has been with the Land Act of 1896, which was passed through the House of Commons with enormous trouble, but also with much haste.

After two refusals to appoint a commission to inquire into the operation of a law that had not so far had any effect, Lord Salisbury at length surrendered to the landlords and appointed a commission of inquiry. It then appeared that what the landlords objected to was not the recent law, but all the laws regulating the relations of landlord and tenant and protecting the expenditure of Irish farmers from being confiscated by their landlords. Common decency would have required that at least one representative of the tenants' interests should have been placed on the commission. It consists, however, of (1) an English ex-Judge, Sir Edward Fry, an admittedly able and upright man, but steeped in the old and narrow traditions of English lawyers as to the rights of landed property; (2) a London surveyor and valuer, conversant with city property; (3) a Scotch agricultural surveyor; (4) an Irish landlord of the most aggressively violent type; (5) a solicitor whose principal business has been selling landlords' estates at high prices to the tenants.

The proceedings of this commission have not appeared to be very fair. Contrary to the usual practice, they have allowed counsel to conduct the inquiry instead of doing so themselves; knowing that the landlord organization had procured the best counsel obtainable for money, while the tenants had merely some junior barristers of little or no experience in the land courts. Landlord witnesses have been allowed to express their thoughts and beliefs, to tell what they have heard and suspected, to ramble all over the land controversy and dilate on their alleged grievances; while tenant witnesses were sharply checked, told that what they were saying was not legal evidence and could not be received, and were allowed to be bullied and brow-beaten by the landlords' counsel, and generally hurried out of the witness-chair instead of being questioned at length on the points to be inquired into. At these inquiries it is impossible for a witness to state his views unless questioned skilfully and sympathetically; he is not allowed to make long statements, or anything in the nature of a speech; he is effectually shut up by being asked a very few unimportant questions, and then, "Is there anything else you wish to say?" He has attended in the belief that the commission want to get information from him, and finds that all they want is to get rid of him as quickly as possible.

The ignorance shown by the three British Commissioners of the conditions of Irish land tenure and of the Irish land laws is illustrated by their frequently asking the tenant witnesses, "If your rent is too high, why don't you surrender your farm to the landlord?" as if they were quite unaware that most Irish farms have been created by the tenants, and that their present value is due to the tenants' expenditure in building, draining, fencing, reclamation, and road-making. These Commissioners have not yet taken in that the law purports to give the tenant a right to hold his farm at a rent less than its present fair value, by the amount the tenant has contributed to make the farm of that value. It would be as reasonable to tell the Esquimaux that if the conditions of life in Greenland don't suit them, they can go away and live in London. The population of Ireland are not farmers by choice, but from the necessary force of circumstances; in the past they have shown a very great willingness to go away when it was possible. Even now it is the aim of many young people to save enough money to take them to the United States, though their parents, naturally enough, desire to keep them at home. Thousands of young people would still gladly leave Ireland if they had the means to do so, but only because the conditions of life are still such as to make comfort and independence impossible. The main question for the mass of the people is whether they can have their farms at such rents that they can "live and thrive." If they have, they may defy the landlord and his bailiffs, but unless rents are low, there can be no security for home or household. Eviction notices for impossible rents have already deprived hundreds of tenants of the qualified security of tenure which the Land Law of 1881 purported to give them.

The late spring and the cold wet summer of the past year almost completely destroyed the oat and potato crop in the poorest parts of the country, and the population of many districts is now face to face with famine. Already deaths are reported, not from starvation, but from eating diseased potatoes, and from fever of an epidemic character. Although "fair rents" are supposed to have been fixed by the Land Courts, no rent, in the economic sense of the term, has been earned from the land. It is claimed, nevertheless, and may be enforced by seizures of what goods can be seized, or by eviction. It has never been possible for the farmers in these districts to accumulate capital on which they could draw for support in years of scarcity. Stuart Mill's explanation of Ireland's poverty is still true of many large areas. "Returning nothing to the soil," he said, "the landlords consume its whole produce minus the potatoes strictly necessary to keep the inhabitants from dying of hunger." It is not possible to get exact figures on the subject, but it seems probable that at least £1,000,000 a year of rent is paid in Ireland by means of remittances received from friends and relatives in America and the Colonies.

The autumn speeches of political leaders of all parties have been devoted, not only to criticism and defence of the present Government's actions, but to the formulation of programmes for the coming session of Parliament. What is termed the alliance of the Irish Nationalists with the English Liberal party has been the subject of much discussion; but no such alliance exists. The Nationalists have, naturally enough, given a general support to the party that brought in the Home Rule bill, but have voted against them over and over again when that party, from the Irish point of view, was in the wrong. The Nationalists have been challenged to require from the Liberal party, or its leaders, pledges to put home rule in the forefront of its programme. But such pledges would be worthless unless the relative strength of English parties enabled Irishmen to compel their fulfilment. It is most improbable that the Liberals should ever have a majority in the Imperial Parliament without the help of the Irish, and only a united Irish party will enable the Liberals to make home rule an effective plank in their platform. Some of the stanchest English adherents of the home-rule cause hold that until manhood suffrage is established, and the House of Lords reformed, abolished, or limited in power, no measure of home rule can be passed. It is manifestly useless passing any measure which it is known that the House of Lords can reject with impunity. Until the Liberals are in power, it would be quite premature for Irish parties to define what their action is to be. If it seems desirable to support manhood suffrage and abolition of the House of Lords' veto as a means to passing a home-rule bill, it would be both right and expedient for Irish members to do so.

The recent speeches of John Morley, Herbert Gladstone, Asquith, and other prominent English Liberals indicate that they are as firmly convinced as ever of the necessity of home rule for Ireland, in the interest, not only of Ireland, but of the British Empire. The Liberal leaders, however, show a great lack of affability and frankness towards Ireland. Their party can scarcely hope to return to power without the aid of the Irish Nationalists. But the English Liberals never speak in Ireland. If the leaders of the Liberal party made a practice of coming over here and declaring, not their programme in detail, but the principles on which they proposed to act towards Ireland, they might secure the support and the hearty coöperation of the mass of Irish voters. We have no doubt been fooled over and over again by promises from both English parties; but when the choice lies between the Conservatives and the Liberals, there is no

doubt that the majority in Ireland would support the party which advocates home rule and equal and simultaneous legislation for the two countries.

The overtaxation of Ireland continues to engage increasing attention. The Unionist party have now taken up the question with a good deal of the zeal of converts. The decreasing population of Ireland, and its decreasing capacity to bear fiscal burdens, become more manifest every year; they contrast so strongly with the growth of population and prosperity in Great Britain that the unfairness to Ireland of the existing fiscal system can no longer be questioned. The report of the Royal Commission, presided over by Mr. Childers, three years ago, was conclusive, but highly embarrassing to the present Government, which announced that another commission would be appointed, practically to refute the conclusions of the former one. This has never been done; and it is well known that the reason is that the Government cannot get the services of men of sufficient eminence for their opinions to carry any weight, and subservient enough to report the conclusion wanted. The grievance is one which Irish Nationalists have never ceased to expose; the Irish Unionists are now convinced; but it is doubtful whether their convictions are strong enough to make them stand shoulder to shoulder with the Nationalists, and vote against the Conservative Government on vital questions as a means of compelling attention and action.

The promised local-government bill of next session will afford an opportunity for all Irish parties to show some solidarity as to the financial treatment to be accorded to Ireland, and there are many indications that they will do so. AN IRISHMAN.

LITHOGRAPHS AT DÜSSELDORF.

LONDON, December 29, 1897.

An event that, in Paris, may attract the attention of the world, if it comes off in a small German town will, more likely than not, pass unnoticed. Everybody went to the centenary exhibition of lithographs held at the Champ de Mars in 1895, and everybody talked about it; next to nothing has been said of a no less interesting show just about to close at Düsseldorf. Of course, if this had been merely the Paris exhibition over again, there would have been no reason to speak of it. But, while it covers very nearly the same ground, while it also has its two sections—the one retrospective, the other representative of contemporary lithography—it differs in certain important details. In Paris, naturally, the French lithographers were chiefly in evidence; in Düsseldorf one sees more of the German work, both the old and the modern. Something of the character of the exhibition is explained when I say that it includes but one Raffet, but one Charlet, that there are but six prints by Gavarni, but two by Daumier; though it should be added that if there are only a couple of examples of Delacroix, these fortunately are from his "Faust"—the Margaret at Church and the Witches' Sabbath; designs which are seldom seen now, but were almost his earliest public profession of Romanticism, proving him, it was said at the time, a leader of *l'école du laid*. They strike one now as rather sensational and self-conscious, but they received the approval of Goethe, though this means little. They had a tremendous influence for a while, and they are unquestionably historical documents of great value.

If the comparatively limited number of French prints is a loss to the collection, since it is in France that the art of lithography was first developed and ultimately perfected, on the other hand it was in Germany that lithography was invented, and many of the lithographs shown are closely associated with the history of the invention. When, in 1795, Senefelder, much to his own surprise, and quite by chance, discovered a method of engraving on stone (lithography proper, surface printing, or chemical printing, as he called it, was not evolved by him until three years later), his first thought was to apply it to the printing of music. It is interesting, then, to find examples of the music produced by the Senefelder house at Munich during the very first period of its existence. Six variations for the piano are dated 1800 (the year in which Senefelder went from Offenbach to London to secure the English patent) and signed Theob: Senefelder; Theobold being one of the brothers taken into partnership by Aloys, the inventor, and afterwards the torment of his life. It is interesting again to see a print of 1804, with the title "Polyautographische Zeichnung"; Poly-autography being the name borne by lithography at the outset. Another notable print is a portrait of Senefelder, by H. Ott, printed at Offenbach by J. André, one of the house with which Senefelder's early fortunes were so intimately connected. And a clue to his after fortunes is to be had in the portrait of his grandchildren, Louis, Henrietta, and Christine; a lithograph by Llanta after a portrait by Ben. Adam, the children's guardian, published at Paris many years later for their benefit, they having inherited, with the family name, little but the family poverty and misfortunes. Work by Engelmann and Lasteyrie, the pioneers of lithography in Paris, both of whom studied with Senefelder, is here; and there are many examples of the copies of paintings and drawings made on the stone by Strixner, Piloty, Hanfstängel, and others.

When Senefelder joined with Baron Aretin to start a new firm in Munich, and the artistic possibilities of his method began to be practically realized, the copying of pictures and designs was the work to which artist-lithographers were put, and Strixner and Piloty were among the first to execute Senefelder's commissions. His satisfaction with them he placed on record in his short Memoir. In the old days, few German artists of distinction ventured to use the stone as a medium of original expression; few attempted to vie with the inexhaustible caricaturists and illustrators of France, the industrious architectural draughtsmen and portraitists of England. It seemed as if Germany was content with the glory of the invention. Of the story of lithography in that country there would be little to tell, from the death of Senefelder until the present, were it not for Menzel; and it is, therefore, only as it should be that Menzel at Düsseldorf is well and characteristically represented. With Menzel, born in the opening years of the century, modern illustration, of which lithography is a branch, virtually begins, and his first work, it should be remembered, was in lithography, and also, strangely enough, some of his most recent. The earliest of his prints now at Düsseldorf dates back to 1835, the last, "Das Refectorium," belongs to 1860, so that the series is not altogether complete, though it affords ample proof that on stone, as on wood or paper, Menzel was the accomplished draughtsman, the master of his medium. Perhaps the most remarkable print is the very elaborate, highly finished "Christus als Knabe im Tempel," dated 1852, with its marvellous study of Jews.

To come to the modern section is to find the German artist at last, after a long century, beginning to understand the resources of lithography, and to use it as a means of multiplying—not reproducing, as the critics usually describe it—an original design. There is no doubt that the new vitality given to the art has come to Germany by way of France. If it had not been for *L'Estampe Originale*, and other publications of the kind, we might not have had *Pan* or *Jugend*, that extremely clever weekly, now published at Munich. But the younger Germans, wherever they derived their inspiration, have not allowed their debt to others to suppress altogether their own individuality, though they are too ready to cringe before the decayed remains of English Pre-Raphaelitism, and though with many individuality is but another name for affectation. You feel this even in the work of Hans Thoma, distinctly the strongest of them all. Often as his lithographs have been shown in the smaller London galleries, I have not seen such a complete collection as he has sent to Düsseldorf. One may weary a little of the mysticism, at present the fashion, that has guided him in the choice and treatment of his subjects. But Thoma can draw, and most of the modern mystics cannot, their mysticism being a cloak to hide all technical defects. He is a genuine primitive, but whether the resurrection of the technical shortcomings of the primitives is the highest form of art, the future must decide. Personally, I am of the opinion that very little of this sort of work will be heard of by coming generations. More individual really than Thoma are men like A. Frenz and Otto Greiner. They, too, are mystics, if you will, but their mysticism is carried out in a modern spirit. They are prophets of the ugly—that is, they give the most realistic renderings of their models—but often the results are very fine, and at times, though rarely, very decorative in the right sense. They have always enough character to be interesting. There are many other Germans who show good or clever lithographs; but to mention them all would be to produce a list of names meaning little in America, where, I fancy, their work is still to be seen. It is more to the purpose to point out that the two great achievements of modern lithography in Germany are, first, the excellence of the portraits that are being made on stone and paper, chiefly by Fechner, Gentz, and Kalckreuth; and second, the beauty and distinction of the color work. This has absolutely nothing in common with the chromo-lithography of commerce. The effect is at times produced by using one or two different colored inks on a tinted paper, a favorite device; at others, by printing in flat washes, somewhat in the manner of the Japanese wood-engraver. Wonderful prints have been done in this way, far more effective, for instance, than the colored reproductions after Mr. Nicholson, not the work of the artist, of which so much has recently been heard in England. For, as a draughtsman, Mr.

Nicholson can but rarely rank with the German lithographers.

Of the work sent from other countries, there is nothing much to be said. The only lithographs I had not seen before which struck me as above the average were the portraits of Mesdag and Menzel and other celebrities by the Dutchman J. Veth; portraits full of character. A large display is made by France, but to the work of Fantin-Latour and Helleu, of Dillon and Lunois, of Lautrec and Steinlen, and innumerable others, I have referred so often in writing about the two Salons that it seems superfluous to describe it again. I was surprised, however, to come upon two examples of Manet which I do not think were with his lithographs at the Beaux-Arts in 1891, or at the Champ de Mars in 1895. One is another version of his execution of Maximilian, and it is curious to note how much more the commonplaceness of the composition is felt in the print than in the picture. Manet was the incomparable painter in *Le Bon Bock* and similar themes, but the dramatic was a quality which did not come within the range of his powers. It is curious, too, to find a man who was such a master of the brush so clumsy with the lithographic chalk. But Manet seldom could express himself in black-and-white, whatever his medium. With the exception of his drawing of the Raven for M. Mallarmé's translation of Poe, I know of no illustration by him worthy of a place beside his paintings.

The only lithographers the Germans have so far discovered in England are Shannon, Whistler, and Halloway: I give the names in the order in which they appear in the introduction of the catalogue. As in its pages, so upon the walls, it is to Mr. Shannon prominence is awarded, though he owes to Mr. Whistler almost everything that he has not borrowed from Sir E. Burne-Jones. In this section, however, I am afraid the hanging committee were altogether at sea; they have solemnly hung, as a lithograph, an etching by an artist who is not an Englishman, but an American, and who has made many lithographs. But, after all, as I have said, it is because of the chance it offers for the study of German work that the exhibition is worth seeing, and I only regret that it has been held in one of the smaller towns so rarely visited by the foreigner. N. N.

Correspondence.

A CORRECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am duly grateful to you and to your reviewer for the kind words which are said about my anthology of 'English Lyric Poetry' in the Warwick Library in your number of December 9. The notice, however, gives the impression that there are numerous defects in the text and in the proof-reading. Of several such errors I am myself aware, and can only plead in excuse the "unavoidable residuum," and distance from the printer at the time the volume was going through the press. But inasmuch as I strove to secure the greatest attainable accuracy and authority of text, I cannot let the three instances of errors alleged by your reviewer pass without answer.

In the line from Peele's "Farewell to Arms" (p. 58),

"And feed on prayers, which are age his arms,"

which I am informed should read "old age his arms," I have followed the texts of Dyce and Bullen, which in turn are based on Peele's 'Polyhymnia,' 1590 (the only two copies known, I believe, are at Edinburgh, and in the Devonshire Collection). In Segar's 'Honor, Military and Civil,' 1602, page 199 (I have just verified the passage), where the poem is quoted, the reading for the last half of the line is "that are old ages almes." I know of no authority for "old age his arms," and I do not know by what canon of criticism the reading of Segar in 1602 should be preferred to that of Peele in 1590.

In the case of the reading from Vaughan (your reference should have been to p. 251),

"But what fair well or grove he sings in now,"

which, I am told, should be "what fair dell," the reply is even less doubtful. In the 'Silex Scintillans,' 1651, part ii., page 5 (again I have just verified the reading), Vaughan certainly gives, "But what fair Well." As Dr. Grosart long ago pointed out (in his edition of Vaughan, vol. i., p. 185, note), the author's reading certainly makes as good sense as that of his modern "improvers," and again I am at a loss to know why I was under obligation to change it.

As to the last line of "Waly, Waly," I am by no means so sure. I should certainly never venture to dispute the practically final authority of Prof. Child if it were a question of a ballad reading. But the poem is obviously sophisticated and "literary" in many other touches, and, as it seems to me, is to be accepted rather as an example of the influence of the ballad on the more popular literary lyric than as a pure ballad-song in itself. As it had obviously been freely touched many times before it came into Allingham's hands, he also was at liberty to try his own variations on it. In its peculiar mixed kind, I am inclined to think that the later version is an improvement. If you regard it as a ballad and a pure folk-song, of course your preference will be for the stricter and earlier version.

Frederic Ives Carpenter.

London, December 20, 1897.

[We should have been glad to have Mr. Carpenter's explanation of the apparently curious selection of a "well" as a place for a bird to sing in. Grosart suggests that it was doubtless an Eastern sunken well, with trees around it; and he gives another similar citation. This use of the word, we confess, had not occurred to us, nor had it apparently occurred to the editor of the Pickering edition of 1847, who gives the word as "dell." In the case of Peele's fine poem it is obvious that "prayers" must be prolonged into an emphatic dissyllable if the line is to read rhythmically. It is a curious fact that Segar, reprinting the poem only twelve years later than Peele's edition, should have treated "prayers" as a monosyllable, and apparently inserted "old" to make out the line.—Ed. Nation.]

THE SPECIE CIRCULAR ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of December 30 appears a communication from the University of Chicago which undertakes to make a positive contradiction of Prof. Sumner and Mr. Schouler in their assertion that a circular similar to the noted specie circular of President Jackson was issued in President Adams's administration. Your correspondent would deserve praise for historical research if he were a trifle less inclined to historical censure. "Similar" is a generic term not equivalent to "identical"; and it would seem that, after three columns of rather fine-spun exposition, he has hardly made his point that there was no similarity in the two documents. He quotes from a debate in the Senate on this subject, in which Benton maintained that there was a strong similarity, while his distinguished opponents, in their eager antagonism to Jackson, maintained as stoutly the contrary. Something should be allowed for party rage in such a debate; for, as Sir Roger de Coverley used to observe, "there is a great deal to be said on both sides."

Not content with his dogmatic conclusion, your correspondent further proceeds to impugn Mr. Schouler's accuracy and carefulness "in making important statements," and charges him with transferring to his own pages both the assertion and reference from Sumner's 'Jackson,' without verifying the one or the other. In the first place, Mr. Schouler evidently did not consider the matter of much importance, as it had only a casual bearing upon his description of Jackson's specie circular; and in all such matters any historian appears justified in citing so excellent a financial expert and scholar as Prof. Sumner by reference to his book and page accordingly. But, as a matter of fact, Mr. Schouler did verify Prof. Sumner's reference for his own statement, and derived the same impression that Prof. Sumner himself did. Mr. Schouler's offence consists (4 Schouler 262) in describing Jackson's specie circular in his text, and then adding as a passing comment in the foot-note that "a similar circular" was once issued by Jackson's predecessor (citing, besides Sumner's Jackson 336, 7 J. Q. Adams's Diary 427). Adams's Diary, when referred to, shows that the specie circular issued by Rush was stricter in terms than that preceding it, and caused anger in Southern quarters. In any comparison of these two circulars it should be borne in mind that the United States Bank had failed to procure a recharter, and that its currency was no longer in normal circulation for Government dues when Jackson's specie circular was issued. Your correspondent seems hardly to have taken this point into consideration in his criticism. J. S.

January 4, 1898.

PROTECTION OF FOREIGNERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter under the above title in the *Nation* for December 2 is funny enough, but the piece of stupidity it commemorates is outdone by the practice of the customs for years past under all administrations. It is very well known that Timothy Cole, an American-born and educated artist, has been working for the *Century* in the reproduction of works of art by various masters, and that

his engravings on wood have gained a world-wide reputation as the most artistic *of their kind* that have ever been produced. It will be news, however, to most people in America or England, that the blocks, when engraved, are not admitted as works of art, but are classified as "carved wood," and, as such, subjected to a duty of 30 per cent., which, as they are priced at about $250 each, when of the size of the full-page blocks for the *Century*, is a serious burthen on American art. But what is funnier than Mr. Robinson's instance is the fact that when these blocks are stereotyped in Paris, the stereotype-blocks go free of duty through the American custom-houses. The ass who framed this decision that wood-engraving is not art, based it, apparently, on the classification in the tariff, and could find no other description of the blocks which came within his comprehension than that of "carved wood," and probably prided himself on his acumen. Now the correct title of these articles, if they are to be categoried in industrial terms, is not carved wood, but engraved wood. It is not to be expected that a customs authority in the United States should know enough about art to know that the blocks by Cole are noble works of art, but he might have known better than to classify them as "carved wood."

Mr. Cole has been for some time engaged on a series of blocks which he intends to publish by subscription, each block being as large as four of those of the *Century*, and, as "carved wood," worth four times as much, and Mr. Cole would have to pay $300 each to pass them through the custom-house. He therefore has them stereotyped in Paris and will send the plates over to America to be printed from, for, curiously enough, there are no printers in Paris who can print these blocks properly. As the impressions from the stereotype blocks are never quite as good as those from the originals, and the latter will never give equally good proofs after the stereotyping as before it, we are obliged to see a most important artistic interest suffer, with no gain to any other, high or low, because our Treasury Department was unable to comprehend that a work by a wood-engraver is a work of art. Having laid the prohibitive duty on the work of the American artist, we allow that of the French stereotyper to pass free of duty. Many Americans pride themselves on the "sound common sense" in the management of our public affairs, but, as a matter of fact, it violates common sense more than all the monarchies of Europe combined. Our tariff alone may challenge the official doings of the civilized world to show such an accumulation of absurdities.—Yours truly,

W. J. STILLMAN.

ROME, December 23, 1897.

Notes.

Coinciding with the recent tendency of literary study in France, and to a less extent in Germany, to make much of the literary "species" and its development, is the plan of a series of "Representative English Comedies," announced by Macmillan for publication during the coming year, of which Prof. C. M. Gayley of the University of California is general editor, and Professors Dowden, A. W. Ward, Herford, J. W. Hales, Flügel, G. P. Baker, Gummere, Woodberry, Matthews, G. R. Carpenter, Beers, and Messrs. Pollard, Henry Bradley, A. H. Bullen, Gollancz, Sidney Lee, and others, editors of individual comedies and contributors of monographs tracing the growth of English Comedy in its several periods and parts from the Miracle Plays to Sheridan. Some forty plays in five volumes are promised, with occasional issue of the more important and popular plays in separate form. The plan, in fact, contemplates a complete history of English Comedy written by specialists, with the unusual and added advantage of presenting with the text of the history complete and annotated illustrations of the more important masterpieces discussed, rather than the unsatisfactory and broken excerpts possible in most literary histories. In these days of the servitude of the English comic stage to German and French originals and models, we have pretty well forgotten that at one time English Comedy was a very vigorous growth and ranked scarcely second to any—surely first of all, if Shakspere be thrown in to tip the scales.

It is interesting to notice the names selected by the editor in his "Announcement" of those whom he considers the most important writers of English comedy (not all of whom, however, will be represented by illustrations among these reprints). In the sixteenth century these are John Heywood, Udall, Gascoigne, the author of "Gammer Gurton's Needle," Lyly, Peele, Greene, Henry Porter, and Shakspere. Specimens of the comic elements in the Miracle Plays, in the Moralities, and in other transition dramas of the period the editor hopes to present at some later time in a preliminary volume, if the series receive sufficient encouragement. Following these appear the names of Ben Jonson, Chettle, Dekker, Chapman, Middleton, Richard Brome, Beaumont and Fletcher, Shirley, Thomas Heywood, Massinger, Cowley, Wilson, Howard, Villiers and "The Rehearsal," Dryden, Wycherley, Etherege, Crowne, Congreve, Cibber, Vanbrugh, Farquhar, Mrs. Centlivre, Addison, Steele, Gay, Hoadley, Moore, Townley, Murphy, Whitehead, Kelly, Foote, Colman, Macklin, Cumberland, Goldsmith, and Sheridan—a catholic list of names, but presenting enough of important position to justify the presentation in so elaborate a form of the literary kind chosen. The names of the editors and contributors are a guarantee of thorough and discriminating workmanship in the execution of the plan.

During the present month D. Appleton & Co. will bring out 'Various Fragments,' by Herbert Spencer; 'Evolutional Ethics and Animal Psychology,' by Prof. E. P. Evans; 'The Psychology of Suggestion,' by Boris Sidis; 'The Story of Animal Life in the Sea,' illustrated by L. J. Hickson; 'Anatomy,' in the "Concise Knowledge Library"; 'Modern English Literature,' by Edmund Gosse; 'Bimetallism,' by Major Leonard Darwin; 'H. R. H. the Prince of Wales,' a biography; and 'Crusoe's Island,' a bird-hunter's story, by Frederick A. Ober.

Mr. Higginson's 'Cheerful Yesterdays' will graduate from the *Atlantic Monthly* into book form in the spring, with the imprint of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Lamson, Wolffe & Co., Boston, have in press a 'History of the Lowell Institute,' by Mrs. Harriet Knight Smith, which has been closely preceded by a History of the Smithsonian Institution.

Ginn & Co. announce a 'Guide to the Study of Fiction,' for class-room purposes, by Charity Dye, teacher of English in the Indianapolis High School.

'Hampton,' by the Rev. Edward E. Hale, a book with an economic aspect, will be issued by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert will publish 'The New Puritanism,' a series of papers presented during the semi-centennial celebration of Plymouth Church (1847-1897).

Mr. Temple Scott's 'Book Sales of 1897' (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan) makes a prompt appearance as a result of a change of plan, by which the calendar year is abandoned for the "seasonal." Hereafter this record will run from November 1 to July 31. Another novelty is the inclusion of select American sales, viz., the Sewall, Frederickson, and Bierstadt. Mr. Scott remarks on the continued interest in Americana in England, on the slight falling off in Cruikshankiana, and the diminishing favor accorded to Bewick's works. The Kelmscott Press publications, justly described by Mr. Scott as "not book-readers' books," at present "are being treated as fairly common bric-à-brac." The sale of the first portion of the library of the Earl of Ashburnham was the great feature of the year, realizing in eight days $150,000. American commissions contributed to make "the prices paid for 'lots' twenty per cent. above market values," in Mr. Scott's estimation. A 'Biblia Pauperum' of forty leaves fetched £1,050. The several sales are catalogued apart, with a continuous numbering, and a general index furnishes a key and shows whether it is worth while to apply it. The book is beautifully printed.

Having already reviewed Mr. F. M. Chapman's 'Bird Life' at some length, it remains to notice the new edition which appeared a few weeks ago. The text is the same as that of both the previous issues, but the book in its new dress is much larger, handsomer, and more expensive, with heavier paper, wider margins, and colored plates. Photographic bromide enlargements of Mr. Thompson's original black-and-white drawings have been made, and these copies have been colored from life under the author's supervision. The mechanical reproductions of these by a lithographic process would seem to insure absolute accuracy; but, unfortunately, several of the plates as printed have turned out far from proof, and should be remade in time for the next binding of a batch of copies, which will no doubt be soon required. The latest embellishments of 'Bird Life' do not modify our judgment that Mr. Chapman's 'Hand-Book' is much the better one of the two, having been written with care, and not made to order; but each has its admirers, and both are prosperous, useful books (Appletons).

'Idle Hours in a Library' is the title given by the author, Prof. W. H. Hudson of Stanford University (San Francisco: William Doxey), to a volume of readable popular essays on literary topics, otherwise unrelated, such as it is the modern fashion to bind up together in book form. The subjects treated are 'London Life in Shakspere's Time' (lucid, easy, and picturesque), 'Pepys and his Diary' (a subject somewhat worn, but always offering good material for the essayist), 'Two Novelists of the English Restoration' (Mrs. Manley and Mrs. Behn), and 'A Glimpse of Bohemia' (on Henri Mürger). These sketches make no pretence at originality, being written in the lightest

essay frame of mind, and therefore require no serious consideration. The style has the merit of being easy and interesting, and well suited to the subjects chosen.

One seldom encounters a stronger contrast between an author's prefatory remarks and the body of his work than in 'Lilliput Lectures,' by W. B. Rands, reissued after a quarter of a century under the editorial care of R. Brimley Johnson (London: James Bowden; New York: M. F. Mansfield). Mr. Rands's introduction (which shows him to have been a Sunday-school teacher) abounds in sense, and can hardly fail to raise expectations regarding the religious talk which follows. But great is the disappointment. There is no more evidence in these vague, rambling, abrupt chapters on the World, the Sky, Cities, Science and Philosophy, Art and Artists, etc., of fitness to address the infant mind than there is of poetic talent in the original verse, which uniformly ends the discourse, and which almost seems to have been the motive for publication.

In a country where education is so eminently a concern of the whole people as in ours, the reports of the Commissioner of Education ought to attract a good deal of attention. The recent appearance of the Report for the year 1895-'96 calls to mind the unanimous and vigorous protest, about a year ago, of the Michigan State Teachers' Association against certain animadversions on these reports in a leading Western daily. In fact, it is hard to conceive of a teacher or school officer worthy of his name that fails to appreciate the value to himself of these public documents. The present issue combines, as usual, much statistical matter with historical information and discussions of new tendencies and current questions, not chosen at random, as might seem to be the case to the uninitiated, but printed for some good reason and with a purpose. We find again chapters on early education in some of the States (New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, the Southern States); and as the last Report contained critical discussions of American schools by some eminent Germans, so we have this time the views of that well-known French authority, M. Compayré. From among several articles relating to foreign lands we can mention only the one on the English Education bill of 1896, and a first presentation of the state of education in Iceland. This notice of a compilation of more than 2,000 pages should not pass over in silence, however, the Commissioner's own brief estimate of the labors of Horace Mann (at the end of vol. i.), followed by a bibliography prepared by the son of the latter.

A woman, Mlle. Pellechet, has been charged with the difficult task of editing the lists of incunabula owned by 196 French public libraries, drawn up (in divers modes) at the request, in 1886, of the Minister of Public Instruction. The first volume (*A—Biblia Italica*) has lately appeared (Paris: Picard), and redounds to the credit, already well established in the same line, of Mlle. Pellechet, who has handled almost all the books described with the greatest exactitude. The arrangement is chronological where possible, and when a date is wanting, an arbitrary ordering by the number of lines to a page is adopted. The final volume will contain index and preface. In each case, of course, the library possessing a given volume is indicated.

The *Bibliographische Blätter*, which was published quarterly in 1895 and bi-monthly in 1896, has undergone a transfer and transformation into the annual 'Bibliographisches Jahrbuch und Deutscher Nekrolog' (Berlin: Georg Reimer). At the head of the editorial staff is F. von Bezold, associated on the *Blätter* with the late Michael Bernays. The first volume, embracing the German dead of 1896, is a large octavo of more than 500 pages, divided into three parts: (1) biographical essays or documents not restricted to the past year, as, the autobiographic fragments from the pen of Ludwig Richter (edited by A. Michaelis), or the reminiscences of Bodenstedt, by C. von Lützow, together with select obituaries (Clara Schumann, M. Bernays, H. Bürkner); (2) a bibliography of biographical literature, with author entries but alphabetical arrangement by subjects; (3) the necrology for 1896, but (a wise reserve) with postponement of such notices as could not yet be adequately written for want of data. The arrangement is not strictly alphabetical, but the index repairs that defect, and, while it fails to indicate that Clara Schumann is twice commemorated, it includes the postponed names. When we add that there are five photogravure portraits of Treitschke and Du Bois-Reymond, we have described the scheme of this solid and valuable work. How much one like it in English might have lightened the labors of the editors of the 'Dictionary of National Biography.'

Students of German literature and lovers of the Suabian school of poetry will be interested in 'Uhland's Tagebuch,' edited by J. Hartmann from a posthumous manuscript now in possession of the Schwäbischer Schillerverein, and just published by Cotta in Stuttgart. The laconic diary begins with the latter part of Uhland's student life at Tübingen in 1810, when he took the degree of LL.D., and ends with his marriage in 1820. It covers, therefore, the period of his sojourn in Paris for the purpose of studying the manuscript works of the old French and old German poets, his early career as a lawyer, at first in the ministry of justice and afterwards as an advocate in Stuttgart, his patriotic opposition to the attempt of the King of Würtemberg to introduce a new constitution abridging the rights of the people, and his political activity and efficiency as a member of the Diet. Only fragments of this diary have been hitherto accessible to Uhland's biographers, and its publication in full, so far as it has been preserved, enables the reader to follow the course of his mental and poetical development continuously during the formative period of his life.

The Munich publisher Oldenburg has just issued an exhaustive work on 'Politische Geographie,' by Dr. Friedrich Ratzel, Professor of Geography in the University of Leipzig. It is an octavo volume of 733 pages with 33 illustrations in the text, and treats of what the author calls "biogeography," by which he means the configuration and constitution of the earth's surface in their influence upon the evolution and organization of human life, and more especially the relations of the soil to the state. Among the topics discussed are possession and sovereignty, migration, conquest, and colonization, the fundamental laws determining the growth of states, the political effects of extended and limited domain, natural and artificial boundaries, insular, peninsular, and continental empires, the sea and maritime nations, mountains, plains, lakes, and rivers as elements in determining the character of the body politic.

An important geological work has been undertaken in Paris in the translation of Suess's 'Das Antlitz der Erde,' under the direction of E. de Margerie, who has, with his collaborators, extended the original in a most scholarly manner by the addition of notes and references on relevant topics that have been published since the appearance of the original work. The first volume is now issued with the title, 'La Face de la Terre' (Paris: A. Colin & Cie.), with seventy-six figures especially prepared for the French translation, in addition to the original series, and two colored maps. Prof. Marcel Bertrand of the École des Mines contributes an excellent preface. This volume contains two of the four parts into which the work is divided—movements of the crust, and mountain chains. The changes of the sea and the face of the earth will be treated in a second volume. The most characteristic part of the present work concerns mountain chains, in which Suess discovers a prevailing asymmetry; an exterior side, towards which the range has been driven, characterized by long folds, and an interior side, where faulting prevails. In Europe, the exterior side of the chains is on the north; in Asia, on the south. The advanced student of geology will find this work well repaying his perusal.

H. Aschehoug & Co. of Christiania have just brought out the first 'Hefte' of an account of the voyage of the *Fram* by one of Nansen's followers, Hjalmar Johansen. It is entitled 'Selv-Anden pa 86 14' (Number Two at 86 14), and it is said to give promise of an interest hardly inferior to that of 'Farthest North.' Special attention is paid to the sledge trip, and many events on the *Fram* not touched on by the leader are described. There is a large number of illustrations.

One of the best deliverances on the teaching of living languages is to be found in George Ticknor's address before the American Institute of Instruction in the year 1832. The ideas there expressed are in the main the same as those now held by the great majority of judicious teachers, and there is no prospect, near or remote, of a general revolution in favor of any of the numerous "new" methods, one of which, that of Gouin, is so favorably discussed in the *Educational Review* for January. It is the same method advertised with much ado about five years ago by the editor of the *Review of Reviews*, and since then improved by Messrs. Swan and Bétis. It will not be found superior to other more common methods, provided these are used with more judgment than M. Gouin brought to the study of German before he invented his own method.

In the latest issue of the English Historical Manuscripts Commission, treating of the Foljambe MSS., a long letter from Priestley to Sir George Savile, dated October 28, 1775, is printed. The letter is of interest for the character drawn of Shelburne. "He is by no means that artful, ambitious politician that he has been represented. . . . He is not without that prudence and circumspection that becomes his situation, but he has no deep political secrets." His wish was to abridge the power of the Crown, and make proper examples of the "present wretched administration." "With respect

to America, I cannot help thinking that the people of that country would have more confidence in Lord Shelburne, provided there should ever be an opening to treat with them (which, however, for my own part, I despair of), than in Lord Rockingham, whose *declaratory act* will never go down with them." In a later letter (1780) Lord Rockingham attributes Burke's defeat at Bristol to the American war, which had "too deeply affected the wealth of the merchants, who so honorably and at such a large expense had supported and carried his former election." Savile in 1782 lays stress upon the expediency of obtaining a weighty vote on Conway's motion, condemning the war, from the country members—the "purest part of the representation." He thought it would impress the King by pitting corruption against incorruption, and giving the sense of a "pure House of Commons" for his guidance.

A slight but important typographical error disguised the name of the writer of the communication on "South Carolina Precedents for New Jersey" in our issue for December 30, Mr. Edward McCrady of Charleston.

—In his annual report to the President of Harvard University, Prof. Pickering, Director of the Observatory, presents some of the greatest needs of astronomy at Cambridge—among them, new buildings to replace the old ones of wood; a modern machine-shop, and a library building where clerical work can be performed. While the Observatory has abundant income to employ assistants (twenty-one men and nineteen women are in its constant service), more principal is needed, not for investment, but for material equipment. The important work of the meridian photometer is now approaching completion, so far as northern stars are concerned. That of the Henry Draper Memorial continues a splendid record both at Cambridge and in Peru; and owing to the great number of photographic exposures every clear night, mere developing had become a laborious task until an apparatus was constructed by which twelve plates may be subjected to this process at once. The Boyden work in Peru is also progressing finely, and, in addition, meteorological observations are made at seven stations, varying in altitude from 100 feet above sea-level to 19,200 on El Misti. The great Bruce photographic telescope at Arequipa is performing most satisfactorily, experiment showing it perfectly capable of the power of registration claimed for it. Nearly 700 photographs are its work for the year, a few of which were taken with the prism additional. An interesting result has been reached from a study of two of these plates showing spectra of stars in the famous Magellanic Cloud; Mrs. Fleming having discovered six stars with spectra of the fifth type, which, as the only stars of this class so far from the Milky Way, may furnish another important clue to mysteries of constitution in the Magellanic Cloud. Meteorological work at Blue Hill Observatory continues, as formerly, in conjunction with Mr. Rotch; also the telegraphic distribution of important astronomical discoveries. Eight circulars printed during the year have brought new announcements promptly to scientific notice. Vols. i. to xxxvi. of the Annals of the Observatory are now practically complete, and succeeding volumes to xlvi. are already well advanced.

—The death of Gardiner G. Hubbard of Washington gives occasion for recalling the admirable service which he, with his son-in-law, Prof. A. Graham Bell, rendered in founding a journal of science. It could be made a reproach to this country, in 1883, that there existed no scientific newspaper, and that men devoted to the interests of different sciences had no medium of intercommunication nearer than London. Moved by that consideration, these gentlemen, in the year named, and during many subsequent years, expended some $80,000 in the foundation and support of *Science*. As Prof. Newcomb said, in the few words with which he introduced the New Series of that journal: "Great success in advancing scientific knowledge cannot be expected, even from the most gifted men, so long as they remain isolated; the attrition of like minds is almost as necessary to intellectual production as companionship to conversation." While, within the range of each science, there are now scientific journals of an adequate nature, it is none the less indispensable that there should be a common clearing-house where the different sciences may be brought within range of each other. It is to be hoped that *Science*, in its present form, under the charge of its self-sacrificing and efficient editors, may have in full measure the success which it deserves. There could be no better way of expressing gratitude for the generosity with which it was founded than by assuring its present prosperity.

—Part xii. of Dr. Reginald Lane Poole's 'Historical Atlas of Modern Europe' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde) completed the first year's issues of Mr. Poole's monumental work so long delayed by the magnitude of the task and the difficulties of publication. From this instalment of the thirty parts promised it is possible to estimate the scope and value of the work. Of its value there can be no doubt. It has had but one predecessor with which it can be fairly compared, namely, Spruner-Menke. Poole's work covers in time and space much the same ground as Spruner-Menke, and is, in fact, avowedly modelled upon that atlas, being indebted to it for general plan and for many details. From the point of view of mechanical execution it is certainly a great improvement on it. The maps are rather smaller, but in general much clearer, the size and style of the lettering, and in particular the coloring, being a great advance on the Spruner-Menke, while the doing away with coast-line shading permits definition impossible under the old system. The historical sketches accompanying each map are concise but very full, and much superior to the brief notices in Spruner, or even the more elaborate text of Droysen. It is to be hoped that the pages of the completed volume may be numbered like those of any other book, and especially that there may be a complete index of place names. The German maps of Poole are as yet neither so numerous nor so detailed as those of the German atlases, naturally enough. On the other hand, the maps of the British Isles will supply a very real and long-felt want. Of those which have already appeared, the two maps of Anglia Sacra, the ecclesiastical divisions of England *temp.* Edward I., and Anglia Monastica *temp.* Henry VIII., the admirable map of parliamentary boroughs to 1832, by Mr. Prothero, with dates of their establishment, decay, and revival, and the map of Great Britain under Edward I., are especially to be commended, while those of Roman Britain, Ireland prior to the Anglo-Norman occupation, Scotland in 1300, England and Wales under the house of Lancaster, and Ireland under the early Tudors, are extremely useful. This series is certainly unique, and in many respects the most valuable part of the new material in the atlas.

—The difference between the German and the English atlases on ground common to both can best be seen by a comparison of such maps as those of Europe in the Merovingian and Carolingian periods. In each case Mr. Poole has based his general map on that of Menke, reducing the size, but greatly increasing the clearness and definition by the devices already mentioned. Menke's Merovingian Europe contains, in addition to the large map, nine smaller maps—four general, showing the changes at the partitions of 511, 561, 587, and 625, and five special local maps. These latter Mr. Poole omits, and reduces the size of the former very considerably; but, by ingenious use of color and omission of place names, which really have no business in such maps, he manages to convey the state of affairs much more clearly than is done in the more elaborate but confused maps of his model. We must also mention the series of eight maps of Europe, 395-720, by Prof. Bury, the new Gibbon editor; the Italian maps of Miss Ewart, the French maps of Mr. Rhodes, together with that of the Spanish kingdoms by the late Mr. Ulick Burke, and of the Swiss Confederation by the Rev. W. A. B. Coolidge, this last including the passes in use in the Middle Ages—a particularly useful piece of work. It is to be regretted that the price for this atlas (3s. 6d. for each part) is so great, and especially that so far the publishers have not seen fit to offer the maps for sale separately, as most other publishers do. This would be a very great convenience, both to those who desire particular maps for special work and to those who could thus supplement what they already possess.

—It would not be easy to find a more illuminating and instructive survey of its subject than the lectures of Mr. Platon E. Drakoules entitled 'Neohellenic Language and Literature' (Oxford: B. H. Blackwell). They were recently delivered at Oxford, and are an admirably condensed sketch of the development of the modern Greek language and literature, embraced in a pamphlet of seventy pages. It may be read with profit by any one who has the least tincture of Greek, and it will leave such a reader with clearer views than are imparted in many a larger and more formal treatise. It is characterized by exact and sound learning, great moderation of tone, and a general view of the mission of the modern Greek which commends itself by its wisdom and sōbriety. There are many such Greeks as Drakoules and Bikélas, and there is strong hope that their wisdom will leaven a people which has some of the vices bred of recent centuries of slavery, some of the faults and foibles of children, and many virtues that might be commended to their older brethren among the nations. The fatal Jingoism which they have lately shown was at least on behalf of their own oppressed kindred; and as to the causes of this error, Mr. Drakoules has a paragraph so wise and right-minded that it sums up the whole situation: "Thus it is that Greece, in-

stead of moral leaders, has politicians, who can teach her no good thing, and at the hands of whom industrious, hard-working, frugal, heavily taxed, and wofully neglected Greece is periodically led astray, merely in order to afford them the satisfaction of calling themselves her rulers—rulers who never really cared much for education, and never did anything for moral instruction and manly training—who, while it was in their power to regenerate their country by encouraging the development of the nobler part of Hellenic nature, wasted her resources in insincere military preparations. It is from this body of men that Greece deserves to be saved, in order to be enlightened and show that she is an influence for good in the Levant." This little book answers many questions which are naturally put by the intelligent inquirer. It is most interesting as showing the substantial continuity of the language, and its growth through the centuries, since Homer. It sketches also the conscious development of a modern literature and literary language, produced by the new national consciousness and freedom so lately won. The author is unusually well acquainted with English culture and literature, and the results of his knowledge are manifest in his style and illustrations.

STILLMAN'S ESSAYS.

The Old Rome and the New, and Other Studies. By W. J. Stillman. London: Grant Richards; Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

According to the author, this volume is to be taken as containing the serious literary production of a lifetime. In his preface he says: "I had the good fortune to learn soon that the opinions of young men are rarely worth preserving, . . . and I then decided that I would publish nothing before I should be forty; when I was forty I postponed to fifty; at fifty I said, Sixty is not too late; and at sixty I had still too much to learn, and I would trust to seventy." Some things he has had to put forth for bread-winning, and some, like the History of the Cretan Insurrection, from a sense of duty; but now he has for the first time willingly gathered together something of the much he has written, has revised and reconsidered it, and is "prepared to stand or fall in the opinion of his critics by what is printed."

The ten papers he has selected for perpetuation are somewhat miscellaneous in nature and subject. Three of them, "John Ruskin," "The Decay of Art," and "The Revival of Art," deal with questions of art criticism, and it is with Mr. Stillman as a critic of art and with his views and principles as an art critic that we shall concern ourselves in this review. In the paper on Ruskin he combats that writer's theories; in that on the Decay of Art he tells us why, in his opinion, art has decayed, and in that on the Revival of Art on what terms, if at all, it may be revived. His doctrine is the antipode of that of Ruskin, and may be called the extremest form of idealism.

As a young man Mr. Stillman was deeply influenced by Ruskin, as were most intelligent young men in the English-speaking world of that epoch, and he began the practice of art on pre-Raphaelite principles. He long tried to produce an artistic impression by the literal and exact copying of nature in its details; and, failing, as failure was inevitable, he has been carried in theory—for he has long since ceased from the practice of art—to the opposite pole of opinion. He seems to have come to believe that all study of nature is destructive of art—that "Nature has in every case killed art," and "the nearer to nature the farther from art." True art, for him, is purely subjective, "done out of the head," and the true artist is one, like Fuseli, whom "nature puts out." In his 'Old Italian Masters' he tried to show that art declined exactly in proportion as the study of nature increased, and seemed to exalt the least of the Giotteschi above the great masters of the high Renaissance, certainly denying to Lionardo any very great rank because of his naturalistic theories and scientific temper. In the present work we find him justifying Turner's wildest contraventions of natural laws while pointing them out as disproof of Ruskin's doctrines, saying that Turner "attained the highest expression of subjective art of his time—possibly of all time," and that he does not yield to Ruskin in admiration of the "Slave Ship," though "the whole picture is a flagrant falsehood," with an "utterly impossible sky" and an "utterly impossible sea."

Is it, then, possible that artists have always been entirely wrong; that their tireless efforts for self-improvement, for mastery of natural forms and colors, for the investigation of natural appearances, have been utterly wasted and worse than wasted? Is it possible that art would have been the better if perspective had never been discovered nor anatomy studied, and that it is enough to compose, and we have no need to draw or to paint? Of course Mr. Stillman does not really think this himself; and yet his theories, logically carried out, would bring us to just this conclusion, and some of his statements seem almost to assert it. Ruskin's theory of the obligation of absolute record of natural fact is doctrine more dangerous because more plausible; Mr. Stillman's doctrine is only not dangerous because impossible of acceptance by any painter with a love of nature and a habit of work.

And yet Mr. Stillman's error springs from an unguarded and overstrained insistence upon the most important and fundamental of truths about art. He thrice gives us his definition of art, and, as far as it goes, it is an admirable one. It would be hard to state more clearly or concisely the true nature and function of all art than in his saying that "Art is the harmonic expression of human emotion." The one thing that binds all expressions of the art impulse together, the thing that *is* art, and which is fundamentally the same in all the arts, is harmony in some of its forms: order, rhythm, melody, proportion, and the like. But there is only one of the arts that is pure art. Music, and music alone, deals in these qualities of pure proportion and with nothing else. Architecture stands next to music in its independence of imitation, and perhaps is therefore called frozen music; but it is bound to construction and to utility, and its danger is degeneration into engineering. Poetry is bound to the direct expression of ideas in words—when it is too artistic it becomes melodious nonsense, and when it is not artistic enough it ceases to be poetry altogether. The dance, the drama, painting, and sculpture, are increasingly dependent upon imitation, and their special dangers are realism on the one side and neglect of nature on the other. A purely musical art of color and form, an art which should exactly conform to Mr. Stillman's definition, is indeed conceivable, but it would not be what we know as the art of painting. It would be pure decoration by means of lines and colors, with no reference to natural fact. Mr. Stillman conceives this to have been the earliest form of art, but it is doubtful if it ever really existed. The earliest attempts at art that we know are the attempts at representation of the cave-men, and the earliest known art of Egypt is not less but more realistic than that of later periods. The latest investigations tend to show that all the "geometric" designs of savages had originally some basis of representation. The truth seems to be that the art impulse—the love of harmony—has moulded the material of art into various and strange shapes; but that material has always been the representation of observed natural facts.

The only question, then, in the arts of painting and sculpture is as to what is the proper balance of the two great elements that make them up—the decorative, or strictly artistic, and the representative, or naturalistic element. This balance varies constantly with the purpose of the work of art. In the lower forms of ornamentation very little representation is allowable, while in the higher forms of decorative art a great deal may be introduced, and in the independent picture or statue there is no limit to the amount of naturalism that may be introduced, except the limit of the artist's skill in realization, and of his power to mould what he introduces into the harmonies required by art. If nature "puts him out," he is quite right to abandon the study of nature, but the fact that he is obliged to do so is a measure of his weakness. The greatest men have been those who have been able to put the most nature into the service of the highest art. Mere representation is no more art than mere sense is poetry, but the highest art can no more exist without nature-study than can poetry without sense. The nonsense picture exists as well as the nonsense verse, and Turner, for instance, came sometimes perilously near it.

It is worth observing, also, that what is ordinarily meant by "idealism"—the choice of noble and beautiful types, and the elimination of ugly or even trivial and unnecessary detail—is, after all, a matter pertaining to the subject-matter and material of art, to its representative side, and not at all to its purely artistic side; so that it does not at all follow from Mr. Stillman's definition of art, even accepted as final, that the painter should be an idealist in this sense. The art of Raphael is in the arrangement of his lines and spaces, in the "harmonic expression of his emotions," and might exist without the beauty of his personages, just as that of Rembrandt exists without regard to the ugliness of his. No greater harmonist, no greater artist, than Rembrandt ever lived, and none who more determinedly moulded nature into the forms that would express his own feeling; yet he was strangely tolerant of ugliness, and would paint the deformed body of a fat housemaid with painful veracity. He was a great poet of light and shade, and his light and shade is artistic and not natural, but his conception of form is not above that of the most grovelling of realists. It is not the choice of material for representation that marks the realist, but the absence of art in the

manner of treatment; or, rather, realist and idealist in the matter of choice may be equally artistic or equally inartistic in the matter of treatment, and a still-life painter may be, after his degree, as true an artist as Michelangelo—witness Chardin. If he composes with light and color, what matter if the light falls on a jug instead of on a woman's head? Yet Mr. Stillman's confusion of the doctrine of harmonic expression with that of "idealism" leads him to refuse to consider the still-life painter as conceivably a true artist, and to think of mere imitation as the end of still-life painting, just as it leads to his failure to perceive that "mere brush work" is not necessarily only a show of dexterity, and may have a kind of harmonic value and an artistic purpose.

Indeed, we should cease talking of realists and idealists and talk of workmen and artists. Pure art has never existed, and neither has pure imitation. All the art that has ever existed has a mixture of the two elements in varying proportions, and in the greatest art the amount of imitative truth which is fused with artistic imagination is amazing. We quite agree with Mr. Stillman in thinking that the danger of our modern painting is in its over-emphasis on realization at the expense of art, though there are not wanting signs of reaction, and we have lately had pure decoration pushed to the verge of nonsense in some of the results of the poster fad. Let us by all means preach that imitation is not art, but let us not imagine that art will be helped by ignorance. We have not studied nature too much, we have not studied it nearly enough, and we have substituted a superficial imitation for a profound knowledge. It will not revive art to shut the schools, though it is to be hoped that the schools will give better instruction than they do now. Even Mr. Watts, whom Mr. Stillman cites as "the profoundest thinker on art with whose opinions" he is conversant, idealist though he is, is obliged to enter his caveat against the extreme form which Mr. Stillman's opinions seem to take. In a note which he has written, and which Mr. Stillman prints, while accepting the general tenor of Mr. Stillman's article, he says: "When Wordsworth wrote the 'Intimations of Immortality' he never had to think of his grammar or his spelling. Such a necessity must have crippled his utterances. . . . A very considerable knowledge of, and acquaintance with, the structure of the human frame is absolutely necessary. . . . There should be no hesitation for want of knowledge; and the more elevated the intention, the more necessary that there should be no obvious violations of grammar in art." He then tells his own method of study, by occasional reference to the model to refresh his knowledge, and concludes: "I consider the painting from the model in a set position a pernicious practice, but the study of nature is another thing and cannot be dispensed with."

Mr. Stillman professes the conviction that these views "are in no wise in conflict with those I have tried to expound," and we must therefore assume that he is not really as radical in his opinions as he often seems from his utterances. Mr. Watts's opinion that the study of nature is indispensable, and that "there should be no violations of grammar in art," certainly sounds different from the praise of Turner's violation of all natural law and the implied condemnation of those moderns who are "afraid to be out of drawing." But even if Mr. Stillman is prepared to accept a good deal of study of nature in practice, his theory calls for none, and a thousand things in these essays show that he considers the innovation of the first painters who made drawings from nature for their work as of doubtful propriety, and that he thinks Fra Angelico almost the last painter who was altogether right in his practice. All he could logically admit is, that art was not yet ruined by the incursion of nature study until the time of the immediate successors of Michelangelo and Titian, though it had long been in a bad way. Probably he is *not* logical, but his theory is, we think, fundamentally incomplete. For want of considering the nature of painting and sculpture as mixed and not pure arts, he formulates a doctrine which would lead, if there were any danger of its being carried out, to the total abolition of painting and sculpture, and yet he does it in the name of a conception of the nature of art which is a thoroughly right one. He is on the right side, on the side of art against mere fact, on the side of the artist against Ruskin; but his conclusions are so extreme that there is danger of his convincing his readers of the falsity of his general position. In the name of the cause which we believe in as heartily as he does, it is necessary to show what we conceive to be his error.

THE CONSTITUTION OF 1653.—II.

History of the Commonwealth and Protectorate, 1649-1660. By Samuel Rawson Gardiner, M.A. Vol. II. 1651-1654. Longmans, Green & Co. 1897. 8vo, xxii and 503 pp.

Why did the labors of the constitution-makers of 1653 produce no permanent result? Why is the Instrument of Government forgotten even by historians, and quite unknown to the mass of the English people?

The answer to these questions lies in one sense on the surface of history. The Puritans were at best a minority of the nation; the men who wished to establish a commonwealth of any kind were a minority among the Puritans, and the authors of the Constitution of 1653 were a minority among the supporters of a Commonwealth. They were founding a Republic almost without Republicans, and, by one of those strange strokes of irony with which history abounds, the practical statesmen of the Protectorate were hated by the only faction which really desired a Republic. The Instrument of Government, which ultimately owed its existence to the *coup d'état* by which Cromwell dissolved the Long Parliament, was at least as hateful to the Commonwealth's men as to the adherents of the ancient monarchy. Nor can we suppose that the enthusiasts who expected the renovation of the country from the nominated Parliament could look with genuine approval on the act of statecraft by which the representatives of the most energetic among the revolutionists were induced to surrender their authority into the hands of Cromwell.

The truth appears to be, that while the men who might reasonably have supported the Constitution of 1653 were alarmed, not without cause, at the immense powers conferred upon the Protector and the possibility of a military despotism, the great body of the people were disappointed at discovering that Cromwell would neither restore the monarchy nor himself take the place of an English king. Students of history may probably be of opinion, though this (we must add) is not the conclusion towards which Mr. Gardiner inclines, that Cromwell pretty well understood the wishes of the nation, and would, had his life lasted, have ultimately assumed the crown. It is at any rate clear that every political change during the Protectorate tended towards an approximation to the old monarchical system of government. However this may be, the fact is clear that the Constitution of 1653 could, from the first, command but a very limited amount of popular support.

If proof of this were wanting, it might be found in an event which immediately followed the death of Cromwell. The Parliament summoned by Richard was, indeed, a Parliament of the United Commonwealth, but it was elected—in England, at any rate—by the old Parliamentary constituencies. The reform of Parliament (to use modern expressions), which constitutes to modern critics one of the best features of the Instrument of Government, was quietly but of set purpose ignored. Nor should it be forgotten that the Constitution of 1653 was, even during the Protectorate, so profoundly modified that we can hardly say how far it ought to be considered as still existing at the death of Cromwell; and if it were necessary to find further general causes for the failure of the premature attempt to endow England with a more or less Republican Constitution, there is no difficulty in their discovery. It may be noted, for example, that the revolution in the Parliamentary institutions of England was practically unaccompanied by any corresponding change in the subordinate or the local institutions of the country. The law courts, the judges, the sheriffs, and the magistrates continued pretty much the same during the Protectorate that they had been when James or Charles was on the throne. Hence there was an utter incongruity between the system of the central government established in London and the scheme of administrative government which continued to exist throughout the country. Some practical steps may have been taken to keep authority as far as possible in the hands of men who favored the Protectorate; but the administrative business of the country was, in spite of large exclusions from electoral rights, intrusted to men who at best acquiesced in, if they were not absolutely hostile to, the new form of government.

To all this we must add one consideration of supreme importance. The Puritan constitutionalists, the men who in a certain sense accepted the Instrument of Government, showed just that want of statesmanship which in times of revolution renders abortive the action of the honest friends of freedom. Their object was presumably to preserve the advantages gained by the Civil War; the risk was obvious that all the fruits of the struggle might be lost by a reaction ending in a restoration. It is certain that Cromwell was no ordinary tyrant, and that he had no wish to rule without a Parliament. It was equally plain that there existed in the whole country no man qualified to take Oliver's place, and that he alone had the authority necessary for controlling the army and averting a military despotism. Under these circumstances every man who sin-

cerely wished to maintain English freedom and to avert the restoration of the Stuarts, ought, one would naturally think, to have stood by the Protector and have supported him in his efforts to found a government which should insure to the country at once the permanence of parliamentary institutions and a system of religious toleration; and the way to support the Protector was to accept loyally the Instrument of Government. But this is exactly what the Parliamentarians of the Commonwealth declined to do. They condemned the transactions which had given birth to the Constitution of 1653; they entertained a profound and a not unreasonable but a most unfortunate distrust of Cromwell. For the failure of the Constitution of 1653 a great share of our blame ought to rest upon Cromwell, but almost if not quite an equal share falls upon the Parliamentarians of the Commonwealth, whose policy can be traced with some certainty in the Constitutional Bill published by Mr. Gardiner in his 'Documents of the Puritan Revolution.'

But the very admission that the politicians who were prepared so far to accept the Instrument of Government as to take in hand its amendment and leave the Protectorate in the hands of Cromwell, could not see their way to accept unaltered the Constitution of 1653, of itself suggests the inquiry, What was it in the character of the Instrument which made it unacceptable to men who were not reactionists, and who were willing to attempt at any rate the formation of a free Commonwealth with Cromwell for Protector?

The answer to this question is worth giving, and in effect supplies part of the reply to the inquiry with which this article commences. The immediate cause of the breach between Cromwell and the Parliamentarians who drafted the Constitutional Bill was apparently the desire on their part to prevent the establishment of a large standing army. But though the Parliamentarians may not themselves have fully realized the true reasons of their instinctive opposition to the Instrument of Government, critics who scan the subsequent course of English history ought to recognize the fact that the Constitution of 1653, with all its merits—and they were very great—was not in any true sense an anticipation of parliamentary government as it has been ultimately developed in England. By a singular fatality the Puritans, in their constitutional ideas as in many other things, "missed their mark," to use an expression of J. R. Green's. The constitution-makers of 1653 formed a polity which might have suited other countries, but which was not the kind of polity that was ultimately found to suit the English people. The fundamental differences between the constitutionalism of 1653 and the constitutionalism which owes its existence to the Revolution of 1688, are marked, though they have hardly received sufficient notice.

The idea which underlies the whole Instrument of Government is the desirability of combining a powerful executive with a purely legislative Parliament. The Council, as already pointed out, was intended to be as powerful a body as was compatible with the coexistence of a real legislature and the preservation of that personal freedom, secured by the supremacy of law, which has been the ideal of all English patriots. One cannot insist too much upon the consideration that the Council was not, and was not intended to be, anything like a modern cabinet. It was to be a body depending upon resources of its own. It occupied under the Constitution a position coördinate with the Legislature; it was a permanent body subject only to the most gradual change; it elected successive Protectors; it must, almost of necessity, have become the most powerful body in the state. It is likely that the authors of the Constitution thought they were doing little more than restoring and reinvigorating the Privy Council of the monarchy. It is also not unlikely that they may have been influenced by notions derived from the system existing in Holland; the United Provinces were, in the middle of the seventeenth century, the most successful of free States. Their institutions exerted over the reformers of other countries the sort of influence which, in the seventeenth century, was exercised by the Constitution of England, and during part of the nineteenth century by the Constitution of the United States. However this may be, government by a permanent, powerful, and almost self-electing Council is not a form of administration which has ever taken permanent root in England. Then, again, the Legislature was a law-making body, it was not a sovereign parliament; it was neither the creator nor the controller of the executive.

From one point of view, indeed, the statesmen of the Commonwealth anticipated ideas which have been developed in the United States. The relation under the Constitution of 1653 between the Council and the Parliament has some affinity to the relation between the President and Congress. Yet this parallel must not be pressed too far. The likeness lies in the President being an authority coordinate with the Legislature, and in Congress being simply an organ of legislation. But the Presidency has none of the permanence of the Cromwellian Council: and the Senate, which has an element of relative permanence, does not appoint the head of the executive, and seats in the Senate are not filled up by coöptation. The true parallel to the system which the reformers of 1653 meant to found is to be discovered not in America, but in Germany. Modern German constitutionalists have, under the influence of Prussian ideas, created both in Prussia and in the Empire a polity in which an executive of all but overpowering authority is to a certain extent checked, though by no means balanced, by the rights of representative Assemblies which can make or repeal laws, but can neither appoint the Government nor control its action. The Cromwellian ideal, if we may assume that the Instrument of Government represented the constitutional notions of Cromwell and his immediate adherents, has been realized, not by Washington, but by Bismarck.

The reform, indeed, of Parliament seems at first sight to forestall the Reform Bill of 1832. Yet here, too, the essential difference is much greater than the superficial resemblance. The reformers of 1653 changed the centre of electoral power. The country was to become predominant over the towns, and the rule of the country would have meant the supremacy of the small independent landowners. The idea of basing the Constitution of England upon the support of what may popularly, though not quite accurately, be termed the yeomen and freeholders, possessed obvious recommendations and has fascinated many patriotic statesmen; but it was based on a wrong forecast of the development of English society. It was hardly compatible with the authority of the great landowners and of the wealthy merchants which saved the freedom and developed the power of England during the eighteenth century. It in no way met the unexpected growth of manufacturing industries in the north of England, which at bottom necessitated the reform of 1832.

In their conceptions of toleration, if anywhere, the constitutionalists of 1653 provided for the needs of the coming time. Cromwell, at any rate, and (we may assume) many others besides Cromwell, saw with more or less distinctness that freedom of conscience and liberty in matters of religion neded recognition, and that nothing short of wide toleration could give peace or prosperity to the state. Yet, though the Cromwellians must have the credit of having been, in the matter of religious liberty, in advance of their age, it is worth notice that, even in the matter of toleration, the Constitution of 1653 did not adopt anything like the method by which religious freedom, and in the long run the very fullest liberty of discussion, have been established in England. The Constitution, indeed, abolished every kind of penalty for non-conformity to the religious observances supported by the state; and whoever reflects upon all that was meant in the seventeenth century by this absolute prohibition of all active persecution must own that the Cromwellian statesmen made a step in advance on the road of progress and civilization which ought to insure to them everlasting respect. Let it further be noted that, in the matter of toleration, the Parliamentarians who wished to amend the Instrument fell far short of the liberal ideas entertained by Cromwell. Yet here again the statesmanship of 1653 failed to adopt the means which experience has shown were in fact best adapted for the securing of toleration. A passage in Macaulay's History sets forth the characteristics of the Toleration Act, and, in words too well known and too long for citation, insists that it "most strikingly illustrates the peculiar vices and the peculiar excellences of English legislation." The vices may be summed up in the statement that the Toleration Act does not lay down a single principle of toleration. The excellences may be broadly summarized by the statement that the Toleration Act, by a number of apparently petty enactments, whose meaning even a lawyer finds it difficult to master, made active intolerance or persecution all but impossible. By this policy of theoretical intolerance combined with practical toleration, the Whigs opened the era of perfect religious freedom. But this was not the policy of the statesmen of 1653. They laid down broad principles of toleration which were not wide enough to satisfy the principle of freedom, and yet alarmed moderate Englishmen by threatening to introduce an era of religious anarchy. The course of subsequent history does not make it possible to assert that the Puritan policy might not have succeeded, but we may say that it was exposed to every chance of failure. It irritated the Church of England, and seemed, at any rate, to deny freedom of worship to all Prelatists—that is, if we construe the term strictly, to believers in the creed which has permanently satisfied the mass of the English people; it alarmed moderate men, and at the same time threat-

ened Freethinkers or Socinians with possible intolerance.

It is interesting to conjecture what would have been the result as regards religious freedom in England of the continued existence of the Constitution of 1653. Orthodox Protestants, including in that term any man whom we should now call a Low Churchman, would probably have enjoyed perfect religious freedom. Roman Catholics, High Churchmen, Quakers, Unitarians, Freethinkers—any class, in short, whose avowed creed deviated from the predominant orthodox Protestantism of the country—would, we may suppose, have held their right to the profession of their faith and the exercise of their religion by a precarious tenure. The great majority of the nation would, under these circumstances, have found nothing to complain of, but this very fact would have made the gradual extension of toleration, by which freedom of thought, worship, and discussion has been at last secured for the most unpopular of sects, all but an impossibility. Here, too, the statesmanship of Puritanism missed its mark.

The Story of Gladstone's Life. By Justin McCarthy. Macmillan. 1897.

The story of Gladstone's life is a more than twice-told tale. Within less than three years, at least two Lives of him have been noticed in these columns, and we know not how many more have escaped our attention. Undoubtedly several elaborate biographies are awaiting the inevitable hour, and, when it shall have arrived, there will be a deluge of Gladstonian literature which will probably exceed in volume and duration all previous obituary floods. Sooth to say, it is not altogether reasonable that some hundreds of thousands of readers whose lives have terminated or will terminate before Mr. Gladstone's should go unprovided with systematic information about his career merely because of its prodigious duration; and in Mr. McCarthy's case there is perhaps especial reason why he should not delay to offer a tribute which he is so well qualified to prepare.

It is not unworthy of attention that almost forty years ago Mr. Bagehot was moved to publish a critical estimate of Gladstone. He was writing, in the *National Review*, essays on several departed statesmen—Pitt, Bolingbroke, Brougham, and others—and he could not resist the temptation to characterize a living hero. He excuses himself by saying that *some* deliberate truth must be spoken of our statesmen; and as it is not to be expected of the newspapers that they should fulfil this function, it falls to the quarterly review. Of course Mr. Bagehot offered this explanation with a twinkle in his eye; his reason for writing was because the man interested him, and he begins his essay by calling Gladstone a problem. The problem fascinated him, and he offered a fascinating solution of it. Even now, although Bagehot wrote in 1860, we doubt if any more delicate appreciation, any more accurate analysis of Gladstone's nature and career, is in existence. We even doubt if any will be; for Mr. Bagehot's equal as a judge—a genuine connoisseur—of statesmanship is not to be found among us. He took as his text the exclamation of an old Whig who did not approve of Gladstone's budget of 1860, although he had to vote for it: "Ah, Oxford on the surface, *but* Liverpool below." With this text he discourses on the conflicting tendencies of scholastic and commercial life, and certainly suggests many plausible explanations of some of the contrarieties in Mr. Gladstone's course.

But we must not be tempted longer by Mr. Bagehot, although we advise whoever would understand Mr. Gladstone to read him. Mr. McCarthy's book is still before us, and deserves attention. It is beautifully printed and splendidly bound. It is adorned with many excellent reproductions of fine portraits. There are not a few of Mr. Gladstone at different ages, and indeed nearly every man of distinction whose name is mentioned in the text has his likeness presented to us. Mr. McCarthy is master of an easy and flowing style; it is pleasant to follow his narrative. His matter is well arranged, and he leads us through the events of sixty years with much skill. Like an experienced cicerone, he pauses at the right places, and tells us the particulars which tourists and sightseers are expected to memorize. He has himself been present on many of the occasions which he describes, and we have the benefit of his own direct observation. It need hardly be said that he is an ardent admirer of Gladstone. He might almost be called one of his intimate friends, and he has certainly been associated with him in Parliament for a generation. Such being the conditions, a writer of Mr. McCarthy's gifts could hardly fail to produce an interesting book. With such a subject even an inferior writer could not be altogether unsuccessful.

Yet the book will seem to many readers superficial. It will serve admirably to adorn a parlor table; even to give the "general reader" a fair idea of the course of public affairs in England during the last half-century, and of Gladstone's part in them. It does not fail to point out the changes that have taken place in the attitude of the great statesman, or to offer explanations of all these changes. But these explanations are not very satisfactory; they compare very unfavorably with Mr. Bagehot's acute observations. In fact, we have read in the newspapers nearly all that Mr. McCarthy has to say, and his writing is not much above the level of good newspaper description. When it comes to home rule for Ireland he is able to speak with special authority, and this is perhaps the most valuable and the most interesting part of his book. But on the whole we lay it down with a feeling of disappointment. The subject seems to demand special qualifications in him who attempts it; different abilities from those of Mr. McCarthy. It still awaits the hand of some consummate biographer, and should such a one appear, a great book will certainly enrich our English literature.

A Memoir of Anne Jemima Clough. By B. A. Clough. Edward Arnold.

American women who studied at the elder Cambridge before the death of Miss Clough in 1895, received from the mere fact of her gracious old age a sense of historical perspective in connection with the movement for the higher education of women. That movement has been one of storm and stress; it has been carried on for the most part by the restless energy of youth; its disciples are trained to consider its accomplishment as nothing in comparison with what is left to do. In contrast with all this ferment, Miss Clough's personality arrested the attention by the impression it gave of actual attainment. Energy she had in plenty, but it was the patient energy of age. It was difficult to believe that her college did not rest on as ancient a foundation as its masculine neighbors, so strongly did she mark it with the air of permanence. Her niece, in preparing the present memoir, has told incidentally the story of the evolution of the women's college in England, and shown what good reason Miss Clough had for adorning her last years with the suavity of success.

Anne Jemima Clough was born in Liverpool in 1820. When she was two years old her father removed his family to Charleston, South Carolina, and did not bring them back to live in England till 1836. For the next sixteen years Anne's life was that of the ordinary middle-class young Englishwoman. The history of these years shows the leaven of her strong sense and generous heart working in the lump of a Philistine environment. She kept a *journal intime* during this period which would certainly not have "sent her papa to Uganda." She chronicles her success and failures in the teaching of children, which she early undertook, the vivid pleasure of walks and talks with her brother Arthur, her reprehensible tendency to wandering thoughts of love and marriage when she should have been at her 'Euclid,' and the timid mooting of such questions as "the necessity, or rather great benefit, of women finding work, and considering it a duty to do so, and also whether they are at liberty to choose their own paths in some cases (I mean single women) without reference to their families."

In 1852, after her father's death and Arthur Clough's removal to London had left Miss Clough with the sole charge of her mother, the two ladies resolved to make their home at Ambleside—the unsophisticated Ambleside, which as yet knew not the shrine-seeker. Here Miss Clough opened her school for the girls of the neighborhood, which defied pedagogic theory and won the loving adhesion and lasting gratitude of the scholars. In 1860 Mrs. Clough died, and Arthur Clough in 1861. Miss Clough's health suffered from the successive shocks; by the doctor's advice she gave up her school and home at Ambleside, and came out into the world and into contact with the new ideas which she was destined to assimilate and modify.

The history of the educational movement which culminated in the establishment of Girton and Newnham may be instructively compared with the course of events in this country. In England the primary object was the opening to women of the established universities; in this country it was the foundation of isolated colleges for women. The comparative weakness and unimportance of our colleges for men thirty-five years ago no doubt went far to rob of its audacity the notion of duplicating them for women. But it is noticeable that the notion has not flourished in communities dominated by powerful and well-established universities, and also, as has been recently said, that it has apparently been checked in this country by the growth of the university idea with its doctrine of centralization, for the three most recent American colleges for women are all of the affiliated type. In England there was no discussion of the a-priori fitness of women to profit by a sys-

tem of training devised for men. On the contrary, they were favored by the popularizing impulse within the universities which sought to bring the soundest instruction within the reach of the humblest minds, of the workingman on the one hand and of the school-girl on the other. In the one case the impulse gave rise to university extension; in the other, as the girls responded more and more satisfactorily to academic requirements, to the colleges for women. Some of the best ability in Cambridge was given to the struggling cause. In the first list of lectures for women in Cambridge (in 1870) there were advertised courses in English history by Prof. Maurice, in English literature by Mr. Skeat, and in algebra and arithmetic by Prof. Cayley. Christ's College, which was the first to admit women to its lecture-rooms, was driven to do so by the fact that its undergraduates asked leave to attend a course on Macedonian history given by Prof. Jebb to the women students in a room hired for the purpose. The scene of the lectures was shifted to Christ's, and men and women were admitted on equal terms. Besides labor, many members of the university gave financial aid, Mr. Henry Sidgwick being a foremost benefactor in both kinds.

Miss Clough's part in all this progress was very important. She was not primarily an originator of large ideas, or an expositor of doctrine. Her power of expression was defective, and she had not always valid reasons for the faith that was in her. But she had unbounded good sense, and enthusiasm that burned without flickering, and the gift of conciliation. She never forgot that it is almost as important for the social innovator to be agreeable as to be right. When Newnham College was organized in 1871, Miss Clough became principal, and held the office until her death. Miss Athena Clough, the author of the memoir, was her aunt's secretary for several years at Newnham. She had the assistance, in noting and estimating the traits of the elder woman, of the candid criticism of successive generations of undergraduates. The last chapters of the book are written with dexterity and lightness of touch; sympathy is blent with candor, and the result is a convincing presentation. The frontispiece of the volume is a reproduction of Mrs. F. W. H. Myers's excellent photograph of Miss Clough. By an odd blunder on the title-page the title of "Late Principal of Newnham College" is given to the author instead of to the subject of the memoir.

A Bibliography of British Municipal History. By Charles Gross, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of History in Harvard University. [Harvard Historical Studies, Vol. V.] Longmans. 1897.

It is a question worth considering how it comes about that the best books concerning one country are so often written by the men of another. Germany owes the biographies of three of its greatest men—of Frederick the Great, of Goethe, and of Stein—to English pens: from a Frenchman and an Englishman have come the two most noteworthy expositions of the American political system. On the other hand, England has to turn to German scholars for critical editions of her early laws, and to French observers for the most reliable accounts of her present industrial life. Frequently the explanation is to be found in the fact that phenomena which natives take for granted have for outsiders the keen interest of examples to be followed or warnings to be observed. But sometimes apparently no far-reaching explanation is discoverable; it has merely chanced that an able foreigner has turned his attention in a particular direction.

The work of Prof. Gross of Harvard is a striking instance of the sort of thing we have in mind. In his book on the 'Gild Merchant,' published in 1890, Prof. Gross revealed one whole phase in the history of the mediæval town life of England which had hitherto hardly been perceived; and, what was more, took up the task of investigating English municipal history to all intents and purposes at the point where it had been dropped by Madox more than a century and a half before. Other scholars have since thrown themselves with ardor into the field, notably the veteran Prof. Hegel and the brilliant Prof. Maitland; but it must not be forgotten that Dr. Gross was here the pioneer. And now, seven years after, the 'Bibliography of British Municipal History'—for which, it is no secret, he has long been waiting for a generous publisher—is given to the world by the Torrey Fund among the 'Harvard Historical Studies.' As one turns over its 461 pages, with its careful classification, its more than 3,000 entries, its model index, the imagination aches at the thought of the dreary and weary labor it has involved. But now here it is, with absolutely nothing to compare with it—or even to mention in connection with it—among previously existing bibliographies on the subject.

It is as complete a survey as anybody, save a Methuselah and a Crœsus rolled into one, can ever hope to produce. Everything has been done to make smooth the path of the future investigator. For instance, not content to enter 'Reports of the Royal Commission on Historical Manuscripts,' Prof. Gross gives a page of references (p. 12) to the precise place in one or other of its sixty volumes devoted to each of seventy-four towns arranged alphabetically. Rymer's 'Foedera' (p. 23), the 'Rotuli Chartarum' (p. 25), the 'Rotuli Parliamentorum' (p. 26), a dozen volumes of seventeenth-century law reports, and, indeed, all the other considerable repositories of information, are laboriously indexed in like manner. And when we reach Part II., given up to modern histories of particular towns, we find just the one word here and there as to the relative value of this and that, that will set the investigator on the right road at the very outset. It is a book that every inquirer into British municipal history for the next half-century will have continually at his elbow as a matter of course.

And yet, in preparing this work, Prof. Gross has had apparently no thought whatever of the municipal problems of the day. He does not take the opportunity to hold up English municipalities as models for America; and Lord Salisbury would consult his pages in vain for hints how to treat the London County Council. As far as is humanly possible, his interest has been purely "scientific." But even here we are able to trace certain historical antecedents. One may go so far as to say that, but for the Hanoverian Succession, a Harvard professor would never have produced this book. For, but for the Hanoverian Succession, Göttingen would not have become the special centre in Germany for the study of English history, and Dr. Gross would never have received from his master, Reinhold Pauli, the stimulus which has led to such solid performances.

Le Creature Sovrane. Da Adolfo Padovan. Milan. 1898. Pp. 300.

It is a fine thing to be young, to have high hopes and no doubts as to the future, to be sustained by a profound confidence in one's self, unshaken as yet by bitter and wholesome experience. And when the youth comes boldly forth with his little book, the captious graybeard smiles indulgently, seduced by so much freshness, touched by an evocation of "the days that are no more." And yet the book may be a very bad one; indeed, it often is; and whether good, bad, or indifferent, the critic is bound to express his honest opinion, whatever the cost to his feelings. Such at least is his excuse for plain speaking. It is therefore a pleasure when, as in the present case, he can truthfully say that the book is not so bad as it might be. It can be opened at random and read with a certain mild interest, since we are all curious about the lives of great men; and a collection of anecdotes and facts about them collected by a writer of culture, and recounted in smoothly flowing periods, may always occupy one of those half-hours that we give on occasion to the best authors. Sig. Padovan thinks, indeed, that he has given us more than mere stories; he has bound these together by a sort of natural history of the man of genius, or what he means to be such. Perhaps he will recognize the inadequacy of his performance when he is older.

He believes in heroes, but his worship is as water—yea, as milk and water unto wine—when compared with the fervor of Carlyle; and he sets out to supplement Lombroso, though he ends having demonstrated nothing, while his faith does not illuminate the horizon with its fires, but burns the modest dip before an image palpably graven, never of flesh and blood. He also believes that the genius has much more of sorrow than of joy in his life, but that his rare pleasures are, in proportion to his intelligence, greater than those of ordinary mortals. This may all be true, though the simple statement of it does not necessarily carry with it conviction. It may also be objected to the next article of his faith that pride—by which he sometimes means mere vanity, and sometimes a proper sense of the value of his work, quite consistent with personal modesty—is by no means confined to men of genius, nor is short life. The majority of mankind, even of the stupid, die young. The chapter on "Shipwrecks" is a puzzling one. *E. g.*, Perin del Vaga is declared a shipwreck because posterity, not accepting his estimate of himself, places him below Raphael. They, too, made shipwreck who, while preparing the way for the great discoveries of science, did not achieve these themselves. Such failures, however, our author allows, are useful and, indeed, necessary. His last chapter is devoted to genius in the future; in it, with a courage which is of his years, but is scarcely of discretion, he gives himself freely to prophecy. It will gratify many to be told that the triumphs of the future are reserved for science rather than for art; but, outside of his own country, he will hardly find universal credence for his assertion that the land of these great men will be Italy. Still,

one cannot be sure that events will not justify his prediction.

The flowing style has a majesty—we are far from calling it a strut, even to ourselves—better adapted to the vaticinations of the seer than to the platitudes it too frequently embodies. The following passage from the chapter on "Death" is neither of the worst nor of the best:

"Io ti guido ora, lettore, nel regno tenebroso dove la Morte compie le sue stragi; tu udrai nuove voci, vedrai cose non vedute mai, e potrai cogliere in quel magico giardino qualche magnifico fiore solitario"—

which we translate, at the risk of spoiling what sense it has, as well as its melody:

"I now lead thee, reader, to the dusky realm where Death slays his thousands; thou shalt hear unknown voices, thou shalt see things never yet seen, and canst pluck flowers in that magic garden splendid in their loneliness."

Happily the author does not fulfil his promise, but simply goes on in his grand manner recounting his anecdotes and retailing his commonplaces, at once solemn and amusing. Sig. Padovan always takes himself seriously, and among his convictions he records one (p. 234) that his book will not fall into oblivion. We trust he may never lose this comforting belief, and that he will always keep the nameless something which makes us feel kindly toward him, and hope that next time he may do something more worthy of himself.

Old Virginia and her Neighbors. By John Fiske. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

These volumes, though in one sense parts of a series, coming in between the author's 'Discovery of America' and his 'Beginnings of New England,' yet deal with a part of history that can be studied by itself as a sequence of causes and effects. After the destruction of Spain's overwhelming naval power by the almost miraculous catastrophe of 1588, there rushed into English minds the possibility of snatching the sovereignty of the seas, and the determination to do it. If Spain had planted and fortified herself along the coast of America from St. Augustine southward, might not Englishmen do the same further north? If the mines of Mexico and Peru had furnished the sinews of war to Charles and Philip, might not Englishmen hope to find similar sources of supply? The very names of the promoters of the first Virginia settlement show their designs and hopes, as the sagacious and alarmed Philip well understood.

But bitter experience taught the colonists their mistake, and Virginia became a plantation instead of a base of naval operations and a mining camp. From Virginia sprang Maryland, inheriting the peaceful plantation policy; and the Carolinas, and, later, Georgia, inheriting the military traditions of frontier outposts against the Spaniard; and thus these provinces, as illustrating special and consecutive phases of one movement, may be studied together. So the author closes the narrative, not with the American Revolution, but at the time when France, which (and not Spain) was now the arch-enemy, extending her cordon of posts west of the Alleghanies from the St. Lawrence to the Gulf, and threatening all the English colonists alike, aroused them to the necessity of combined action against the common danger, and awakened the feeling of essential unity, or what Prof. Fiske calls "the continental idea."

To some readers the broad philosophical view which traces effects to causes and shows the successive stages in the advance of human progress, is the chief attraction of history; others delight in stirring incidents, vivacious narrative, and graphic details. Neither class will be disappointed in these interesting volumes. Prof. Fiske stoutly stands up for our boyhood's hero, Capt. John Smith, his three Turks' heads, his Lady Tragabigzanda, and his rescue by Pocahontas. The present reviewer, though strongly of opinion that (to put it delicately) a rigid herald might have insisted on Smith's adding a point sanguine to the blazon granted by Prince Sigismund, is yet glad to find his veracity so courageously championed by Prof. Fiske, partly because one hates to lose any romantic trait in so picturesque a figure, but chiefly because his map of the Chesapeake Bay and its shores is in itself a wonder that makes any other achievement credible.

The story of Virginia, through all its disasters down to the revocation of the charter and its reorganization as a royal colony, is rapidly but clearly told. Particularly suggestive is the account of the first American Colonial Legislature, which seems partly to have resembled a parish vestry and partly a Scottish kirk-session. They looked sharply after the minor morals, taxed husbands whose wives went too finely dressed, and enacted that whatever man or woman should be found guilty of "using words tending to a contract of marriage to two several persons at one time"—in modern phrase, flirtation—should receive corporal correction at the whipping-post. They should have defined more clearly what words did, and what did not, tend to a contract of marriage; or a gallant, for a compliment that would have won him smiles at Whitehall, might find himself summarily triced up for correction.

The interesting, though somewhat uneventful, history of Maryland is told with sufficient fulness, and the peculiar character of its palatinate government explained by an analysis of that of the bishopric of Durham, which was its model. The characters of George and Cecilius Calvert are treated with discriminating appreciation. On one point here we should have been glad of a reference to the writer's authority. He says (vol. i., p. 309), in reference to the "Act concerning Religion" of 1649: "This famous statute, commonly known as the Toleration Act, was drawn up by Cecilius himself, and passed the Assembly exactly as it came from him, without amendment." That it embodied his consistent policy, and, in the main, reflected his views, cannot be doubted; but that he himself drew it up in those very words would be extremely questionable unless supported by unimpeachable authority. Knowing Prof. Fiske's scrupulous accuracy, the present reviewer cannot doubt his possession of such authority, and only regrets that he has withheld it from his readers.

Having followed down the story of Maryland to the reëstablishment of the Proprietary Government in 1658, the author takes us back to Virginia, now the Virginia of the Cavaliers. A chapter is given to Bacon's rebellion, which is justly characterized as "the first serious and ominous tragedy in the history of the United States, a story preserved for us in many of its details with striking vividness, yet concerning the innermost significance of which we would fain know more than we do. It may fairly be pronounced the most interesting episode in our early history." Its deep significance lies in its being the first violent upheaving of underground forces which were to become volcanic in the next century. In Maryland it produced so powerful an impression as to add a word to the language: for a long time persons suspected of stirring up disaffection against the ruling powers were stigmatized as "Baconists." With Prof. Fiske's usual fairness, Bacon is shown us neither as a vaporing demagogue nor as a second Hampden, but as one who injured a good cause by rashness and hot temper. Nor was Berkeley a mere truculent tyrant and butcher. It was the fate of these two courageous men that neither could understand the other nor his motives.

Referring to the charge of felony brought against Frederick, Sixth Lord Baltimore, Prof. Fiske says that he was acquitted "on a mere technicality." The official report of the trial shows that there was no technicality in the matter. He was acquitted because the jury did not believe the principal witness, and there can be no reasonable doubt that the verdict was just. Frederick was certainly not a moral man, but that is no reason why he should be painted blacker than he was.

One of the most entertaining chapters in these volumes is that devoted to the buccaneers and pirates. They and the colonies both sprang from the same root—the hostility to Spain. Drake and Raleigh begat Dampier and Rogers, and these begat Morgan and Kidd. These latter found in the peculiar conformation of the Carolina coast, with its guarding reefs and its intricate land-locked harbors, an excellent refuge; and their ill-gotten booty, cheaply sold or lavishly squandered, prevented the Carolinians from inquiring too curiously how or where it was acquired. "For at least thirty years after the founding of Carolina, nearly all the currency in the colony consisted of Spanish gold and silver brought in by freebooters." But when the pirates were so unwise as to turn against their friendly hosts, and the swaggering Blackbeard held Charleston itself to ransom, a new light as to the iniquity of piracy dawned upon the Carolinians. Ere many weeks had elapsed, Kidd was sent to finish his career at Execution Dock, and Blackbeard's shaggy head was hanging from the bowsprit of a Virginia cruiser.

Mr. Fiske, knowing that he studies the past to little purpose who does not draw from it some lessons for the present, occasionally points a very opportune moral. Thus, after praising that excellent institution and school of freemen, the town meeting, he adds:

"Under this form of government people are not so liable to bewildering delusions as under other forms. I refer especially to the delusion that 'the Government' is a sort of mysterious power, possessed of a magic inexhaustible fund of wealth, and able to do all manner of things for the benefit of 'the People.' Some such notion as this, more often implied than expressed, is very common, and it is inexpressibly dear to demagogues. It is the prolific root from which springs that luxuriant crop of humbug upon which political tricksters thrive as pigs fatten upon corn. In point of fact, no such government, armed with a magic fund of its own, has ever existed upon earth. No gov-

ernment has ever yet used any money for public purposes which it did not first take from its own people—unless when it may have plundered it from some other people in victorious warfare."

And again, apropos of the Navigation Act:

"Crude mediæval methods of robbery began to give place to the ingenious modern methods in which men's pockets are picked under the specious guise of public policy. Your mediæval baron would allow no ship or boat to pass his Rhenish castle without paying what he saw fit to extort for the privilege, and at the end of his evil career he was apt to compound with conscience and buy a ticket to heaven by building a chapel to the Virgin. Your modern manufacturer obtains legislative aid in fleecing his fellow-countrymen, while he seeks popularity by bestowing upon the public a part of his ill-gotten gains in the shape of a new college or a town library."

There are some to whom these will seem hard sayings.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Addleshaw, Percy. The Cathedral Church of Exeter. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. 60c.
André, R. Colonel Bogey's Sketch-Book. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Anstey, F. The Tinted Venus: A Farcical Romance. Harpers.
Bates, Prof. Katharine L. American Literature. Macmillan. $1.50.
Berger, A. C. Luther. [Geisterhelden.] Berlin: Ernst Hofmann & Co.; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Channing, F. A. The Truth about Agricultural Depression. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Cheyne, Prof. T. K. The Book of the Prophet Isaiah. [Polychrome Bible.] Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50.
Lutoslawski, Wincenty. The Origin and Growth of Plato's Logic. Longmans. $6.00.
Moireau, M. A. La Guerre de l'Indépendance en Amérique. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Nicholson, Prof. J. S. Principles of Political Economy. Vol. ii., Book iii. Macmillan. $2.25.
Peloubet, Rev. F. N. Suggestive Illustrations on the Gospel of Matthew. E. R. Herrick & Co. $1.25.
Sanders, E. K. For Prince and People: A Tale of Old Genoa. Macmillan. $1.75.
Smith, W. G. Life and Letters of Thomas Kilby Smith, Brevet Major-General U. S. Volunteers. 1820-1887. Putnams. $2.50.
Sturges, Beatrice. Beautiful Women of the Poets. E. R. Herrick & Co. $1.25.
"The Living Age." Oct.-Dec., 1897. Boston: Living Age Co.
"The New World." Vol. V. 1897. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Warner, Francis. The Study of Children and Their School Training. Macmillan. $1.
Waterloo, Stanley. A Man and a Woman. New ed. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Wellhausen, Prof. J. The Book of Psalms [Polychrome Bible.] Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50.
Willmott, Prof. A. B. The Mineral Wealth of Canada. Toronto: William Briggs.

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Old Insurances revived and increased, 1897	699	2,007,825
Totals	364,192	$964,380,267
Deduct Terminations: By Death, Maturity, Surrender, Expiry, &c.	31,234	87,359,342
In Force December 31st, 1897	332,958	$877,020,925
Gain in 1897	33,173	50,204,277
New Applications Declined in 1897	9,310	25,020,936

COMPARISON FOR SIX YEARS. 1891-1897.

	Dec. 31st, 1891.	Dec. 31st, 1897.	Gain in Six Years.
Assets	$125,947,290	$200,694,440	$74,747,150
Income	31,854,194	41,793,084	9,938,890
Dividends of Year to Policy-Holders	1,260,340	2,434,981	1,174,641
Number of Policy-Holders	182,803	332,958	150,155
Insurance in force, premiums paid	$575,689,649	$877,020,925	$301,331,276

CERTIFICATE OF SUPERINTENDENT OF STATE OF NEW YORK INSURANCE DEPARTMENT

ALBANY, January 6th, 1898.—I, LOUIS F. PAYN, Superintendent of Insurance of the State of New York, do hereby certify that the NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY, of the City of New York, in the State of New York, is duly authorized to transact the business of Life Insurance in this State.

I FURTHER CERTIFY that, in accordance with the provisions of Section Eighty four of the insurance law of the State of New York, I have caused the policy obligations of the said Company, outstanding on the 31st day of December, 1897, to be valued as per the Combined Experience Table of Mortality, at four per cent. interest, and I certify the same to be $164,956,079.

I FURTHER CERTIFY that the admitted assets are

$200,694,440.89.

The general liabilities $2,366,330.49. The Net Policy Reserve as calculated by this department

$164,956,079.00.

The Surplus Reserve Fund voluntarily set aside by the company, which, added to the Department Policy Valuation, provides a liability equivalent to a three per cent. reserve on all policies,

$16,195,926.00.

The net surplus (excluding the Surplus Reserved Fund of $16,195,926),

$17,176,105.40.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, I have hereunto subscribed my name and caused my official seal to be affixed at the City of Albany the day and year first above written.

LOUIS F. PAYN, Superintendent of Insurance.

ston Public Librar

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INCOME IN 1897.		DISBURSEMENTS IN 1897.	
Premiums,	$1,646,442.16	Total Payments to Policy-holders,	$1,014,275.62
Interest, Rents and other Receipts,	460,856 60	Other Disbursements,	543,708.49
Total,	$2,107,298.76	Total,	$1,557,984.11

ASSETS admitted by the Insurance Department State of New York, $9,958,216.86

LIABILITIES:		
Value of outstanding insurance,	$8,279,932.00	
Value of Dividend Endowment Accumulations (deferred dividends)	424,549 00	
Other Liabilities,	145,331.37	$8,849,812.37

SURPLUS on basis of Assets admitted by the New York Insurance Department, $1,108,404,49

INSURANCE IN FORCE, $43,443,047.00

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 20, 1898.

The Week.

While the Senate considers in secret session the treaty for annexing Hawaii, it discusses in open session the question of restricting immigration. The measure is practically the same that was vetoed by President Cleveland at the last session, but it does not contain the section which prohibited the daily crossing of the border by Canadians who work on this side of the line. The most curious feature of the matter is the fact that legislation against the coming to the United States of Portuguese and other ignorant races is advocated by many of the very Senators who are most urgent for the incorporation into the United States of the Hawaiian Islands, with their tens of thousands of Portuguese, Kanakas, Chinese, and Japanese. Next to the shame of religious journals which condone the injustice of the annexation job, is the absurdity of the statesmanship which votes at the same time to keep out ignorant foreigners individually, and to take in a mass of them.

As was expected, the Senate passed the bill on Monday by a vote of 45 to 28, all the Republicans and some of the silverites supporting it. The salient feature of the measure is the application of an educational test to all applicants for admission to this country above the age of sixteen, excepting those who are wives, parents, or grandparents of people already here. The proposed test was ability to read and write, in English or in the language of the country from which the applicant comes, a passage of the United States Constitution selected at random; but this was changed at the last moment by dropping the writing qualification, upon motion of Senator Spooner of Wisconsin, who said that he had known men to rise to eminence in this country who could read, but could not spell, punctuate, and write with accuracy. It has been generally taken for granted that the Senate bill would pass the House without much trouble, but there have been signs of popular opposition to the policy of late, which may affect the attitude of Representatives. The Germans of Chicago have started a movement against the scheme which seems to take in practically all the leaders of the race, including the editors of 16 newspapers, 47 clergymen, and almost all of the 300 German societies. They not only object to the restriction proposed as unnecessary and unjust, and a revival of the old Know-Nothing spirit, but announce that they will oppose the renomination and reëlection of all members of Congress who shall vote for it.

The old divine of the Hawaiian Literary Bureau has got himself into trouble by denouncing the Tsar and the Emperor for seizing bits of China for their own emolument, while he was acting in precisely the same manner himself with regard to Hawaii. He has consequently been called on to explain by his Presbytery. He was at first disposed to be insolent and abusive, but was admonished by the Moderator. He denied that he was engaged in any scheme of conquest. He said he was merely trying to "annex." Being asked what he meant by "annex," he said it was to do the same thing to Hawaii that several distinguished Americans wanted to do some time ago. Being asked what that was, he said it was keeping Hawaii within the sphere of our influence, and not allowing any other Power to take or occupy it. Being asked whether the islands were not in that position already, he said they were, but that a closer connection was needed to develop them. Being asked for whose benefit they were to be developed, he said it was to be for the benefit of the sons of the missionaries. Being asked if it was right for sons of missionaries to take other people's land to develop for their own benefit, he said it was, if there was no other way of making the soil very productive. Being asked if this was the sort of morality he taught his congregation, he said it was, and he saw no harm in it if what was done was done for "America." After consultation the Presbytery suspended him from preaching for the space of three months. On leaving the room, he was heard to mutter, "We'll have the islands all the same."

The Senate committee on privileges and elections have decided by a majority of one that Mr. Corbett of Oregon is not entitled to a seat in that body. This must be regarded as a very unfortunate decision, since the vote of the committee will probably be decisive in the Senate itself. Mr. Corbett was appointed a Senator by the Governor to fill a vacancy caused by the expiration of the term of Senator Mitchell and the failure of the Legislature of Oregon to meet. This was not a case of failure to elect, but of failure to organize. It appears to be settled that a mere failure of a State Legislature to elect a Senator, when it has met and balloted for that purpose, is not the "happening" of a vacancy which empowers a Governor to fill by appointment, although even in that case it would be more in consonance with the spirit of the Constitution to adopt rules whose tendency would be to keep the seats in the Senate filled instead of empty. In the Oregon case the Legislature did not organize at the proper time. In contemplation of law no Legislature existed. None exists to-day. The question, therefore, is whether a vacancy in the Senate has "happened" within the meaning of that clause of the Constitution which authorizes the Governor to appoint. It was shown that it had been the uniform practice of the Senate to admit members so appointed until the Lee Mantle case from Montana came up two or three years ago. Then the practice was reversed, and now the Senate committee decides the Corbett case in accord with the later precedent, although there are some differences which make the Corbett claim the stronger of the two. Mr. Corbett is a Republican of the sound-money type, and the loss of his vote and influence at this time is somewhat serious.

There has probably seldom been an occasion in the United States with which God, if the general estimate of his character and attributes be the true ones, had less to do than with the Hanna contest in Ohio. There has also seldom been an occasion in which, if the general estimate of his character and attributes be the true one, the Devil was more active, influential, and satisfied. There has seldom been an occasion in which the vices and defects in human character in which he most delights, more abounded and were more fruitful. Fraud, falsehood, corruption, bribery, treachery, indifference to public interests and to the character of public men, were the leading agencies in the struggle. The spectacle was altogether one which must have delighted the infernal regions. Yet when it was over, the message which it inspired Hanna to send to the President was: "God reigns, and the Republican party still lives." The comment on this of the pious President was that the victory was "not only beneficial to the country," but reflected credit on Hanna's "leadership." This incident, and the appointment of Saylor, the exposed swindler, to the consulship at Matanzas, Cuba, in spite of the remonstrances of all that is best in Philadelphia, personally made to the President, raises, in spite of us, the question, What religion is it that these men profess?

Commissioner Evans of the Pension Bureau continues to surprise the public. He began by exposing the great frauds that have been committed in the granting of pensions, and denouncing the swindling pension attorneys who are largely responsible for these frauds. He has now proceeded to apply reform methods to his own bureau by reducing

the force employed, of his own accord. He told the appropriations committee that he could do the work as well as it had been done in the past for $100,000 a year less, by discharging 100 clerks, as "there are divisions that are overcrowded and the pay-rolls carry considerable dead lumber." Now he is going to discharge these unnecessary clerks, using the records of the whole force as the basis of his action, and dropping the most inefficient. The pension attorneys and the office-seekers are inclined to think that Mr. Evans must be crazy, while the general public is hardly less puzzled to find an official inclined to run a Government bureau as he would a private business.

One of the causes of embarrassment which always confront a new official, when he assumes charge of a Government department, is the large number of old men whom he finds in responsible positions, and who have really passed their period of usefulness. As they have grown old in the service and have accumulated no competency, to dismiss them is an act of inhumanity to which few heads of departments can bring themselves. Secretary Gage has grappled with the problem, and has established what he terms an "honor roll," to which he intends to transfer superannuated employees in the Treasury Department, They are to receive low salaries and do light work. Younger and more active men, who now actually do the work of the aged clerks, are to receive the rank and pay which formerly the latter enjoyed. This is a frank admission of existing conditions and a laudable attempt to mitigate them, with a saving to the Government; but Mr. Gage has already admitted that a difficulty which he finds it hard to overcome, arises from the importunities with which the friends of the superannuated clerks beset him, to prevent his carrying out his purpose. Even if he is successful, he has merely set a good example, which neither his colleagues nor his successors will be under the necessity of following. The importunities which he may resist, they may easily succumb to. There can be no satisfactory settlement of the question until a law has been passed to cover it.

Such a law was proposed to the last Congress, but never came up for consideration. It was a simple scheme by which the employees in the classified service might provide for their own superannuation with a saving to the Government and with benefit to themselves. Under it a small percentage—not more than 2 per cent., and eventually less—was to be withheld from each person's salary, and the sum thus acquired was to constitute a fund for the retirement, upon three-fourths pay, of minor officials and clerks who had served the Government many years, and had reached an advanced age. It was estimated by the friends of this measure that the fund would be so large that it would permit of the repayment of the money he had paid in, to any one who might separate himself from the service, thus making it also in a measure a savings fund. The advantages of this scheme to the Government are obvious. It would be rid at once of its civil pensioners. The old men now encumbering its offices would be supplanted by younger and more efficient men. There would be quicker promotion and a greater movement of new life in the service. There would be opportunity for many more appointments, and the lists of those eligible for appointment would be relieved to some extent of their present congested condition. Strange as it may seem, this proposal met with some opposition from the clerks themselves, on the ground that they were unwilling that any portion of their pay should be withheld from them; but it is not probable that the opposition was extensive, or that it would not disappear in the light of intelligent discussion.

Monday's report of the Bureau of Statistics on the foreign trade of the United States during December completes the remarkable record for the calendar year 1897. Taking the twelve months' total, the comparisons are decidedly the most extraordinary in this country's history. In 1896, it will be remembered, the outward trade of the United States ran for the first time above one billion dollars; but the total merchandise exports for last year exceed those of 1896 by no less than $93,292,278, which is a gain of more than 9 per cent. As compared with other years when the country's export trade was regarded as exceptional, it is interesting to observe that the trade of 1897 exceeds by $128,000,000 that of 1891, and runs $209,000,000 beyond 1880. Taken along with the heavy shipments of 1896, this extraordinary increase marks in many respects the progress of a new era in foreign trade. That some peculiar and not necessarily permanent agricultural conditions have played an important part in the increase during both of the two last years is sufficiently well known, but it has also been manifest that the great expansion in American exports has been limited to no branch of industry or production. That this invasion of the preserves of older manufacturing states should have evoked such warnings as Count Golu-chowski's speech to the Austrian Delegation last November is not surprising. But the "prompt counteracting measures" urged on Europe by the Count against the "destructive competition with transoceanic countries" are no very probable solution of the question. In the present, as in the past, it is the United States itself which must fetter or unloose American industry.

The total imports for December, it is to be observed, decreased $7,465,000 from those for December, 1896. This decrease happened in the imports free of duty; but in the dutiable imports alone the gain over 1896 was only $1,248,000, and it will be remembered that in December, 1896, such importations had fallen to by far the lowest level in a dozen years. December was the fifth month since the enactment of the Dingley tariff; it would appear, therefore, that if the reasoning of the tariff-builders of 1897 was accurate, "anticipatory importations" ought by this time to have been in a reasonable degree consumed. Yet here is a wholly insignificant increase during December, supplemented, during the opening fortnight of January, by foreign merchandise receipts at New York city smaller by 20 per cent. than those of the same period in 1897. Everybody knows that worshippers of the protection fetish are habitually blind to facts and figures; but, as Senator Aldrich proved last year, there are protectionists who still retain the use of their reasoning faculties. Have these men nothing to say on the question of the revenue?

The discussion over the reduction of wages in the cotton mills of New England is bringing out some interesting revelations. Ex-Congressman Crapo of New Bedford makes the important statement that the present situation ought to have been foreseen and provided against last summer. "By far the wisest thing to have done," he says, "would have been to shut down the mills in the summer, when it would have been least hard for the operatives." Mr. Crapo believes that the wisest plan now might be a general shut-down until consumption has reduced the accumulated stock of goods, but he considers a general agreement to do this on the part of the manufacturers out of the question, while "the reduction of wages is likely to force the issue, and by a general strike the desired curtailment will be brought about." In other words, the poor operatives must be driven to strike in midwinter as the means of securing a shut-down which the employers recognized was inevitable as long ago as last summer, but refused then to order.

Mr. Crapo holds that the tariff has nothing to do with the situation. He says that "we [the manufacturers] haven't any fault to find with the present tariff," which is an improvement on the Wilson tariff, and that even the Wilson tariff "took care of us better than the previous tariff." There could hardly be a more convincing demon-

stration of the humbug of the claims that have always been made for the tariff as an essential of prosperity. In the campaign of 1896 the employees in New England manufactories were assured that the enactment of another McKinley tariff would put an end to the existing depression. A man would have been denounced as a free-trader and a liar who should have suggested that no tariff, even if the manufacturers "hadn't any fault to find with it," could insure the successful operation of the cotton mills. As for a prophecy that within six months after the enactment of such a tariff 100,000 operatives would have to stand a 10 per cent. reduction of wages or strike, there was not a Republican organ or stump-speaker but would have denounced the idea as utterly incredible.

Mr. Platt has given the amateurs of the new Legislature, who supposed they had got into his good graces, a lesson in the science of government. They helped him to get his man into the speakership of the Assembly, with the confident expectation that good chairmanships of committees would be apportioned to them as rewards for their timely aid. When the committees were announced, however, they discovered that Mr. Platt's views of their deserts had not coincided with their own. In some way or other, there had been a radical misunderstanding. Mr. Hill of Erie, for example, who had it in his power, when the Legislature met, to secure the election of an anti-Platt man to the speakership, and thus make possible an organization of the Assembly which no boss could control, but who had supported Platt's candidate and elected him because he thought that by so doing he should obtain for himself the chairmanship of the committee on canals, was amazed when the committees were announced to find that Mr. Taylor of Oswego had that chairmanship, while he was assigned to the head of the committee on banks. Similar disappointment was the lot of the two "Independents" from Brooklyn, who joined at the last moment with Mr. Hill in putting Platt's man into the Speaker's chair. They got no chairmanships whatever, and only minor places on unimportant committees. This treatment would have been hard enough to bear of itself, but the Boss aggravated it by allowing the real Independents who refused to go into his caucus, and who refused to vote for his man after he was nominated for Speaker, to receive quite as good places as those assigned to the Independents who yielded to his blandishments.

There has been a good deal of unnecessary comment expended on the Mayor's denunciation of the city's gift of land to the new Public Library. He ought to be thanked for his talk instead of being blamed. The hardest task good people have had to perform in this city has been to convince the majority which voted for Low, Tracy, and George, that Tammany is not a political party, though it goes through the motions and puts on the airs of one. It is a band of ignorant, poor, and utterly corrupt men, organized and led by cunning leaders, somewhat more knowing than themselves, and has for its object simply the seizure of the revenues of the city and their use, under the forms of law, to enrich themselves and support their families. They care no more for literature, art, science, and education than the forces who entered Rome under Alaric. They are after "the stuff" simply. It is a help, therefore, in bringing home this knowledge to the public, to have Croker denounce the Board of Education, and Mayor Van Wyck roar against libraries, and Grady against the Chamber of Commerce. They are all proving that Tammany is really a flood of modern barbarism beating on one spot, against the things which constitute civilization and national progress. The more of such talk the better.

Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's declaration that there shall be no closing of Chinese ports is, since Canning's famous acknowledgment of the independence of the Spanish-American provinces, the finest declaration made by any British Minister. Open ports, free to all the nations of the earth, are something worth fighting for. The British Minister is a splendid contrast to the two "war lords" who are wandering round the earth seeking ports to close, markets to monopolize, and commerce for themselves only. It is a lucky thing for civilization that England has enough "sea power" to make her declarations good, and it is a melancholy thing that we who, a century ago, stood far in advance of her in advocacy of everything that vindicated the "sacred rights of man," should now lag behind her as a friend of the race. If we took a port to-day, we should promptly put about 60 per cent. duty on all imports, search passengers' clothing for trousers and chemises bought abroad, tear sealskin jackets off the backs of women, and, in fact, do everything we could, short of violence, to make human intercourse difficult and disagreeable, to diminish the advantage of steam and electricity, and make travel seem immoral.

The Government of India has decided to issue gold notes. The demand for rupee bills in London to meet payments which English merchants have to make in India, has carried the price of the bills up to 16d. per rupee, which is the par of exchange as fixed by the Government when the mints were closed to silver in 1893. Any advance above 16d. will carry gold from England to India; but as it takes a long time to move gold between those two countries, the Government proposes to issue its notes in Calcutta on receipt of telegraphic notice of the sale of council drafts in London, and deliver them to the payee in India. The notes will be redeemable in gold, but the demand for money in India is so strong that they will probably remain in circulation till the gold which they represent arrives, and even longer. This step points the way to a gold basis for the currency of India, the present currency being on an irredeemable silver basis. The silver rupee is now worth fourpence more than the silver contained in it would bring in the bullion market.

The rioting in Paris indicates only two things—French sensitiveness on the subject of "spies," and French dislike of the Jews. Why Celtic races are so suspicious about spies and traitors is a subject which has been much discussed, for Ireland is, in this matter, a match for France. Nearly all Irish misfortunes are due to some kind of treachery. There is nearly always a man who "sould the pass" in any political movement and an informer in every conspiracy. In France nearly all defeats have had a traitor who made terms with the enemy. Unluckily, this watching for men who try to damage the country from personal motives does not seem all delusion. Allegiance to any particular government sits lightly on Frenchmen, and any government, even if a Boulanger sets it up, is apt to take the place of the country with some party or faction. The Jew hatred is probably due to the enormous money power acquired by the Jews in a country which is wanting in the commercial and banking instinct and has few large fortunes. The indifference of the French democracy to what is called the "haute finance" and to the larger commerce, has naturally left a vacuum in French society which as keen a money-making race as the Jews has stepped in to fill. The result is that the bulk of French capital is, for all great enterprises, handled or controlled by Jews. The French prefer small savings, retail trade, literature, and military adventure to large money-making operations, and they naturally dislike the men who venture where they fear to tread. They blow the steam off, when the pressure becomes too severe, by "manifestations," and fastening on somebody as the personification of the hated thing, whatever it is. Our contrast to them in the matter of excitability is something curious. Were they exposed to one-half of the governmental failures and scandals under which we sit meekly, they would pass most of their nights in the streets, yelling, distributing "coups de bâton," and recommending that somebody should be spat upon.

THE LATEST HAWAIIAN PHASE.

The Hawaiian Literary Bureau has turned its attention from true religion to sugar. It found that the argument that the Hawaiian sugar would undersell the home beet-sugar in case of annexation, was making an impression in the Senate, so it dropped the Gospel like a hot potato, and has come down to business. It will not rely on sugar any more, but on "general productiveness." It says:

> "Sugar production there [in Hawaii] may indeed thrive, but not by underselling of beet-sugar produced by farmers in this country. So true is this that the ablest advocates of annexation who have given the subject careful attention, no longer urge it as the acquisition of a cheap-sugar farm, but on account of the great potential productiveness of the islands in other respects, and far more because of the importance to the national defence, and especially to the defence of the Pacific Coast, of the complete control of the islands which annexation alone can secure."

You see the ablest advocates of annexation were at one time urging it as the acquisition of "a cheap-sugar farm," but, finding that this was not what was wanted, they now urge it as the acquisition of a dear-sugar farm. Having tried to sell their dog as fat, but finding that what the purchaser wants is a lean dog, they say their dog "is not so darned fat." So the islands, if acquired, will not produce sugar so cheap after all, but just cheap enough. It is its "potential productiveness" that constitutes its attraction. The Gospel does not say that you must not conquer and annex weak peoples at all. What it says is that you must not conquer and annex them if they are not "potentially productive," or if you do not want them for some purpose of your own. Therefore, although the Gospel covers the case of China and the Asiatics generally, it does not cover "potentially productive" Polynesians. But Hawaii is "potentially productive," and we want it for the defence of our Pacific Coast; therefore, we ought to take it against the will of the people.

This seems to us pretty clear as an argument, but it would unfortunately justify fully nine-tenths of man's thefts committed on his brother man, because, when man takes anything unlawfully from his fellow-man, it is almost always owing to the thief's firm conviction that he needs it for his own comfort and enjoyment, and that it will promote both. The defence argument, we fear, will need even more elucidation than the sugar argument. Hawaii is 2,000 miles away from the Pacific Coast. There are only two ways in which an island at that distance can protect a coast. The first is by being towed and anchored so near the coast that it can cover a portion of the coast with the guns of its batteries. The other is by drawing off from the coast the ships and men which were going to attack it. If we mean to use Hawaii for coast defence, therefore, we must either move it to the neighborhood of San Francisco or else make it so attractive that an enemy proposing to attack San Francisco would drop that enterprise and sail away to Hawaii.

But it is quite evident, and has been frequently pointed out, that, in order to have this move of his really benefit us, he would have to find a fleet of ours waiting there to receive him when he came. If we had no fleet there, he would land and take possession of the islands, and probably join the natives in disgusting heathen practices. This fleet, however, would probably have to be taken away from the defence of our coast and would have to fight the enemy off Hawaii. Were it defeated and sunk, the enemy would make straight for our coast again and lay it waste. So that to make the islands really effective as a defence, we should have to have two fleets, one to defend the islands and one to defend the coast. None of the defence arguments, however, assumes the existence of more than one American fleet in the Pacific, which seems to us a fatal dialectical error. Strict logic requires two fleets.

Nor is this all. We have the authority of Senator Frye, who spoke on this subject in the Senate on Thursday, for saying that we could not "control the Nicaragua Canal" without annexing Hawaii. Now, the only way that we know of for controlling a canal, is to have a fleet at each end to prevent the enemy from getting into it, and sinking in it impediments to navigation. This would need two fleets more, unless the islands can be made to protect the Pacific end by being moved nearer, so that their batteries would cover it. In this way, one fleet would do both for the islands and one end of the canal, but three fleets would still be required in order to protect both the canal and Hawaii—one for the coast and two for the canal; for we presume it will hardly be maintained that if the islands were moved down towards Nicaragua they would continue to afford protection to the Californian Coast.

There is another argument which we confess we cannot meet so easily as these two. It emanates from Mr. Thomas J. Mackey of South Carolina, who has been retained as counsel for the annexationists at Washington. He says, what everybody knew, "that British agents are actively at work to defeat annexation." Of course they are. What region is exempt from the devilish industry of these agents? But he draws attention also to something more important. He shows that "Juneau, the main depot from which supplies are distributed in Alaska, is 500 miles nearer to Hawaii than it is to San Francisco." Well, if we now reject this offer made by the Hawaiian Government, what will happen? Why, "England," in the Mackey judgment, "will secure the islands." But why? "Because their government is controlled by an English-speaking race." What will England do then, when she holds "the key of the Pacific"? Why, she will "absolutely shut off supplies for Alaska, and secure that whole region, with its vast mineral resources." How will that come about? It will come about because the Americans in Alaska, being thus "threatened with starvation," must, in case of war, "seek British protection." What else will follow from the British possession of Hawaii? "Her acquisition of Alaska if not California." What, then, would be the only way in which we could save California? By "a series of fortifications" which, in Mackey's "judgment as an engineer," "would cost the Government not less than $60,000,000." It is evident there are going to be terrible times in the Pacific. Private advices from London satisfy us that Mackey does not tell half the truth. Salisbury, Balfour, and Chamberlain are all lying low, but they lie on maps of the North Pacific.

THE LAST STEP IN CORRUPTION.

A very disagreeable sensation has been caused by the recent coming to light of two pieces of governmental incompetence or jobbery. One of them affects the navy, the other the army. The more the Brooklyn dry-dock is investigated, the more flagrant the fraud of it appears. Badly planned, badly built, badly inspected, it is about the most serious break-down in the Navy Department that we have seen. Still graver are the charges now made public by the War Department against Capt. Carter. Hard on to $3,000,000 is the sum of which he and his confederates are accused of robbing the Government in connection with the public works near Savannah. True or false, the charges have given a serious shock to public confidence.

The first feeling is one of alarm. Our national defence, our national safety, seems endangered. We understand better the French hysterics, as we have been accustomed to call them, over their army scandals. If our dry-docks threaten collapse, how can we be sure that our ships are sound? Why should Government inspection in the case of building ships be more efficient than in that of building docks? In the latter instance it has proved worthless or fraudulent; how do we know that the armor on our battle-ships is not full of blow-holes, that our turrets will revolve as they should, our guns not explode at the first fire? Mr. Roosevelt has lately sounded a note of warning about some of our men-of-war; their batteries are not what they should be, he says, and he justly remarks that if any "disaster" should happen to one of them, after all the money spent in their building, the effect on the public mind would be very bad. Already the effect is bad, both upon the

public and upon Congress. All these revelations, coming one upon the heels of another, have certainly imperilled the big navy appropriations. Congressmen are irritable and suspicious on that subject, not unnaturally, and the fiercest Jingo has an inward dread of going to war, even with Spain, until some guarantee can be had that our ships are seaworthy, sound, and capable of inflicting more damage upon the enemy than upon their own crews.

But the uneasy sense of insecurity goes further than this. The country shivers to see public corruption spreading into regions which it thought certainly immune. We have become accustomed, in our good-natured, laughing way, to the spectacle of corrupt Congressmen. We even joke about the "exceptional business opportunities" which a man like Quay must have enjoyed in public life, to enable him, without a profession to supplement his $5,000 salary, in a few years to be able to spend money like a millionaire—a discreet gift to a church being, of course, now and then thrown in. Seats in the Senate bought like seats in the Stock Exchange, and for very much the same reasons, and Representatives spending more than their salaries on their election, we have come to look upon without special wonder. But we have fondly believed that at least two branches of the public service were above suspicion. The army, offering an honorable and secure professional career, filled with graduates of our fine military school—surely that must be beyond the smutch of jobbery. The navy, more than ever in the public eye during the last few years as the home of gallant gentlemen, with the country's honor peculiarly in their keeping—impossible that corruption should stain its whiteness! But here are the cruel charges afloat; here are the suspect officers of either arm about to be brought to trial; and the American people feels that one of its last resources, one of its last treasures, is slipping away from it.

The strange thing is that we have not seen how all this was inevitable from the first. Corruption can no more be stayed in one part of the body politic than can cancer be confined to a single point in a vital organ. To spread is the fated nature of either. Naval officers and military men have no supernatural gift of virtue. They are mortal men, subject to like passions with Congressmen and heads of departments and bosses. If all the public world about them is filled with talk of wealth and its power—brute wealth and brute power—if every other official they meet is eager about the good things to be had out of a Government position, they cannot be expected to go through all this pitch undefiled. Indeed, there has long been plenty of evidence that "the jingle of the guinea" was coming to have more power over some officers in the army and navy than the opportunities of their profession. We do not speak of bribery outright; but how many officers have resigned to take service with shipbuilders and armor-plate manufacturers? How regular a thing is it for ex-Secretaries of the Navy, and ex-Assistant Secretaries, to become "counsel" for naval contractors? The immense money-stake which these contractors have in military appropriations has been large enough not merely to "retain" Congressmen and lobbyists of influence on account of their former official position, but to detach many an ambitious officer from the service. This has been well known. What distresses the nation now is to find reason to dread that officers still in the service have sold themselves for money.

If they have, they have only taken the last step—the legitimate and inevitable last step—in corruption. The technical, the professional, branches of the public service cannot for ever escape the creeping disease that is paralyzing all the others. China is the great example of how the evil works. The true "Chinese system," which the opponents of civil-service reform ignorantly cite, is simply their own corrupt system made perfect. In China every office is bought, every official steals, every dollar of taxes collected gets into the public treasury as only fifty cents. Well, what was the result of this corruption of civil China upon military China? The war with Japan told the story. Many a provincial governor, when called upon for the troops for which he had been drawing money from Pekin, sent down a lot of sweepings from the slums, armed with bludgeons and worn-out rifles, with no equipment and rotten ammunition. The money to arm and support soldiers had all been stolen. Our worthless dry-docks, our fraudulent public works, warn us how swiftly we are going the same way. That we can no longer count securely upon the purity of army and navy is the logical result of being no longer able to count upon the purity of House and Senate and Legislature. What we see the beginnings of is simply corruption bringing forth its perfect work.

CURTAILING THE POSTAL SERVICE.

The order which comes from Washington to reduce the postal service in New York city and to discharge sixty-five letter-carriers in order to save money, invites attention once more to the kind of economy that prevails at the national capital. It adds somewhat to the force of what we have to say that the cities of Boston and Philadelphia are to have their postal facilities cut down in the same proportion. Thus the city which contributes the largest sum to the postal revenues, and the two cities which, with one exception, contribute the next largest sums, are to be deprived in part of a service which has grown up naturally and has been found by successive postmasters to be necessary to an efficient handling of the mails; and this is to happen because a particular appropriation is short by the sum of $100,000 and Congress refuses or neglects to make up the deficiency. This, it should be added, is a government which, ten or twelve years ago, was collecting a surplus revenue of $100,000,000 per annum, and which actually passed a sweeping measure to reduce its income.

The country is richer than it was in 1887. Why is it necessary to deprive any portion of the people of their ordinary and accustomed mail facilities? This is a question which the cities affected by the reduction will wonderingly and perhaps angrily ask when they come to vote next fall. It will not be a sufficient answer to say that Congress refused to make an appropriation for the service. Congress will be the very thing that the voters will have to deal with at that time. It would not be at all surprising if every Republican seat in this city should be emptied at that election. If so, the result would be due not so much to the inconveniences suffered by individuals in the lessening of the number of mail deliveries, as to the evidence of incompetency in the management of public affairs, and to the sympathy excited by the discharge of hard-working letter-carriers whose services are really needed. It is not so much the frequency of deliveries in the up-town districts that will be missed as the congestion of matter at the general and branch post-offices that will be caused.

The science and the resources of the Post-office in all the large cities are tasked to prevent an accumulation of matter, for when once a blockade takes place the postmaster labors in vain to get rid of it. The service is like a river full of floating ice. If a gorge once forms, the accumulation in the rear heaps itself up higher and higher, and eventually overflows its banks or bursts with disastrous results. The need of frequent deliveries results from this pressure in the rear rather than from eagerness on the part of the inhabitants of the up-town districts for prompt service. We are a long way behind the cities of equal importance in Europe in the matter of local delivery. The whole of London is better served than any part of New York, and now it is proposed to reduce our service by one-fourth in the districts above Forty-second Street.

Supposing it to be necessary that this government, that was rolling in wealth ten years ago and striving eagerly for means to reduce its income, should now find means to economize, where should it begin? The very last place to save money should be the postal facilities of

the country; or if there must be a saving there, it should be in the branch of the service which is clearly an abuse and a fraud upon the department. The Loud bill, which has been before Congress three years, proposes to cut off certain excrescences which involve a needless expense to the Government of $10,000,000 to $15,000,000 per annum. Yet that bill was defeated because powerful private interests were affected by it. These private interests kept a lobby at Washington. They had "pulls" with Senators and Representatives. The public, who foot these unnecessary bills, do not send anybody to Washington to represent their common interests in a special but only in a general way, and so the abuse which the Loud bill seeks to eradicate goes on, and the parasites who fatten on the postal revenues are undisturbed. And now when the beggarly deficiency of $100,000 exists in the appropriation for a single year, it must be taken out of the legitimate and paying service of three large cities.

If we cast our eyes outside of the Post-Office Department itself, what a waste of money do we behold in many directions. The fact that our military expenses, without having any army, but including pensions, exceed those of the countries which have the largest armies in the world, including also their pensions, is the first anomaly that presents itself. Next come river-and-harbor bills and public-building jobs, which have been repeated so many times that even the barest allusion to them sickens the reader. Just now we are spending $100,000 to survey a canal in a foreign country, and the officer in charge of it writes that he wants $100,000 more. Our drydocks are not waterproof and we must have them rebuilt, or depend on Great Britain when we want to dock our warships. And now, too, we are seriously considering the annexation of a group of islands in the Pacific Ocean to fortify and defend which will cost an enormous sum of money, whereas those islands in their present estate and condition need no fortification, no navy, no civil list, no expenditure on our part except the salaries of a minister and a secretary of legation. Information has just leaked out that we have made a cash offer for the Danish West India Islands, to be followed by more fortifications and civil lists and miscellaneous expenditure. But we cannot continue the profligacy of our mail service. We must cut down New York $40,000, and make the rest of the saving in Boston and Philadelphia. Surely this is a great country, and it is growing more famous every day.

DEATH TO HARMONY.

It is the avowed purpose of the Republicans of this city who are forming an organization in opposition to Platt's machine, to extend their organization throughout the State, and to call an early convention in the autumn for the nomination of a full State ticket. Of course, this amounts to a declaration of war upon the regular party machine, and is, therefore, absolutely fatal to "harmony within the party." The immediate effect of the revelation of this purpose was to call forth from Mr. Platt a bitter denunciation of the promoters of the movement, as traitors who were planning the ruin of their party and inviting national disaster by taking the first step towards turning the country over to Bryanism in 1900. He maintained that the election of a new Congress this fall, with the currency question as the dominant issue, made it the duty of all Republicans who wish to save the country from the silver standard to stand together without regard to factional differences, for if Congress were to be lost through quarrels in New York, then Bryan would be certain to come in in 1900, and national ruin would follow.

This line of argument did not occur to Mr. Platt when he insisted upon running his family candidate for Mayor last November, thus putting into the hands of the Democratic party and the Bryanites the most stupendous mass of patronage any political party had ever been able to secure. Nothing that can happen in this State this year can either undo that incomparable public crime, or lead to a new political disaster which will approach it in magnitude. It is clear perception of this fact which leads the Republicans who are engaged in the new movement to scoff at Mr. Platt's appeal. At last they have reached the point where the old "harmony" bugaboo does not affect them. They can listen to it without qualms, and even jeer at it. This is a great step in advance, and if they can maintain their present attitude, without fear of consequences, and even in the face of defeat, we may in the near future escape from our present ignominy of "Bossocracy," so far as the State is concerned.

Jacob Worth, whose observations on politics always bear the hall-mark of an expert, and are consequently luminous and instructive, declares it to be his opinion that a combination of the forces in both parties which are disgusted with bossism might carry the State. He says, in a recent interview in the Brooklyn *Eagle*, that "there is no doubt now that all over the State, among Democrats and Republicans, there is a well-founded belief that Croker and Platt have been playing into each other's hands—playing a game of heads I win, tails you lose, with the people"—and suggests that there is a way of beating both of them, which he outlines as follows:

> "Suppose that the Republicans and Democrats of this State who wish to prevent both Platt and Croker from gaining State control should decide to hold a conference for the purpose of calling a State convention. That could be done. And a ticket could be named which would probably beat the machine candidates. The high-handed methods of Platt and Croker have disgusted great masses of voters irrespective of party. In the light of what has happened since election day, Seth Low, or the cause for which he stood, put it either way you want to, is stronger to-day in the State than ever."

Whether such an effort were successful or not, it should be made, for through it lies our only hope of relief. So long as we have these two bosses in full possession of the machinery of the two great parties we are deprived of all alternative. We can turn from one only to fall into the arms of the other. That they worked together in the late city campaign no intelligent man can doubt after the way in which Tammany has distributed the offices since coming into power. They cannot be defeated separately, but must be crushed together. It will be said that we tried to crush both of them last November and failed. That is true, but it is also true that we succeeded in polling against them the largest vote ever given to a purely nonpartisan candidate, and that in order to win they were forced to reveal the fact that they were working together. Furthermore, what Mr. Worth says about the State as a more advantageous battle-ground upon which to fight them, is indisputable. No State in the Union has anything like so large a body of independent voters as we have here. Their existence has been shown repeatedly when a plurality of 75,000 or even 150,000 on one side in one election has given place to a plurality of like size upon the other side in a subsequent election.

This great independent body, numbering fully 100,000, has been rendered virtually powerless by the boss leadership of the two parties. Nothing desirable can be accomplished by turning from one to the other. An opportunity to support a ticket pledged to destroy bossism would be hailed with joy by these voters, and their forces would be reinforced by many thousands of other voters from both parties who have remained in the party ranks most unwillingly, and only because they could not help matters by going outside. How far this disgust with Plattism and Crokerism extends no man can say, but that it is deep and formidable is unquestionable. It is time that a fair test of its strength was made, and this is an excellent year in which to make it. Let us see whether or not the people of the State care to have, not merely a reputable government, but a constitutional government of the kind their fathers established. We have no doubt about their disposition in this matter, but it may be that the power of the bosses would be sufficient on the first trial of strength over it to defeat the real wishes of the people. The possibility of defeat must be taken into account by the

leaders of a movement for freedom, and the fight should be undertaken with the determination of continuing it till victory is won. Let us have an end of "harmony" for ever, in order that we may get in its place simple, plain, popular government, for it is as certain as fate that we cannot gain the latter until we have rid ourselves of the former.

THE EFFECT OF AMERICAN ON ENGLISH POLITICS.

LONDON, January, 1898.

The course of events in America has for more than thirty years exercised an influence which has been little noticed, but has been for all that important, on English public opinion, and therefore indirectly on English politics.

Forty or fifty years ago, it is true, it was far otherwise. In 1855 Lord Shaftesbury made this note in his Diary: "Just heard that Palmerston designs to make some lawyers 'Peers for life'—a step as pernicious as it is specious. It must eventually, and not remotely, destroy the hereditary House of Lords. It will begin by making us the 'French Chamber' and end by making us the 'American Senate.'" These words have in 1898 a touch of pathetic stupidity. Palmerston was the most Conservative Premier who has held office since 1832; his scheme for life peerages was as statesmanlike as it was Conservative. Lord Shaftesbury was, as regards high public spirit and intellectual capacity, a model English nobleman, yet Lord Shaftesbury opposed a salutary reform for the most inappropriate of reasons. He feared that the House of Lords might be transformed into an American Senate, and did not know that the Senate of 1855 exercised in the United States greater authority than has been wielded in England by the House of Lords since the Revolution of 1688. If Palmerston's reform could have endowed their lordships with anything like the weight of the Senate, English Conservatism would have obtained a new lease of power. The point, however, which for my present purpose is important is not Lord Shaftesbury's political blunder, but his ignorance about the United States. In the fifties America represented even to Englishmen of Conservative tendencies, whether they called themselves Conservatives or Whigs, nothing but a typical example of democratic vulgarity and rowdyism; and respectable politicians denounced with equal fluency, ignorance, and sincerity the Americanization of English institutions. 'Martin Chuzzlewit,' in which one may even now trace a singular combination of commonplace satire with flashes of the keen insight given only to a man of genius, had impressed the ten-pound householders and their leaders with an utter disbelief in American habits and American ways of thought. Nor did the Manchester school, which was constantly taunted with the desire to Americanize England, show any very profound insight into the conditions of the Republic for whose institutions Cobden and Bright entertained a sort of platonic affection based mainly on the idea that the absence of a court, of an hereditary nobility, and of a standing army must in themselves secure for American citizens the blessing of good and, at any rate, of cheap government. A small body of thinkers, of whom John Stuart Mill was the typical and noble representative, tried to draw serious political lessons from American experience. But they looked at America through the eyes of Tocqueville; they accepted his pictures of local government in New England as a fair representation of the blessings conferred by local self-government on every State in the Union; they received with far too little examination his dogma that democracy in America, as indeed throughout the whole world, meant the supremacy of a uniform public opinion, which kept down at once the glaring vices which middle-class respectability reprobates, and the eminent virtues or talents which mediocrity envies. They did not know that Tocqueville, while nominally describing democracy in America, was really occupied in analyzing democracy in France, and that both the circumstances of the time when for a few months he visited the United States, and his own excessive tendency towards ingenious generalization, blinded him to the growth of the party system which has given a peculiar turn to American political institutions. The one class of Englishmen who were in truth keenly interested in American affairs were the English Abolitionists, and by a curious fatality the existence of the irrepressible conflict between slavery and freedom vitiated in England all speculations about the condition of the United States; and this in two different ways. Conservatives could plausibly deride Republicanism which countenanced the maintenance of slavery, and Democrats could believe, and did believe, that every defect in the public life of America was attributable to the existence of the Slave Power, and that Republican virtue was corrupted by the accidental and unnatural alliance between Democrats and slave-owners. If there was corruption at New York or a tone of braggadocio was assumed by the statesmen at Washington, the true cause of these faults was the influence of the Slave Power.

It was not till the outbreak of the Civil War that it became apparent how close might be the connection between the fortunes of the United States and the course of politics in England. On such a matter as this every man must speak from his own, and, therefore, from a very limited experience. But to the present writer it is as certain as any event known to him by recollection can be, that in England the War of Secession produced a greater division of feeling and a far greater amount of political bitterness than any occurrence, foreign or domestic, which has happened during the last fifty years. Some of the reasons for this excitement were trivial; there never was a political conflict which supplied partisans on either side with such an infinity of weapons with which to irritate opponents. The Conservative who rejoiced in the victories of Lee was called the defender of slavery. The Liberal who was cheered by any Northern success was asked what had become of his love for nationalities, and how he reconciled the subjugation of the Southern States with his respect for the voice of the People. But though accidental circumstances enhanced the bitterness due to a fundamental difference of convictions and sentiments, there was, as any one can now see, nothing unnatural and little that was blameworthy in the intensity of the party spirit aroused in England by the Civil War in America. Men saw in it a life-and-death struggle between Conservatism and Democracy. The early triumphs of the South were held by thousands of Englishmen to be the breakdown of popular government. The dictum attributed to Carlyle, "It is the dirtiest chimney which ever got set on fire," might have been taken as the watchword of English Conservatism. While the contest lasted the spirit of reform or of change was practically suspended in England. Nor is it a hazardous conjecture that had the seceding States made good their independence, the democratic movement in England and perhaps in Europe might have been arrested for a generation. The sympathy with the Northern States, which to the present writer appears now, as it appeared then, to be a sympathy with the cause of justice and of progress, was among English democrats the effect rather of instinct than of reflection. Bright, Mill, the artisans of Lancashire, the whole body of sympathizers with the North, backed the cause of the democracy. Just hatred for slavery gave a touch of religious fervor to their political enthusiasm; but at the basis of their sentiment and their action lay the conviction that on the issue of the war was staked the possibility of democratic progress, and their previsions were justified by the event. The surrender of Richmond was the victory of democracy in England. In 1859 Bright had in vain pressed upon the nation a reform of Parliament based upon the extension of the right of voting to householders. His oratory had kindled no popular emotion. Lord Palmerston jeered at him for "starring it in the provinces." He himself, it is believed, confessed that he found he was "flogging a dead horse." Some years later he was able to tell the workingmen of England that the negroes would get the suffrage before the English operative. As an argument in favor of parliamentary reform this statement "left something," as the French say, "to be desired," but as rhetoric it was conclusive. In 1867 the Reform Bill was passed which introduced the system of household suffrage into the boroughs, and made certain that it would within a few years be introduced into the counties of England. Between 1859 and 1867 the War of Secession had made patent the power of democracy.

By a change of opinion which appears at first sight paradoxical if not ridiculous, Conservatives who in the middle of this century, and indeed after the middle of the century was well passed, dreaded nothing so much as the Americanization of English institutions, began some ten or twelve years ago to see much that was admirable in the Constitution of the United States. The writer who represented this alteration of view was Sir Henry Maine. His 'Popular Government' exactly represents a phase of Conservative sentiment. Nor is there anything really absurd in the altered attitude of English Conservatism. While democracy could be held, so to speak, at arm's length, it was natural that every man who wished to keep the social and political state of England in the main unchanged, should object to all measures of which the object was to imitate the democratic institutions of America. Now that the reign of democracy has begun, it is equally natural that Conservative thinkers should commend anything in American institutions, such, for example, as the rigid character of the Constitution of the United States, the limited power of every American Legislature, or the authority vest-

ed in the hands of the judges, which hampers, or is supposed to hamper, the rash action of the people. This at any rate is exactly what has taken place: the Conservatism of America recommends itself to English Conservatives. Nor is it the institutions alone of the United States which are now admired by Englishmen whose fathers for fifty years held up the example of the transatlantic Republic as a warning against the perils of Democratic Republicanism. In Europe democracy makes, in appearance at least, for Socialism, but the spirit, not only of the American Constitution, but of American society, has, so far as outsiders can judge, hitherto been the spirit of individualism. The rights of property are the rights of individuals; men who believe that the rights of property are in peril reasonably feel that they have much to learn from a country which has prospered under a constitution designed by men who had no tendency towards any form of Socialism, and who firmly believed in the right of each individual to use his own powers for the attainment of his own happiness.

That, again, the success of the Federal system in America reconciled many Englishmen to the proposal for the establishment of Home Rule in Ireland, is so patent to any one who has followed the stream of English politics that the subject does not require more than an allusion. What is better worth notice, because it has excited less attention, is the way in which the failure or success in the United States of the attempts to retain or establish good local government in great cities, is certain to react—I might almost say is at the present moment reacting—upon English opinion as to the solution to be found of one of the most difficult problems presented to modern statesmanship. This problem is, shortly, how to keep up good government in towns, and especially in large towns, such as London, at a time when it is generally felt by the mass of the electors that the proper source of authority is the will of the people expressed by a popular vote. It is easy enough to say, "Establish a system of local government." The fatal objection to this solution is that real local government cannot exist in any place where the persons who are supposed to govern themselves will not, and, to speak plainly, cannot, human nature being what it is, take a real part in the management of matters which are supposed to be their own affairs. Local government in the sense in which it may have existed, or, for all that is known to me, it may still exist in a New England township or in a small Swiss canton, never will exist in Westminster or London. It is simply idle to suppose that the majority of the busy inhabitants of Westminster will under any circumstances whatever take a vigorous part in the conduct of the business of Westminster. They will not do it, for the best of all reasons, namely, that each individual, supposing that he is a respectable man engaged in any serious profession, will lose far more than he can possibly gain by spending his time, which is his strength and his money, one might almost say his life, in seeing that Westminster is well governed. With many men the attempt to do this would mean nothing short of ruin; but supposing that for a time a few citizens of exceptional public spirit were, if Westminster were made a municipality, to treat the affairs of their city as their own, there would be nothing whatever to encourage them in this course. There would, on the contrary, be everything to discourage their action. The larger the number of persons entitled to manage the affairs of Westminster, *i. e.*, the more democratic the constituency which elected the Town Council, the less would be the influence of any one individual who was not able to make the municipal business the main occupation of his life. Plenty of persons no doubt would be found to do this, but these are exactly the persons who, because they had no reputable business of their own, would be certain in one way or another to manage or mismanage the affairs of Westminster for their own behoof.

But it is little better than folly to argue this matter with any citizen of New York. It were the stupidest form of English vanity for me to suppose that, either in public spirit or in capacity for business, the citizens of New York, or of any other large American city, are on the average a whit inferior to the citizens of London, Birmingham, or Liverpool. It would argue, on the other hand, the dullest ignorance in any one who professed to know anything about the condition of the United States, if he pretended to deny that New York suffered from a kind of misgovernment of which a parallel is not as yet to be found in any of the leading cities of England. These facts are certain. The point to be insisted upon is that Englishmen see that the progress of democracy, combined with the conditions of life in great modern towns, has already produced in the United States and tends to produce in England certain definite and gross evils. The natural result is that thoughtful persons are looking to see how the problems of municipal government are dealt with in the United States. Already one can perceive signs that American experience is, through its indirect action on public opinion, having some effect. People who never heard of the misgovernment of New York, but who are unconsciously guided by the thinkers who, so to speak, do their thinking for the mass of the electorate, have been making efforts in more places than one to elect as mayors men of known position and respectability. There is no reason to assume that a rich man is morally superior to a poor man, but there is every reason to suppose that a man of position and wealth will more rarely plunder his fellow-citizens than a man who has neither character nor money. Then, again, the notion is slowly spreading that in matters of government you had better leave well enough alone. There are many institutions in England which hardly square with any given political theory, but which work tolerably well. It is at any rate conceivable that in municipal matters people may learn from American experience that good working arrangements, however anomalous, had better be left to work.

What is certain is, that a great many more people than might at first sight be supposed, are watching the struggle for good government which is being carried on in New York, with the keenest interest. One need be no optimist to believe that a temporary defeat is in the history of a great town a very small matter. If the many excellent citizens of New York earnestly wish to put down roguery and oppression, they will no doubt succeed. The matter of supreme importance for Englishmen is to observe the steps by which success is achieved. If, for example, it ultimately turns out that the right course is to elect some honest man, give him extraordinary powers and a long tenure of office, there is no doubt whatever that such an example will tell upon the whole development of local government in England. But, for my present purpose, enough, and more than enough, has been written; my whole aim in this letter has been to insist upon the singular though unrecognized influence of the events in the United States on political speculation and action in England. AN OBSERVER.

THE PAINTINGS AT CHANTILLY.

PARIS, December 30, 1897.

It is with a sad pleasure that I have gone through the new volume which M. Gruyer has just published on the collection of paintings in the Château de Chantilly. The first volume of this magnificent publication was written on the foreign schools, Flemish, Italian, English; the second volume was entirely filled with the description of the miniatures of Nicolas Fouquet, and with a study of this early French master. The editor was afraid that Nicolas Fouquet was not sufficiently well known to the public, and that the second volume would not easily be sold. He accordingly printed a small number of copies, and the consequence is, as the success of the volume was very great, that the edition is exhausted, and that the collectors of fine works are bidding high for a copy.

This third volume is worthy of its predecessors. It is illustrated by beautiful heliogravures by Braun, which remind me very exactly of the originals, which it has been my good fortune to admire so often in company with the Duke d'Aumale, who was never tired of going through the galleries of Chantilly, of making interesting remarks on all his pictures, which had become to him familiar friends. His enthusiasm did not diminish with time; his admiration was as keen as that of a young man, and he always found new reasons for it; his commentaries, semi-artistic, semi-historical, were incessant, and constantly renewed by an ever-increasing knowledge. And now these great galleries are deserted, and will remain so till the Institute is fairly in possession of Chantilly and opens its doors to the public.

I entered last summer only once the great gallery of paintings. It was in order to see a magnificent marble bust of the Duke d'Aumale which had been placed there. The history of this bust is interesting. Paul Dubois, our greatest living sculptor, who made the famous statues of the tomb of Lamoricière, of the Constable of Bourbon at Chantilly, the Jeanne d'Arc, etc., attempted in the past few years to make a bronze bust of the Duke d'Aumale, and it was placed in the Château. Dubois, who is a very severe critic of himself, was not satisfied with it; bronze is not, perhaps, the best material to choose for the representation of old age—it gives a terrible reality to all the insults of age. Dubois undertook, without being asked to do so, to make a marble bust of the Prince; and he was finishing it when the Prince died at Palermo. It had been his intention to offer it to the Prince; he offered it to his executors, who, naturally, presented it to the Institute for the galleries of Chantilly.

I need not follow the chronological order here, as M. Gruyer has done, and I may as well speak first of the portrait of the Duke

d'Aumale painted by Bonnat. The Prince is represented in the costume of a general; he was then (1880) fifty-eight years old. Bonnat has painted him standing, with bare head, his red képi in his right hand, and his left hand on his sword. The attitude is simple, the resemblance is perfect. "What the painter," says M. Gruyer, "could not quite render, because it is probably untranslatable by painting, was the look of the eye, so penetrating and mild, so intelligent and so brave; those eyes, of a clear blue, which were darkened suddenly by emotion, passion, by sickness, too." This portrait, which is life-size, was placed, by the Prince himself, in the Salon d'Orléans, between a very beautiful and touching portrait of his mother, Queen Marie Amélie, and a portrait of his aunt, Madame Adélaïde, the beloved sister of Louis-Philippe. From the windows of this salon the Prince could look on the immense parterres, designed by Le Nôtre, on the grand canal, a river changed by the great Condé into a regular canal. In this room the Prince had placed all around the collection of his original drawings by the great masters and his choice engravings.

There is another portrait of the Duke by Bonnat, of small dimensions, the head only of the Prince, when he was older. It is a profile, full of life, and, in my opinion, more striking than the large picture of the Salon d'Orléans. The portrait, by Robert Fleury, of the Prince as a mere boy, at the age of nine, is in a room on the ground floor, called the Salon de Guise; it is of small dimensions. The young Prince is sitting on a bench in the park of Neuilly. He has the free-and-easy attitude of a child; in his round little head, so well constructed, in those clear blue eyes, you can already recognize the man. M. Gruyer contents himself with saying of this picture: "Very good little portrait." It deserved perhaps a little more praise; it is the jewel of the numerous portraits of the Duke d'Aumale.

The French school of the first half of the sixteenth century is represented by a portrait of Francis I., who was probably still Count d'Angoulême; by another portrait of Francis I., of small dimensions; and by a number of portraits which M. Gruyer attributes to Claude Corneille, commonly called Corneille de Lyon (born towards 1500, deceased after 1564). Brantôme tells us that Catherine de Médicis, finding herself with the Court at Lyons, in 1564, made a visit to the painter named Corneille, where she encountered the portraits of all the famous personages of the time, including herself; she was then forty-five years old and her portrait had been made when she was twenty-eight years old. She took great pleasure in seeing herself young and dressed in the fashion of Henri II. M. Gruyer gives many interesting details about this Corneille, who was in his time called the Flemish painter with reference to his origin. His best picture at Chantilly is a portrait of the Dauphin Francis, derived from the famous cabinet of Gaignières.

The Duke d'Aumale always took special care to collect all the portraits he could find made by Clouet, commonly called Janet, and the galleries of Chantilly are exceptionally rich in portraits by this eminent master. M. Gruyer was particularly well up on this subject, as he had published a study in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on "Charles IX. et François Clouet." Clouet is invaluable for the history of the sixteenth century; his portraits show us the actors of that time as they appeared on the stage; they are alive and have the merit of perfect realism. We find at Chantilly a painted portrait of Jeanne d'Albret, Queen of Navarre (the mother of Henri IV.), and two crayon portraits, a sort of specialty of Clouet's, whose hand is recognized at first sight. They are simply admirable; one represents Jeanne as a child of eight years, "the *mignonne des rois*," the other shows her at the age of twenty. It is interesting to compare these two crayons with a third by Clouet, preserved in the Cabinet des Estampes of the National Library. There Jeanne is old; she is the woman described by D'Aubigné: "Elle n'avait de la femme que le sexe, l'âme entière aux choses viriles." The best Clouet, perhaps, of the Chantilly collection is the portrait of Margaret of France, still a child. It is an aquarelle, with very light coloration, something between a painting and a mere drawing. This portrait of the famous Princess is of undoubted authenticity. Nowhere are the peculiar qualities of Clouet better recognized: the clearness, the exactitude of the features, combined with an admirable expression. The future Queen of Navarre is already apparent in this intelligent child. Among the other Clouets, we must cite Francis I.; the Duke d'Alençon, in the fine costume of the time, covered with pearls; Jacques de Savoie, Duc de Nemours, "the flower of chivalry," as Brantôme called him; Elizabeth of Austria, a repetition of the portrait which is preserved at the Louvre in the Salon Carré; King Henri II.; Odet de Coligny, Cardinal of Châtillon; Henri d'Albret, King of Navarre; Albert de Gondi; two portraits of Charles IX.

M. Gruyer is very strict in his attributions, and he enters a number of portraits which many collectors would have boldly attributed to certain famous masters simply as of the French school of the sixteenth century. Such are portraits of Charles IX., of the great Chancellor Michel de l'Hôpital, of Henri III., of Marshal Cossé, of Diane de Poitiers, of Catherine de Médicis, etc. If we proceed to the seventeenth century, we find first the Quesnels, who were, under the first two kings of the race of Bourbon, what the Janets had been under the Valois. They form a dynasty which extends from Francis I. to Louis XIV. They are represented at Chantilly by a portrait of Sully and a portrait of his brother, François de Béthune. The name of Philippe de Champaigne belongs to the French school, though he was Flemish by origin; he spent all his life in France. He is the master *par excellence* of Port Royal. He stands in history by the side of Pascal, of Sacy, of Nicole, of the Arnaulds, of Mère Angélique and Mère Agnès. His portraits have a gravity which belongs to the *grand siècle*. We see in the great gallery at Chantilly his life-size portrait of Richelieu, which was originally in the Palais-Royal, and a similar portrait of Mazarin, also from the Palais-Royal. These two pictures may be said to be historical monuments. The Mère Angélique is a real masterpiece. "Everything is sincere in it," says M. Gruyer; "painter and model are the friends of truth."

The Beaubruns (Henri and Charles), who lived together like the two Corneilles, were famous portrait-painters in the seventeenth century. They had the reputation of making a good likeness, though they embellished the person. As works of art their pictures do not hold a very high rank; they are more interesting for the historian than for the artist. We find at Chantilly two portraits made by them of Madame de Longueville, who played such an important part in the troubles of the Fronde; she was the sister of the great Condé. Madame de Maintenon, who was not a bad judge, called her "la plus spirituelle femme de son temps."

Mignard, who lived from 1610 to 1695, made three portraits of Molière (see Mignard's 'Life,' by Grimarest). In one of them, which is in the foyer of the Théâtre-Français, Molière is transfigured; he is in the costume of a Roman Emperor, with laurels on his head. We much prefer the portrait of Molière which is in the gallery at Chantilly. There we see the real man, tired, worn, his eyes reddened by fatigue; his expression is one of resignation, of kindness, of sadness. Mignard, who had much difficulty in obtaining a sitting from Molière, had probably found him one morning only half dressed; Molière had merely put on a wig and thrown a mantle over his shoulders. I have always considered this portrait, which has been the subject of many discussions, a masterpiece, on account of its realistic character and of its expression. It is very different from Mignard's finished and elaborate pieces, and much more interesting. You would hardly think it from the same hand as the portrait of Mignard's daughter, which is at the Palace of Versailles, and the great allegorical picture called "Repentance," which is to be seen in the long battle gallery at Chantilly. This last picture is very interesting; it shows Condé receiving the book of History from Glory, and tearing out the pages on which are narrated the battles he fought while he was in rebellion against the King. The torn pages are lying on the ground, and you can read on them that at the battle of the Dunes, where Condé fought on the side of the Spaniards against Turenne, if Don Juan had followed his advice he would not have lost the battle.

Correspondence.

"PLATO SHELVED."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent, Mr. Shorey, who comments, in your last issue, upon the lucubrations of a certain "ingenuous youth" of the Leland Stanford Junior University upon the "passing of Plato," may be interested in a sentence which I find in John Stuart Mill's Autobiography, which is to the point:

"There is no author to whom my father thought himself more indebted for his own mental culture than Plato, or whom he more frequently recommended to young students. I can bear similar testimony in regard to myself" (chapter I.).

It is evident that, in the name of the university from which the "ingenuous youth" hails, the word "Junior" deserves a decided emphasis.

L. H. Schwab.

St. Mary's Rectory, Lawrence Street,
New York, January 12, 1898.

TENNYSON AND CRABBE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The review in your paper of Hallam Lord Tennyson's memoir of his father justly calls attention to the interest of the

many criticisms passed by Alfred Tennyson on other poets than himself. Undoubtedly such interest is as often Tennysonian as intrinsic. May I venture a word concerning one of these criticisms, which at first sight appears crotchety? I refer to the very high estimation in which Tennyson held the poetry of the Rev. George Crabbe. This worthy has long been relegated to the limbo of minor poets, yet Jeffrey, who treated Keats with elegant condescension, and who drew on the black cap when he sentenced Wordsworth, was almost devout when he treated of Crabbe.

In some respects a greater contrast to Tennyson would be hard to find than George Crabbe. The latter had little sense of the music of words, little feeling for beauty, little architectonic power—qualities for which Tennyson is justly renowned. Crabbe, too, was an eminently narrow-minded man, which Tennyson certainly was not. Yet the laureate's praise was unequivocal. He attributed to Crabbe a "hard pathos." "There is a 'tramp, tramp, tramp,' a merciless, sledge-hammer thud, about his lines which suits his subjects."

It is not for its originality that this remark is specially interesting. "[Crabbe's] tramp is a little heavy, and one must remember that Mr. Tovell and his like were of the race who require to have a joke driven into their heads by a sledge-hammer." This remark of Leslie Stephen's is quoted in an essay by FitzGerald, the devoted admirer of Crabbe, the life-long friend of Tennyson, than whom he was a more delicate and discerning critic. Yet Tennyson's opinion is not due entirely to FitzGerald.

The ruggedness of Crabbe, no doubt, attracted Tennyson by its very contrast to his own poetry. Moreover, a remarkable fidelity in the description of English rural life is common to the two poets, and must have confirmed or originated Tennyson's admiration for Crabbe, a poet quite as interesting to the historian of manners as to the literary critic, who recognizes in him no mean master of realism and of the poetry of disillusion.

HENRY B. HINCKLEY.

NORTHAMPTON, MASS., January 15, 1898.

AN INQUIRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Several months ago I picked up a copy of an American edition of Marcus Antonius which seems to be unknown to such bibliographical works as are accessible to me. I should be glad to know something of the editor, C. L. Porcher, whose name is not in the ordinary cyclopædias. He was evidently a strong anti-slavery man, as the title-page bears the following inscription: "N. Eboraci, U. S., 1863. A. Liberatæ Reip. I." The last sentence plainly refers to the emancipation proclamation, which took effect on the 1st of January, 1863. On the reverse of the title-page are the words: "Londini: Typis Gilbert et Rivington, St. John's Square," which shows that the book was printed in London, though published in New York. The Greek text is without accents. The notes were written, partly at least, in Minnesota ("ipse hic inter Minnesotæ deserta, libris, ubi desiderata impromptu, destituor," p. 138). He also refers to a sojourn on the Moose River, in Dakota (p. 103).

THOMAS M. JOHNSON.

OSCEOLA, MO., January 15, 1898.

Notes.

'A Century of American Statesmen: A Biographical Survey of American Politics from the Inauguration of Jefferson to the Close of the Nineteenth Century,' is the title of an ambitious work in four volumes which G. P. Putnam's Sons will publish for Prof. Moses Coit Tyler of Cornell. Prof. Tyler, not to be idle, has also in hand the 'Literary History of the American Republic during the First Half-Century of its Independence (1783-1833),' a continuation of his study of the Colonial and Revolutionary periods.

Other announcements by the same firm are the ninth volume, the last but one, of Paul Leicester Ford's 'Writings of Thomas Jefferson'; the 'Life of Charles Carroll of Carrollton (1737-1832),' by Kate Mason Rowland; 'Thirty Years of American Finance,' by Alexander Dana Noyes; the second volume of Prof. C. M. Andrews's 'Historical Development of Modern Europe from 1850 to the Present Time'; 'The Story of Modern France (1789-1895),' by André Le Bon; 'The Building of the British Empire (1558-1895),' by Alfred Thomas Story; 'The Bargain Theory of Wages,' by Prof. John Davidson; 'A Simple Grammar of English Now in Use,' by Prof. John Earle; 'Some Common Errors of Speech,' by Prof. Alfred G. Compton; 'Boston Neighbors; In Town and Out,' by Agnes Blake Poor; and a new edition of Ambrose Bierce's 'In the Midst of Life' (Tales of Soldiers and Civilians).

The Macmillan Co. report progress on the 'Dictionary of the Bible,' projected by the late Prof. Robertson Smith in conjunction with Dr. Sutherland Black. Prof. Smith has been succeeded by the Rev. T. K. Cheyne, and five-sixths of the material is already in hand. The volume will contain as much matter as nearly two of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' The same firm announces 'The Bible Story,' retold for young people, with illustrations and maps; Turgot's 'Reflections on the Formation and Distribution of Riches,' edited by Prof. Ashley of Harvard; and 'The Storage Battery,' by Augustus Treadwell, jr.

The committee on publications of the Caxton Club, Chicago, announce 'Some Letters of Edgar Allan Poe to J. B. Patterson of Oquawka, Ill., with Comments by Eugene Field,' a royal octavo volume of 32 pages, with six facsimiles of Poe's MS. Only 286 copies will be printed, and members can subscribe to but two each.

Subscriptions are invited by N. Murray, Johns Hopkins University, to a photographic reproduction of the famous and unique birch-bark manuscript of the Kashmirian 'Atharva-Veda' in the Library of the University of Tübingen, consisting of 287 leaves written on both sides. The work will be carefully supervised by Prof. Bloomfield, and 200 numbered copies will be issued at $25 each.

The publishing section of the American Library Association, of which Mr. W. C. Lane of the Boston Athenæum is Secretary and Treasurer, makes the important announcement of its undertaking to print from this date catalogue cards for articles in current periodicals and society publications (all of a learned character, and numbering 184 at present). Two copies of each will be furnished, to serve one for author and the other for subject entry if desired. The cost will depend on the number of adherents, and the subscription is provisionally fixed at $3.00 per hundred titles for the complete set, $4.50 for specified publications. This seems to rival the work of the international bureau at Brussels. The five libraries that have taken the initiative in it are Harvard, Columbia, Boston Public, John Crerar, and New York Public. As many more ordering the complete set would put the scheme on a sure footing.

Mr. Bernhard Berenson is engaged in the very laborious task of sifting and cataloguing all the drawings by the Florentine painters, with authentic criticism and appreciation. The illustrations will consist of about 200 facsimiles. The book will be printed in Berlin at the Imperial Press, and published in London by Lawrence & Bullen, probably next year.

A third, revised edition of Mr. Alfred R. Conkling's 'City Government in the United States' (D. Appleton & Co.) contains a chapter on the Greater New York charter of 1897. We noticed the book on its appearance in its original form. The new chapter describes the more salient features of the charter, and calls attention to the fact that the Legislature may at any time amend it; the buoyant optimism of Mr. Conkling leads him to predict that the constant interference of the Legislature with the goverment of the city will in time produce such a "strong public opinion" against interference that we shall be let alone (p. 223). He makes on behalf of the opponents of the charter another prediction—that "the time of the courts will be occupied for many years in the construction of this document"—which will probably be more speedily verified.

'Benin: The City of Blood,' by Commander R. H. Bacon, R. N. (Edward Arnold), is an account of the recent English punitive expedition in the Niger delta by its intelligence officer. It aims to tell the story briefly and from the purely military point of view, and especially to "leave on record certain details of organization and equipment" for the use of similar expeditions in the future. The general reader, however, cannot fail to be interested in Commander Bacon's narrative of the actual operations, the march through the dense bush during which volleys were fired regularly every one or two minutes at the invisible foe, the attack and capture of the "huge pest-house." The horrors of this place, in which there was a pervasive awful smell, "as if the grass had been watered with blood," defy adequate description, and its accidental destruction by fire was a fitting close to its frightful history. It is singular that neither gold nor silver was found, but there were some magnificently carved tusks, and "in one house were several hundred unique bronze plaques, suggestive of almost Egyptian design, but of really superb casting." In view of the criticisms on the lack of efficient organization displayed in the Indian frontier campaign just closed, it is worth recording as a remarkable feat that to collect 1,200 men from three places 3,000 to 4,500 miles distant, to march them by an unknown and waterless road, to capture Benin, and to reëmbark the force, with a loss of but ten men killed, took only seventy-five days. There are several appendices, giving lists of officers and casualties, and details in regard to the stores and the "kits" of the men, a map, and a few illustrations.

A. Parmentier's 'Album Historique,' published by A. Colin & Cie. under the direction

of M. Ernest Lavisse, reaches in its second volume 'La Fin du Moyen Âge' (14th and 15th centuries). As its name imports, this work is for reference rather than for steady reading. It is crammed with illustrations of buildings, costumes, furniture, weapons, implements, statuary, paintings, etc., etc., touching the secular and religious life of the various peoples of Europe for the period in question. Through this maze the text works its way as it can. Numerous admirable indexes provide a ready key to everything, with the least trouble; even ornamental initial letters being entered alphabetically as well as grouped under *majuscules*. A great mass of authentic information is here made accessible.

Count Goblet d'Alviella, well known as the author of 'La Migration des Symboles,' has published, through Ernest Leroux & Co., Paris, a treatise of 200 pages on 'Ce que l'Inde doit à la Grèce,' which contains a good summary of the latest researches on the relations between India and the West, in a wider sense than is indicated by the title. The author is inclined to be sceptical in regard to alleged religious loans of importance, though he admits that in minor points India may have borrowed from the West, as Greece has certainly influenced India in respect of art and later literature. Hindu astronomy and medicine have, he says, been perfected by Greek influence; but he sees no reason to suppose that the national epics of India owe anything to Hellenic examples. It is in the plastic arts and perhaps in the drama that the contact with Grecian culture "a agi comme un ferment pour vivifier les qualités natives de l'esprit indien, sans lui enlever son originalité ni sa souplesse." The little book, useful in plan and critical in execution, is not without minor errors. It is not true, as is stated on p. 153, that idols are not known in the Vedic age; and the drama referred to on p. 90 as having been written in the sixth century B. C. was really written in the corresponding century A. D. Those interested in the interchange of literary and religious ideas on the part of Greece and India may read the book with profit and rely on the author's fairness and general scholarship.

According to a recent report of the French Minister of Public Instruction, the number of elementary schools in France, exclusive of *écoles maternelles* (kindergartens) is 83,465, an increase of 223 during the past year. Of these schools, 15,909 are private establishments conducted or at least controlled by the clergy. The congregationalists (Jesuits and affiliated orders) have 5,649 educational institutions, whereas the public lay schools number 61,907; it will thus be seen that the latter are steadily increasing and the former constantly diminishing. There are at present 151,563 teachers of both sexes and 4,580,183 pupils between the ages of six and thirteen. The number of the latter is, however, constantly diminishing; from 1891 to 1895 this decrease was 16,000, and from 1895 to 1896 6,584, in the elementary schools, and a similar diminution is also perceptible in the higher institutions of learning. In the mixed schools there were 694,592 pupils in 1895 and 693,611 in 1896.

According to the official report just published by the Director General, Torraca, there are in Italy 50,135 common schools, of which 25,118 are obligatory and 25,017 optional; 21,979 are for boys, 18,703 for girls, and 10,173 are mixed schools. Two-fifths of the school-houses are good, two-fifths tolerable, and one-fifth utterly bad. Of the 50,000 teachers, 19,000 are competent, 24,000 passable, and 7,000 wholly inefficient. The number of registered pupils is 2,300,000, of whom 162,000 are of a higher grade. The best elementary schools are in Piedmont and Lombardy; the worst in southern Italy, and especially in Sicily.

The Boston Public Library has put out a substantial volume of selections from its monthly bulletins from January, 1896, to October, 1897, inclusive, presenting 6,000 titles as the cream of about 9,000. Hereafter the publication will be yearly, in conformity with the title, 'Annual List of New and Important Books Added to the Public Library.' It is issued at the extraordinary price of five cents a copy (176 pages, octavo), which is partly made possible by the use of the linotype process in setting the original bulletins. The unloveliness of this process, by reason of want of contrast in the typography, is again noticeable. There are nearly two hundred titles of works upon money. A comparatively small space is given to fiction. In a somewhat careful examination we have noted but a single error, the placing of Nansen's 'Farthest North' under Africa.

'Class List No. 1, English Prose Fiction,' comes to us from the St. Louis Public Library, and reminds us, in view of so many similar catalogues, of the failure of economic coöperation in this direction. A feature of the present volume is "a reliable guide for readers and libraries" in the shape of "lists of the best novels, based on individual and collective opinions." We are afraid the reliability will appear rather dubious to minds ready to bow to authority, but counselled so diversely as here. In the supplementary list of "best novels published since 1884," Mr. A. S. Hardy's 'Passe Rose' is made a "back number" by being printed "Passé."

A large part of the Consular Reports for December is taken up with the new Cuban tariff. Among other subjects treated are the use of dogs as draught animals on the Continent, technical education in Austria, and the agriculture and industries of Thessaly. These last consist chiefly in the cultivation of grain, and in a few cotton and, apparently, grist mills, factories, and tanneries. Last year's harvest, amounting to nearly seven million bushels of grain, was wholly appropriated by the Turkish troops, who also took all the sheep and cattle which were not driven off before the invasion. From the 1st of January the most important reports will be printed as soon as they are received, and issued as advance sheets to the newspaper press and such as may desire them. At the end of the month they will be reprinted and published in their present form.

Garden and Forest has, we regret to say, suspended publication at the close of its tenth volume. Its public, necessarily a select one, has been found too small to give it adequate support. Prof. C. S. Sargent, on whom the pecuniary burden rested, whose conception this periodical was, and who was a constant editorial contributor, must console himself with the gratitude of those to whose intelligence and refined love of nature and of landscape art he has so disinterestedly ministered.

The second part of Dr. Moriz Hoernes's paper on the artistic sense of prehistoric man, as shown in the bronze figures unearthed in various parts of Europe, is published in No. 4 of the *Mittheilungen* of the Prehistoric Commission of the Imperial Academy of Sciences of Vienna. Certain objects found in Italy are described, and their historical significance pointed out. In the same number is an account, by Jaroslav Palliardi, of painted pottery of neolithic times discovered in Moravia and lower Austria. Both papers are illustrated.

An appreciative notice of the late Dr. Benjamin Apthorp Gould, by Wilhelm Foerster, appears in the *Procès-Verbaux* of the International Committee of Weights and Measures for 1897.

The Royal Institution, London, is hardly a place where one would expect to find unpublished records of the American Revolutionary War. Nevertheless, at that establishment there are preserved about sixty volumes of original papers connected with the headquarters of the British Army, when commanded by Howe, Carleton, and Clinton. These embrace some sixty hitherto unpublished letters from Washington, memorials of the services of British officers, and documents concerning Loyalists. It appears that this mass of papers was originally in the possession of Maurice Morgann, the secretary of Sir Henry Clinton. At Morgann's death they got into other hands, and ultimately were left, by will, to the Royal Institution. The Historical Manuscripts Commissioners have, by a happy choice, intrusted the calendaring of the Morgann collection to Mr. B. F. Stevens.

A self-correcting two-fold error was made in our recent account of the *Biographisches Jahrbuch* and of the *Biographische Blätter* from which it springs. The only thing *bibliographical* about this valuable work is its list of biographies published during the year.

—In the preface to his post-graduate 'Lectures on the English Language,' delivered at Columbia College in 1858-'59, Mr. George P. Marsh expressed a hope that English studies were "soon to receive a new impulse and new aids from the publication of a complete dictionary of the English language—a work of prime necessity to all the common moral and literary interests of the British and American people, and which is now in course of execution by the London Philological Society, upon a plan, and with a command of facilities, that promise the most satisfactory results." At the expiration of thirty years, in 1888, this great enterprise culminated in the A-B volume of the 'New English Dictionary on Historical Principles,' since called for short the 'Oxford Dictionary'; and now, forty years after Mr. Marsh's "soon," we can point to the C and D-E volumes bound upon the shelf, while the current instalment (Frank-law—Gain-coming), just received from Henry Frowde, concludes the first and begins the second half of the F-G volume. Taking the 'Century Dictionary' for comparison, we estimate that the point now reached marks the accomplishment of one-third of the gigantic task; in other words, that eleven volumes will be necessary to contain the whole alphabet. That was the conclusion we arrived at when we last made such a calculation. In the next two quarterly instalments we are to have a generous portion of the letter H, from Dr. Murray, which will proceed simultaneously with Mr. Bradley's G.

—In the tailings of F there is plenty to

interest. How did Englishmen get along without the word *funny* before 1756? In 1755 *fun* was to Dr. Johnson a low, cant word. The first quotation for *fuss*, the noun, is no older than 1701; the verb starts in at 1792; Byron uses *fussily* in 1817, and Tom Moore *fussy* in 1831, while Arthur Helps finds *fussiness* ready made or convenient to make in 1851. To Scott, perhaps, we owe *free lance* (1820); to Cobbett *free trade*, as opposed to protection (1823). The exclamatory *fudge* of the 'Vicar of Wakefield' (1766) is the first literary instance of this usage. *Black Friday*, school slang in 1611, then applied to the day (December 6, 1745) when the news of the Young Pretender's landing was announced in London, was revived for May 11, 1866, when a commercial panic ensued upon the failure of Overend, Gurney & Co., and (but Mr. Bradley does not record this, though the 'Century Dictionary' gives it) when Fisk and Gould's gold venture broke the New York market on September 24, 1869. The dramatist Middleton supplies the earliest use of *freshman*, in the sense of novice (1627), and the sole example of *freshwoman*, "the analogue of a freshman in an imaginary university" (1627), now realized. A man's *frock coat* we read of in 1823; and Mr. Bradley says that "in the language of [English] fashionable society the use of *frock* for 'dress' has within the last few years been revived," after having been long relegated to children's wear. Masson, in his 'Chatterton,' imported the verb *function* from across the Channel (1856), and Mr. Marsh used it, with an "as the French say," in his 'Lectures on the English Language' (1862). "The blunder is somewhat common both in England and in the United States" of associating *fruition* with *fruit*—as if 'fruiting' or 'fructification.' Our American expression, "The moon *fulls*," is shared by the Suffolk dialect. "The plural forms *spoonsful, cupsful*, etc., which are still sometimes heard, represent," says Mr. Bradley, "either a survival of or (much more probably) a return to the older grammatical view; but though they have thus some appearance of historical justification, they are contrary to good modern usage, and are objectionable on account of their ambiguity." *Full*, which has relationships in *ple*nary, com*ple*ment, *plus*, *ple*thoric, *poly*gamy, occupies more than four pages of the present work. *From* requires one and two-thirds pages; its primary sense, 'forward,' we may recognize in Nansen's *Fram*. Mr. Kipling's gentleman in black who broke the British square at his "'ome in the Soudan," is embalmed under *fuzzy* in a quotation commendably up to date.

—'Sainte-Beuve: Seven of the Causeries du Lundi' is the title of a little book by George McLean Harper, Professor of Romance Languages at Princeton (Henry Holt & Co.). The essays are published in the original, with notes in English, and an introduction by Mr. Harper which is itself a pleasant contribution to the literature of the subject. In forty pages he has given an intelligent account of Sainte-Beuve's life and character, and a criticism of his work, good in both matter and style. In the latter the reader is tempted sometimes to think that the influence of Sainte-Beuve's own manner may be detected; the English seems to have acquired a French exactitude and conversational flow, a sanity, a rationality which are a little more delicate than one is wont to find in English. The effect, however, is far from being that of imitation; it seems more like the natural result of much study of a master. Prof. Harper dwells on Sainte-Beuve's great urbanity, which always makes him something more than either a professor or a journalist (in the French sense); he is a man of the world also. When we listen to him we hear the conversation of a gentleman, addressed to other gentlemen. We are not in church, nor in a lecture-room, nor in a political assembly, nor in Bohemia; we are quite at home, in the best company in the world, that of those who have made history and literature interesting to us, companions who are never dull, never offend us, never quarrel with us, and always entertain us. Mr. Harper insists very justly that Sainte-Beuve's want of moral sense, if such it can be called, was a "defect of his qualities." Moral judgments would have been out of place in his conversations; his aim was literary solely. And yet, singularly enough, he is never more masterly than when he is elucidating a character. His essay on Lafayette, for instance, is a most delicate piece of moral analysis. He seems at times to dwell in a realm of intelligence which is above morality, because it detects the secret springs of moral action, and in which the end—*tout comprendre, tout pardonner*—might be really attained. The author gives a good account of Sainte-Beuve's attitude toward Lamartine and Chateaubriand; this recalls the anecdote of the conversation in which he said, after discussing them with an American visitor, "Mais, charlatan pour charlatan, je préfère Lamartine."

—The editors of the recently published Hebrew text of 'Ecclesiasticus,' Messrs. Cowley and Neubauer, of the Bodleian Library, Oxford, have issued in a pamphlet (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde) the translation in parallel columns with the latest English Revised Version from the Greek (Apocrypha, 1895). This exhibits conveniently for English readers the noteworthy differences in detail between the Hebrew and the Greek, which until 1897 was the nearest known approach to the original. The translation of the Hebrew shows slight variations from that given in the original publication a few months ago. The principal ones follow: In xl. 16 we now have in place of "axes" "reed-stalks" (formerly given as a possible variant); xl. 26 "[treasure]" is now queried; xli. 2 now reads, "Unto a man that hath trouble, and that lacketh strength," for "Unto him that hath no might, and lacketh strength"; the marginal conjecture "turning away" is now substituted in the text for "reckoning" before "the face of thy friend," xli. 21, and the chapter-division between xli. and xlii. is also slightly changed; for the marginal reading "He [establisheth all things forever]" xlii. 23, we now have "He l[iveth and abid]eth for [ever]"; "like rottenness," xliii. 20, becomes "like crystal"; xliv. 15 is inserted from the margin; "the prophet of God," xlvi. 13, becomes "by the word of God," and "he was [san]ctified a gazer," xlvi. 15, becomes "he was [sepa]rated to be a gazer"; "the earth . . ," xlvii. 15 in the editio princeps, now appears as "thou didst cover the earth with thy [soul]." The same care is used as in the editio princeps to indicate in the translation the precise state of the original text. The extent of the fragment translated is the same as that already published—xxxix. 15-xlix. 11. The facsimile prefixed represents the last leaf of the MS. It is understood among scholars that other leaves have been discovered, and it is to be hoped that we may soon come into possession of substantially the whole book in the original Hebrew.

—The sun's total eclipse on Saturday morning, January 22 (early afternoon in India), will not be permitted to pass unobserved, although its duration is slight. No less than twelve separate parties are established in the field, and without doubt all are at the present moment in thorough preparation and training. By far the most distinguished astronomer who has gone out on this service is Sir Norman Lockyer, encamped on the west coast of India, nearly 200 miles south of Bombay, where the eclipse track first impinges, having previously crossed the Indian Ocean from the African coast of Somali. Mr. Lockyer has the efficient assistance of officers and men of one of the cruisers of the Royal Navy, told off from Ceylon for this especial service. Just before leaving England, he published a book to set forth his views on eclipse research, and he will probably be successful in securing the sort of observations requisite as corroboration of his favorite solar theories. As yet it must be said that Nature has kept well her secret of the sun's corona; for although many eyes have seen it, no one has been able to draw it completely, no camera has yet photographed it in all the wealth of filamentous detail, nor does any theory of its constitution yet propounded meet with general acceptance. The multitude of observers and the chance of good weather have excited astronomical expectation more than any other phenomenon of like character since the great totality of 1878, so abundantly observed in our Western States.

—Other parties under British official auspices are in charge of the Astronomer Royal, Mr. W. H. M. Christie, and Prof. H. H. Turner of Oxford, who, undaunted by their signal failure in Japan, have taken up a station in central India, with about the same programme as before; of Dr. Ralph Copeland, Scottish Astronomer Royal, who is provided with a telescope of unusual proportions, that he may obtain the corona on a very large scale; and of Captain Hills, Royal Engineers, with Mr. H. F. Newall of Cambridge, whose interest lies mainly in photographing the complicated spectrum of the corona, as was first done by Prof. Schuster in Egypt sixteen years ago. A thriving society of English amateurs, too, has dispatched an ample expedition, which is under the able guidance of Mr. Walter Maunder, and prepared with apparatus for much novel and ingenious experiment. The Great Indian Peninsular Railway from Poona to Madras penetrates the shadow belt, and is an immense help in locating expeditions. Prof. Naegamvala and Dr. Michie-Smith of the home observatories are both in the field; and the Japanese astronomers, who have failed to catch even a glimpse of the corona in both eclipses recently visible in their country, have an encampment in a very promising region of India, where, it is to be hoped, success awaits them, especially as they have had the foresight to provide themselves with one of the best instruments for coronal photography. America is represented by only two parties, both Californian in origin, but inferior to none of the foreign expeditions, in either material equipment or

experience in using it. Among other problems attacked will be the rate at which the corona turns round axially, this observation having been shown possible by M. Deslandres of Paris during the eclipse in Senegal five years ago.

PUTNAM'S BOOKS AND THEIR MAKERS.

Books and their Makers during the Middle Ages: A Study of the Conditions of the Production and Distribution of Literature from the Fall of the Roman Empire to the Close of the Seventeenth Century. By George Haven Putnam, A.M. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897. Vol. II. A. D. 1500-1709. 8vo, pp. x, 538.

Mr. Putnam's services in behalf of international copyright entitle his writings on the subject to respectful consideration. His collection of papers on 'The Question of Copyright' appeared in 1891 (revised edition in 1896), and it was followed in 1894 by 'Authors and their Public in Ancient Times,' which serves as an introduction to the present work. The volume before us continues the historical sketch of book-publishing and book-censorship in Europe from the closing year of the fifteenth century to the enactment of Queen Anne's copyright statute in 1710. The author states in the preface to the first volume that he has "attempted simply to present a study of certain conditions in the history of the manifolding and distribution of books by which the production and effectiveness of literature was very largely influenced and determined, and under which the conception of such a thing as literary property gradually developed." It is evident that he has taken no small pains, under serious disadvantages, in gathering material and in putting it into shape. The plan of arrangement is good, and the subject is treated in an entertaining way. The sources of information, however, have not always been chosen with equal judgment, while in a number of instances the best authorities are not used at all. As the standard of accuracy for a publication of this character is necessarily set high, the critical reader will wish to have the test applied in statements of fact and date.

The volume opens with the introduction of printing into France, the year of which should have been given as 1470, and not 1469. The true date was fixed by the researches of Dr. Ludwig Sieber, described in Philippe's 'Origine de l'imprimerie à Paris,' published in 1885, from which it appears that the three German printers were called from Basel (not from Constance) during Jean Heynlin's second priorate of the Sorbonne College, beginning March 25, 1470, N. S., and that their first book, the Epistles of Gasparinus Barzizius, was issued towards the end of the same year. Forty years after this event it is stated that there were in Paris over fifty printing concerns, and that even before the close of the fifteenth century the Parisian trade in books was the largest in Europe. Considerable space is given to the history of the Estiennes, or Stephani, who carried on their business at Paris and Geneva for five generations, or more than a century and a half. The most famous of the family was Robert Estienne, who succeeded to the establishment of his father Henry in 1526. Misled by Greswell, our author states that Robert began in 1524, and that his first publication was the treatise 'De Deo Socratis' of Apuleius in 1525 The edition referred to was really printed a hundred years later, in 1625, by Robert Estienne the third. The publishing house of the Estiennes came to an end not long after 1660.

Book-publishing in England is illustrated by an account of Caxton's undertakings, with sketches of other English presses. Of Caxton it is remarked that his experience as a publisher did nothing towards the development of any conception of literary property. In 1556 the Stationers' Company received their charter, and beginning with the following year the members of the guild had their books registered for copyright. R. Clavel's catalogue of English books from 1666 to 1680 is referred to as the "earliest catalogue of books published in England," but this is not the fact, for it was preceded by Andrew Maunsell's in 1595, an anonymous publication in 1631, John Rothwell's in 1657, and William London's in 1658-60.

The greatest publishing house of the fifteenth century was founded in Nuremberg by Anthony Koberger, who died in 1513, after a successful business career of fifty years. He did not limit his undertakings to his own presses, but gave contracts to printers in other parts of Europe. Jodocus Badius speaks of him as "that glorious Nuremberger, esteemed of honorable men everywhere as the prince of booksellers, the man who conducted his business with the most exact integrity and with the highest ideals." Another great German publisher was John Froben, established at Basel from 1491 to 1527. Erasmus, who was in his service as editor, and whose books were published by him, called him "the Aldus of Germany," and, writing from Basel in 1523, he says:

"I find here three methods of bringing a book into print. Sometimes Froben takes upon himself the entire risk and outlay. . . . In other cases the publication is undertaken for the account of some person interested, and Froben simply reserves a commission for his services; and under a third arrangement, the publication is undertaken by two or three firms, associated as a temporary company."

When Froben died, in 1527, Erasmus wrote as follows:

"To me his kindness was unbounded. What plots would he not lay, what occasions would he not seek, to force some present upon me! Nor did I ever see him better pleased than when he had prevailed upon me, either by artifice or by entreaties, to accept one. . . . Nor did I ever find more use for my rhetoric than to invent pretexts for declining the munificence of my publisher without giving umbrage to my friend."

The new conditions that were brought into existence by the Reformation are treated in the chapter on "Luther as an Author." One effect was to increase and popularize the work of the printing-press, and another was to develop a rigorous censorship, ecclesiastical and imperial. It is stated that, by 1520, more than 100 editions had been printed of the German versions of Luther's sermons and tracts. The first edition of his German New Testament appeared in September, 1522, and a second edition was ready before the end of the same year. The complete Bible was finished in 1534. In Luther's lifetime it is estimated that 100,000 copies of his New Testament were printed at Wittenberg alone. The restrictions upon publishers in regard to the printing of this version were gradually removed, and in 1564 it was formally declared free of privilege, and became common property for all Germany. Luther's experience did not help to advance the recognition of the rights of an author in his literary productions.

The statement about the printing of Slovenian or Wendish literature at Tübingen requires correction. According to Schnurrer and Safarik, the first two books ever printed in this language (the shorter and larger catechisms) were issued from Morhart's press in 1550—not in 1529. Primus Truber, who was born in 1508, was author, editor, and publisher, but not the printer, of the books. Neither did he nor Morhart publish, in 1530 or at any other time, "an edition in Bohemian of Luther's New Testament." They did publish, in 1557-'60, the Slovenian or Wendish version of the New Testament; and in 1562-'63 two editions of the Croatian or Illyrian New Testament, one in Glagolitic and the other in Cyrillic type.

The publishing house of Plantin in Antwerp was founded in 1555, and came to a close only in 1867, in which year the entire establishment was bought by the city for 1,200,000 francs and opened as the Plantin Museum. In this place are exhibited all the details of bookmaking in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, including the presses, type, and other utensils. The account-books of the firm have also been preserved, and in them is found the record of payments to authors and editors for literary work. For the publication of his great Polyglot Bible, from 1569 to 1573, Plantin obtained a privilege from the Pope which gave the publisher exclusive control for twenty years, and which brought upon any reprinter excommunication and a fine of 2,000 livres. Royal and other privileges were granted for the same work, for twenty years each, in Spain, France, Venice, and Naples, and for ten years in Germany.

The most famous of all the Dutch printer-publishers were the Elzevirs. Beginning in 1580 at Leyden, branches were established at The Hague (1590-1661) and at Amsterdam (1638-1681). The Leyden concern came to an end in 1713. The relations between the Elzevirs and the scholars resident in the Low Countries, whose works they printed, appear to have been satisfactory. As far as the foreign authors were concerned, they took what material they thought they could use, without troubling themselves to make requests or acknowledgments. "They were, in fact, the most extensive piratical publishers that the world had as yet seen, and may be said to have reduced piracy to a business system." Credit must be given to them, however, for helping to prepare the way for interstate copyright. In extending the sale of their own publications in countries far distant from the "country of origin," and in finding sale for the works of widely separated authors, "they helped to develop in several communities the understanding that literary productions had nothing to do with political boundaries, that the readers of one country were of necessity dependent upon the literature of all countries, and that the boundaries of the world of literature were the boundaries of civilization."

Censorship of the press began as early as 1480, with the *imprimatur* or secular record of authorization, and the *testamur* or ecclesiastical certificate of approval. In France it was urged that "to propagate the knowledge of the Greek and Hebrew languages would operate to the absolute destruction of all religion." An ecclesiastic is quoted as saying from the pulpit: "A new language has been discovered which they call Greek.

Against this you must be carefully on your guard, for it is the infant tongue of all heresies. There is a book written in that language called the New Testament. It is *un livre plein de ronces et de vipères.* As to the Hebrew tongue, it is well known that all who learn it presently become Jews." The first papal bull "contra Impressores Librorum Reprobatorum" was issued by Innocent VIII. in 1487, and in 1559 the first Roman Index was published. In the treatment of this subject Mr. Putnam has evidently not consulted the standard work of Reusch, 'Der Index der verbotenen Bücher' (1883-'85); and he misapplies throughout the term *Index Expurgatorius* to the *Index Prohibitorius.* Of the Tridentine *Index Librorum Prohibitorum* of 1564, he says, that "it was printed ten times subsequently between 1564 and 1593," when in fact there are on record nearly fifty editions for that period. In another place (p. 270) he twice confounds the name of the printer Francisco Ferdinand de Cordova with the name of the city Cordova, to which place he assigns the printing of two editions of the Index really printed at Valladolid.

Mr. Putnam is at his best in the last part of the volume, which treats of the beginnings of property in literature, as regulated by privileges or monopolies, in Italy, Germany, France, and England. The earliest recorded copyright to an author was granted at Venice in 1486, apparently for an indefinite term, and the earliest example of a copyright to an editor is one dated 1493. Until 1560 the average term of a copyright in Venice was ten years, but after that date the terms began to increase. One was granted to Ariosto, for his 'Orlando,' to last for his lifetime; and in 1535 a copyright was given to his heirs for a period of ten years for certain of the poet's works. At the close of the seventeenth century it seems to have been the general understanding in England that authors possessed in their productions a perpetual right of property, and that this right could be assigned. This stage of development in the conception of literary property had as yet been reached in no other country. The act of Queen Anne, which was passed in 1709 and went into effect April 10, 1710, gave a statutory protection for a term of fourteen years to the author of a literary production, and had the result of bringing to a close for Great Britain the period of common-law copyright.

The last chapter traces the development of the conception of literary property, from the period when monasteries controlled the copying of manuscripts, through the various phases of monopolies, privileges, trade-organizations, and legislative enactments, to the formation of conditions which led to the International Copyright Convention at Bern in 1887. The basis of copyright legislation in Europe and America, representing in substance the survival of the discussions of two centuries, is the theory that "property in an intellectual production is the creation of statute, and is subject to limitations depending not upon any natural rights of the producer, but upon the convenience or advantage of the community." Mr. Putnam is inclined to the opinion that the actual status of an intellectual production and the relation of its producer to the community would be more accurately expressed by combining with this theory the conception of "as comprehensive and unlimited a control for the production of the labor of the mind as that conceded by the community to the production of the labor of the hand"; and he cites, as a practical compromise of the rights and requirements of the author on the one hand and the interests of the community on the other, the result of copyright legislation in France, by which, in 1867, the term of copyright was fixed, not for perpetuity, but for the life of the author and fifty years thereafter.

Bibliographical work is peculiarly liable to error, but this volume seems to contain more than its full share, for it has upwards of a hundred mistakes, many of which could have been corrected by an intelligent proof-reader. Wrong dates are frequent; *e. g.*, 1576 for 1476 (p. 165), 1618 for 1518 (p. 208); 1552 for 1556 (p. 107), 1579 for 1597 (p. 84). Antoine Vérard began publishing in 1485, not in 1495 (p. 8); the Lyons edition of Brant's 'Stultifera Navis' (p. 10) was translated—not published—by Locher, and the true date is 1498, although the book is misdated 1488; the date of Caxton's death (p. 101) should be 1491, as on page 125, and not 1492; the first publication of Aldus in Venice (p. 102) was in 1494, three years after, instead of one year after, Caxton's death.

Misspelled words are numerous: Polyæmus for Polyænus (p. 89), Perseus for Persius (p. 91), Veragine for Voragine (p. 118), Pencer for Peucer (p. 320), Blaen for Blaeu (p. 325), Mersius for Meursius, six times (pp. 320-21), Maretus for Muretus (p. 321), Trochsover for Froschover (p. 141), Preschel for Trechsel (p. 13), Merso-Gothic for Mœso-Gothic (p. 306). On page 117 the monk Roger, of St. Werberg, is transformed to Roger Monk, of St. Werberg. The Latin book-titles have suffered more than those in other languages, as when two are run into one, *e. g.*:

"Digestorum seu Pandectarum volumina quinque Biblia utriusque Testamenti Latina," etc. (pp. 31-32); or
"Thomæ de Aquino, glossa continua super quatuor Evangelistis Biblia Latina" (p. 152);

or when two commentators are made one:

"Virgilii Opera cum Commentariis Servii Valeriani Castigationibus" (p. 32).

The following specimen, with its six misspellings, is copied *literatim* from page 319:

"Drusii Ebraicarum quæstrinum, sive quæstrinum æ responsionum, libri duo, videlicet secondus œ tertrus."

Among errors of statement requiring correction are the following: Koberger's edition of the 'Gesta Romanorum,' 1493 (pp. 118, 153, 161), is not the first, there having been twenty or more earlier editions. Tyndale's translation of the Pentateuch, instead of being printed after his death (p. 140), was printed six years before that event, or in 1530. It was not a Bible, but a New Testament, that was issued in 1538 at Southwark (p. 142), and the printer was not John Nicholson, but James Nicolson. Other statements on the same page are incorrect. The polyglot Pentateuch printed at Constantinople in 1547 (p. 260) is in Hebrew, Chaldee, Greek, and Spanish, and contains no Latin version at all. An edition in Hebrew, Chaldee, Persian, and Arabic was printed at the same place in 1546. On page 211, Heynlin and Fichet, the two French doctors of the Sorbonne, are called "the German printers," while Gering and Krantz, whom they induced to come to Paris, are termed "their successors." Richard Pynson was not the assistant, but the business rival, of Wynkyn De Worde (p. 138); he was not at any time associated with De Worde in the management of the Caxton Press; nor is it correct to say (p. 139) that "after the death of De Worde, Pynson continued the work of the Caxton Press with his own imprint." Pynson died in 1530, and De Worde survived him four years.

It is unfortunate that in a work of so much merit there should appear so many blemishes.

MORE FICTION.

The Green Book. By Maurus Jokai. Translated by Mrs. Waugh. Harper & Bros.

Taquisara. By F. Marion Crawford. The Macmillan Co.

A Rose of Yesterday. By F. Marion Crawford. The Macmillan Co.

Corleone: A Tale of Sicily. By F. Marion Crawford. The Macmillan Co.

On a Western Campus. By the Class of '98, Iowa College, Grinnell, Iowa. Buffalo: Charles Wells Moulton.

Daughters of Æsculapius: Stories written by Alumnæ and Students of the Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.

My Lord Duke. By E. W. Hornung. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Great K. & A. Train Robbery. By Paul Leicester Ford. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Mr. Peters. By Riccardo Stephens. Harper & Bros.

Hilda Strafford. By Beatrice Harraden. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Thirty Strange Stories. By H. G. Wells. Edward Arnold.

Soldiers of Fortune. By Richard Harding Davis. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Alan Ransford. By Ellen Douglas Deland. Harper & Bros.

The Meddling Hussy. By Clinton Ross. Stone & Kimball.

"Bobbo," and Other Fancies. By Thomas Wharton. Harper & Bros.

Chronicles of a Kentucky Settlement. By William Courtney Watts. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

If the kaleidoscopic quality of Jokai's genius has sometimes made his fiction too fantastic to hold the interest, it at least gives to his historical novels a mighty life, variety, and rushing motion. Certainly the story of 'The Green Book' is one to cure deafness like *Prospero's* tale. 'The Green Book' was a list of the members of the far-reaching conspiracy for freedom in Russia in 1825. It was kept in a roulette-table in a secluded room at the house of the beautiful Finnish prima donna, Ilmarinen, in St. Petersburg. When the conspirators were in session, the table was open and the book in evidence. If danger threatened, in the approach of an outsider, the outer door through which he came by its own motion slid the cover back over the table, concealing the book and warning the plotters, so that the uninitiated entered to find only a busy party playing roulette. Around the table sat many historic persons. Sometimes Pushkin the poet was present, and Turgeneff the historian, with nobles of Poland and even Russia conspiring for freedom with the people against the Tsar. The history of this, the last year of the reign of Alexander I., is a thrilling one even without the airy touch of Jokai's pen to give it dramatic embellishment. The great conspiracy and the

inundation of the Neva are the two historic events on which the novelist has draped his brilliant fabric of minor history, of plots, loves, terrors, even interweaving some threads of amusement. The translation is spirited, with an occasional lapse into ungrammatic English.

Mr. Crawford's novels rise and flow with a frequency and abundance and irrepressibility that recall the principal rivers of Europe and Asia, as recited in the school-days of an earlier generation. So, too, in the movement of each novel by itself: no hesitancy or friction stays the swift current of the ample stream; no snag gives pause; in ceaseless movement the flood of narration pours itself along. Never tired itself, it is yet sometimes the cause of being tired in others. Why not one volume rather than two? In the case of 'Taquisara' particularly, why not, since each volume is a complete and separate story? Each is full of Italian mysteries and terrors; and perhaps herein lies the explanation of the feebleness of the novel. Mr. Crawford knows his Italy too well. Under the spell of that familiarity which breeds a contemptuous attitude, he treats poison as only an episode, secret crime as a curtain-lifter. Perhaps, too, he commands the literary situation something too securely, and therefore pauses lingeringly to twaddle over intrigue, and babble over tragedy, with the prodigality of a pen that knows neither haste nor rest. There are two main situations in 'Taquisara.' In the one, a cat takes the poison meant for the heroine; in the other, the episode of the cat is, as it were, translated into humanity, and an accidental handclasp nearly marries the heroine to the right man instead of the wrong one. The third leading incident of the tale, the making a priest who is not a priest into a real priest without letting any one know, by suddenly giving a bishop's consecrating power to a third priest, with strict injunctions not to tell any one but the penitent and the Pope, seems quite like one of Gilbert's masterpieces.

In 'A Rose of Yesterday,' too (limited to one volume, however), the work of padding is at its deadliest height, the super-facile pen flinging off essay after essay, with which are interlarded a certain number of incidents. The Rose of Yesterday was a lady whose husband beat her; he also beat his son into idiocy, but left him one noble instinct—that of saving life, which induced the idiot to end his days as member of a life-saving station. The humorous touches in the book are almost more gloomy than the idiot episode. The hero is a fine, soldierly gentleman; the essays are upon the letter-writing bacillus, upon the tragic import of the slit in lamp-post boxes, upon youth, upon the real and the ideal, upon civilization, upon love, upon divorce. Some are good, and some already in 'Taquisara' dwell, and some leave us rather at sea. The Athenian of old criticised the physician who practised without science, but discoursed in the language of philosophy: "Foolish fellow, you are not healing the sick man, but you are educating him, and he does not want to be made a doctor, but to get well." Of Mr. Crawford we do not desire homilies, but a novel.

Anent 'Corleone' we will not quarrel with Mr. Crawford for his two volumes, nor accuse him of giving us essays instead of a story. A few discourses there are, but mainly bearing on the matter in hand. Story there is in abundance and in coherence, and not, as we have just complained, a series of disasters strung but not connected on a thread of irrelevant preaching. 'Corleone' is a story of love and bloodshed, of which all the curdle and intrigue are met in a real plot which thickens to the heart's desire as the narrative proceeds. It absorbs the reader in the good old-fashioned way with its rising and accumulating action and event. The Saracinesca family, with its descendants and branches, it is pleasant to meet again; and the Sicilian family, the Corleone, who lend the book its shadows, open the way for a deeply interesting picture of life in Sicily, and, even more than the life, of the national spirit which makes the extinction of brigandage not so much an impossibility as a contradiction in terms. It is, explains Mr. Crawford, "not a profession," but "the occasional but inevitable result of the national character under certain conditions which are sure to renew themselves from time to time." So, too, the mafia. "It is not a man. The mafia is the Sicilian character—Sicilian honor, Sicilian principles. It is an idea, not an institution." A revealing light is thus thrown on the difficulties in the way of governing Sicily, while yet the Sicilian sense of honor and of community of cause has much to command admiration. Nor is this lesson of the nations so imparted as to spoil a story; it stands in a just proportion to the persons of the drama, forwarding, not clogging, their fortunes and the phases of their character. Mr. Crawford, as in a former happy day, is to be congratulated upon and thanked for a thoroughly interesting, well-made, well-written novel.

Faint welcome awaits the compositions of undergraduates as general literature, however deeply the relatives of the writers may be interested in their amiable attempts at presenting scenes in "the human comedy of a co-educational college between the Missouri and the Mississippi." The hope, expressed in the prefatory note, that the collection of stories, 'On a Western Campus,' the production of the Junior Class of Iowa College, "may arouse attention, approval, and even somewhat of serious criticism," is destined, we should suppose, to be unfulfilled, so far as any public beyond the limits of Iowa College and its graduates is concerned. The stories are of four classes. As might be expected, the best are those which treat of athletics, the college student being naturally more at home in descriptions of races and ball-games than in "Portraits" or in tales "In Serious Vein" or those of "Co-education," which, according to the adage (not disproved by these stories), is the thief of time. If Juniors made the text, the illustrations must be the work of Sophomores.

A similar work is put forth by the Alumnæ and Students of the Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania, in their volume of stories, wherein we find smoother writing and now and then an original idea. The preface states a belief that this is the first book of stories by medical women. But why should medical women, in groups and as such, write stories? Do figs grow on thistles or novelists in hospitals? The best two of the collection, 'The Genius Maker" and "A Pyscho-Physical Study," are clever magazine studies, and one or two of the others give glimpses, not uninteresting, of the ways of life among medical students. For the most part, however, a surfeit of crudity reigns, and suggests alarming questions as to the specialization of story-books of the future. What is to protect us from "Love among the Roses—A Bouquet of Short Love-Stories by Landscape Gardeners," "Out of the Depths—Sketches by Associated Clamdiggers," or "Hocks and Fetlocks: A volume by the Undergraduates of a Veterinary College"? Meantime, our course is to remember, with Burke, that "we must bear with inconveniences till they fester into crimes."

It is pleasant to turn to a real story by a real story-writer. Such is 'My Lord Duke,' by E. W. Hornung, whose other books have already proved, as Dr. Van Dyke's Highlander said, "ferry comforting whatever to the congregation." They are not to be called great; they are not purposeful; they are stories pure and simple, excellently constructed, well written, cleanly, humorous, kindly. The improbabilities, if not invariably convincing, are never irritating. The plot is always well managed, the telling of it lively, with no waste of irrelevant episode, and the untying is sure to be left to the last. Withal, the air of the bush is over all. There is plenty of oxygen and good sense, and no self-consciousness. 'My Lord Duke' is no exception to these general traits of merit, but its story is its own, both in plot and in characterization. It is a capital little novel.

Also adventurous, and unlikely also, is 'The Great K. and A. Train Robbery' of Mr. Ford; but a story which is well-nigh impossible is its own defence from the charge of improbability. Interest or the lack of it is the main point, and this story is lively and amusing and swift-moving enough to justify its own being.

Mr. Riccardo Stephens's earlier novel, 'The Cruciform Mark,' was far from dull, but much too long. We regret that in 'Mr. Peters' he has so misapplied his amendments as to leave his book both long and dull. It opens with an extremely graphic account of the lynching, in an American town, of a Swiss-Italian falsely accused of horse-stealing. This part, given as a prologue, is well done, and rouses expectation of something powerful; but the novel proper, the story of the revenge of the martyr's son in Edinburgh, after many years, is intolerably spun out. His revenge is so simple that there is not enough material in it for a fat four-hundred-page novel, so that it must needs be puffed out with a variety of unamusing devices—lodging-house amenities, tobacco-advertising poetry, bicycle adventure, and mooncalf courtships, a tenth part of each of which might have passed muster and not have left the reader lamenting. It is a disappointment, for the author's ability is through all discernible.

Miss Harraden's tale is a study of nostalgia, and a suggestive one, particularly to the Great British about to emigrate to Southern California. Her advice is not that of *Punch*, but it may well and wisely give pause to him (and especially to her) who expects Paradise in going to raise lemons in the New World. Her description of the double face of the landscape—that is, of its dismalness and its charm—is unlike any other we have read. We take this to be, not that her facts are seven miles from a lemon-grove, but that the usual written description is that of the winter enthusiast, without let or hindrance. In hers one keenly feels how

the absence of grass and great trees in the brown, dry summer would oppress the heart long used to the deep, leafy lanes of England. It is an expressive little study, not lacking Miss Harraden's characteristics of straightforwardness and distinctness, with the inevitable final touch of pathos pointing to the incompleteness of moral destinies.

Mr. Wells's 'Thirty Strange Stories' are uncommonly clever. Whether he writes scientific fairy tales (and these form the larger number of the collection) or scenes of perturbed domesticity, there is a clearness and at the same time a lightness of treatment that do not always go together, and that contribute conspicuously to the perfection of the short story. Details of aerial navigation, of blood-eating orchids, of prehistoric birds and fishes miraculously rediscovered, of age and youth exchanging personality, of seeing round the globe, and of diving to the bottom of the sea, are given with such technical minuteness that we fully accept the wonders for the time. With equal skill the author satirizes the inconstant man of letters, the drama-ridden critic, the scalp-hunter, male and female, in sketches healthfully stinging. Altogether a rare quantity and quality of invention and imagination are to be found between the covers of Mr. Wells's volume, and though many of the thirty stories are gruesome, for the stout of nerve they will furnish excellent entertainment.

It is almost a relief to have Mr. Richard Harding Davis's hero misplace his "wills" and "shalls," because in every other respect he is such an incomparable conqueror that the ordinary human eye falls, dazzled, before his radiance. However, with practice a cat may look at a king, and we poor mortals, when used to the light, find this sovereign gentleman a pleasant one to gaze upon. If there are in real life few such paragons, more's the pity. There is a deal of entertaining engineering and geography in the book, culminating in a brisk account of a South American revolution, in which all the characters in the story figure, having arrived from Fifth Avenue just in time, in their yachts and by train, like the second act of a society drama. The hero's attitudes towards the two heroines are visibly affected by the atmosphere of revolution, and his hypersensitiveness as to whether he is loved as man or as engineer is harder to follow than even his military exploits from the Nile to Peru via Zanzibar. Some men are satisfied if their Dulcineas smile upon them without subjecting the smiles to an X-ray. But Robert Clay was different, and, wishing to be beloved as an engineer, he told a charming woman that it was as little satisfaction to him to have her like him personally as to a woman to be congratulated on her beauty. No wonder that it was "some short time" before the beauty replied. There is, notwithstanding, no morbid strain in the book. Horses, hoydens, and boys impart wholesome cheer, and South America contributes a bright landscape. For clean stories of adventure and love, with no dull word, readers must ever be thankful.

Ellen Douglas Deland's 'Alan Ransford' is a story for girls with a novelesque ending. The children are good and naughty by turns. The parents are mild and non-combative under great provocation. The story will please and not hurt the children, but we should be afraid that parents might, by the examples of extreme parental acquiescence, be led into mischief.

'The Meddling Hussy,' being "Fourteen Tales Retold," does credit to Mr. Ross's talent and to his sense of the picturesque in history. The tales of the American wars are perhaps the best in the book, and give, of several American episodes in history, a dramatic, first-person-singular view, such as Hope, Weyman, and their ilk have long since made familiar. Mr. Ross further seasons his Hope and Weyman with tincture of Stevenson, thus lapsing into phrasing which sounds forced and is tiresome. "Saddish" from the lips of Mary Queen of Scots makes us want to call Mr. Ross baddish if not beamish. A path "densened" by the rain is the path of transgression surely; "remonstranceful" is a hard saying; "the way fell a bit hilly and rutty" jars upon the love of simplicity. So do "the scurrying wet bit our faces brutishly," "we followed with some amazement that the burning log seemed to give out no warmth," "the mouth *put* the expression of this gentleman's face." Be it repeated, to return to the merits of these stories, that they are full of manly stir and lustrous reality, and that it is where Mr. Ross trusts to himself that he is best.

Noteworthy, indeed, are the sketches in prose and verse of Thomas Wharton. Owen Wister's charming preface prepares one for an unusual quality in the stories, and, after reading them, one rereads the preface for the satisfaction of full and conscious agreement. "He belonged," says Mr. Wister, "to the rare tribe that writes *fabliaux*"; and, again, "His talent did not by nature wear modern dress, but moved fancifully in costume." This characterization is no less true than graceful. Such delicately original work we have not lately seen; so airily, fairily firm, so mediævally modern, so romantically humorous. To become acquainted with it is to share the regret expressed in Mr. Wister's tender lament that his friend's work is ended.

'Chronicles of a Kentucky Settlement' were begun, their author says in his preface, as sketches for his family, and grew through his own interest and familiarity with his subject, as such sketches will, to their present somewhat over-ample proportions. Now, romance is something of a stumbling-block in the way of the family-tree and the recollections of the pioneer. There are very interesting facts at the command of the writer, relating to early Kentucky history, which, in our judgment, would have been more interestingly presented if they had not been made into a novel—at any rate, into a novel of nearly 500 pages. The style, notwithstanding localisms, has a certain old-fashioned flow and form well suited to the history of a bygone day, and it was a day of romance and picturesque adventure.

Philip II. of Spain. By Martin A. S. Hume. The Macmillan Company. 1897.

The modern historian finds in Philip II. a repugnant, yet an alluring, subject. His political methods shock the conscience and discourage, in the case of the general reader, any proper judgment of personal motive or public policy. On the other hand, the catastrophes of his reign invite sympathy, and he has been misrepresented. Speaking from the standpoint of the modern historian, to whom we are bound to ascribe the virtues of erudition and fairness, the difficulty may be put thus: How can one clear away the misrepresentations without appearing to be a champion? How can one reach the truth without appearing to condone those breaches of the moral law which remain when the rubbish has been carted off? The answer may be that, after Philip has been credited with the amount due him on the score of false accusation, he is still hopelessly bankrupt in character. But there is a further stumbling-block. This patron of the Holy Office, this slayer of Montigny, this religious politician, was also beyond doubt a man of conviction. Mr. Hume's happy phrase is, that he regarded himself as "in some sort a junior partner with Providence." How much allowance shall be made on this head when we come to pass judgment? Altogether it is a hard case, unless the writer be a Spaniard of sound Catholicity. The Dutchman, the Frenchman, the Englishman, must admit that Philip was not exactly a commonplace devil, a sort of sixteenth-century Santa Cruz or Carrier. Still, do one's best for him, he remains sinister and forbidding. Enthusiasm is out of the question. The attractiveness of the theme arises from the vast scale of the issues and from the scope which it affords both to psychological ingenuity and to mythicide.

M. Mariéjol, in publishing two years ago a just epitome of Philip's work, avows that the current tendency is towards lenience: "Sans doute, il faut résister à la tentation de le réhabiliter." Mr. Hume is on his guard, too. When one understands fully, whatever may be one's censure, the vindictive note is rarely heard. Mr. Hume is not blind to cruelty, and comes out strongly with the fact, *e. g.*, in connection with Carranza, that the Inquisition was a political tool even more than a means of destroying heresy. He recognizes the part played by political assassination under Philip's system—for instance, in the case of Escobedo. But he casts a pall of sadness over king and reign so dense that anger is forgotten. The tainted blood, the education in distrust, the futile toil, the growing melancholy, the patience under disaster, are made more vividly clear than the practices which stirred Motley's soul. Philip was at vespers when word came that Don Juan had destroyed the Turkish fleet at Lepanto. He "did not move a muscle when he heard the stirring news." Able to hear tidings of victory with perfect composure, he could sustain loss without flinching. "There was no defeat for such a man as this; and he could afford to be generous and magnanimous, as he was, to the men whose shortcomings were the immediate cause of the great catastrophe which ruined the power of the nation, but could not break the faith or spirit of a man who regarded himself as the fly-wheel of the machine by which the Almighty worked the earth."

Mr. Hume, whose authority is particularly strong on the relations of England with Spain, traces to a French source the panic which seized London in January, 1554, when Egmont came in state to offer Philip's hand to Mary. Charles V. was smarting under the loss of Metz, and wished to regain his prestige by a diplomatic triumph. The negotiations, at first carried on through Renard, came to the ear of the French Ambassador, Noailles. He was instructed to stop the match, and received large sums to lay

out in the right manner. Besides buying up individual politicians, he launched rumors upon the public ear. "The hatred and prejudice aroused against Philip by Noailles for purely political reasons in 1553 have left an abundant crop of prejudice even to our own times." The Marian persecutions run back for their origin, not to Spanish influence, but to English Bishops like Bonner and Gardiner. Philip, of course, could persecute if he had an object. With regard to England, he rightly thought that strong measures were sure to defeat the end they sought to serve. Nevertheless, confusion was bound to arise on this point in the popular mind. Spain was known to be cruel. Philip was the Queen's beloved husband. The fires of Smithfield blazed. The fallacy of *post hoc ergo propter hoc* seldom has so plausible a foundation. Then in Elizabeth's reign came colonial rivalry, religious feud, and the Armada. "The Spaniards, it was said, were bringing cargoes of scourges and instruments of torture, all adults were to be put to death, and 7,000 wet-nurses were coming in the Armada to suckle the orphan infants. Such nonsense as this was firmly believed, and the echoes of it have not even yet entirely died out."

Mr. Hume's sketch of Philip II. is a volume in the "Foreign Statesmen" series. It is a model book of its kind; brief, competent, and accurate. We have encountered no errors of fact whatever, and only one misprint: p. 160, *Piala* (for Piali) Pasha. Mr. Hume's Anglo-Spanish studies of the sixteenth century are always good. So long as he maintains his past and present standard, his writings will deserve a cordial reception on this side of the Atlantic.

Nippur, or Explorations and Adventures on the Euphrates: the Narrative of the University of Pennsylvania Expedition to Babylonia in the Years 1888-1890. By John Punnett Peters, Ph.D., Sc.D., D.D., Director of the Expedition. With Illustrations and Maps. Vol. II. Second Campaign. Pp. x, 429. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

This volume follows the first (reviewed in these columns in July last), at no long interval. It falls naturally into several distinct portions. The first hundred pages describe the operations of the second year at Nippur; a hundred and sixty more are occupied with an account of the results of the excavations, concluding with an historical sketch of Nippur; the final hundred are mainly a story of travel in other parts of southern Babylonia. Plans, drawings, and photographs are freely used in illustration. Appendix A gives plates of objects found, with careful descriptions. Appendix B consists of the weather record at Nippur during the second season. An index to both volumes completes the work.

The second season was much more prosperous and successful than the first. After a short visit to Philadelphia, in the summer of 1889, to consult the committee of the Babylonian Exploration Fund, Dr. Peters returned to the field. Mr. J. H. Haynes and Mr. Noorian again accompanied him to Nippur. Dr. Selim Aftimus, a Syrian physician, did the same, but only to be stricken with fever which compelled his immediate return. The rest of the party, not without some hardships, continued through the season. It was during this stay that the real possibilities of Nippur were disclosed, and the selection of that particular mound for excavation brilliantly justified.

"Whereas the first year we had sent to Constantinople only four boxes, this year we were sending thirty-six, besides the coffin and the half-dozen door-sockets—over forty parcels in all, containing about eight to ten thousand inscribed tablets or fragments of tablets, and several hundred inscribed stones and stone fragments, among which were the oldest inscriptions theretofore discovered in Babylonia, or probably in the world" (p. 103).

The work of excavation extended from January 21 to May 3, 1890. At its conclusion Peters and Noorian made a tour to the southward, taking in the partially explored Tello-Sipurla, Ur-Mughair, Erech-Warka, and such untouched mounds as Bismya and Yokha. All of these still invite the spade, with good promise of rich returns. The narrative of this journey ends with interesting accounts of the sacred Mohammedan cities of Nejef and Kerbela. The concluding chapter of the book brings the explorers home.

The solid results of the expedition are described in the middle portion of the volume. In several chapters, illustrated by plans and drawings, the progress of the work is set forth and the chief discoveries are related. Most notable among these are the *ziggurat*—the artificial hill, in two stages, once surmounted by the dwelling-place of the god Bel, and surrounded by structures connected with worship—and the evidences gained by vertical shafts of the great age of Babylonian civilization. They do not enable us to speak definitely of years, or even centuries; the margin of uncertainty is still great, but as a result of discoveries, of which those at Nippur are for the present the crowning ones, it is no longer a wild improbability to speak of the foundation of that city as dating, perhaps, from 6,000 or 7,000 B. C. Results like this are of much greater consequence than the discovery of particular objects, however interesting these are. Nippur adds another to the sites which have been explored—partially, it is true, but scientifically—according to a careful plan, not mainly to stock museums with curious things, but to recover the history of a great population. Schliemann, Petrie, Bliss, Peters, and Haynes are honorable names in the roll of excavators who have thus excavated in the service of history. Their achievements will be more and more recognized by competent judges as of a far higher kind than those of mere curiosity seekers. They help to reconstruct, along broad and true lines, the life of the ancient world.

Within the great framework, of course, all attainable particulars have their place. Dr. Peters's chapter headed "Miscellaneous" reports the discovery of clay drains, phallic symbols, door-sockets bearing some of the finest inscriptions, and many other stone and metal objects. A large number of these are figured and described in the appendix. There is also a reference to the significance of the inscriptions from Nippur in relation to the origin and progress of the art of writing. What Friedrich Delitzsch has already done for the history of the cuneiform character on the basis of the inscriptions found by Peters and Haynes, and published by Hilprecht, is well known. The chapter on "Coffins and Burial Customs" is very instructive. Much other information, of the most varied description, is scattered through the book. The discovery of glass objects, dating from the 14th century B. C.; the reason proposed for the orientation of the ancient temple structures, with their angles towards the four points of the compass; the supposed evidence, from the weight of the door-sockets, for the employment of camels to carry them as early as 4,000 B. C.; the unearthing of Assyrian tablets (Ashurbanipal and his son in the seventh century B. C.)—these are a few of the incidental matters of interest, for which we must refer the reader to the book itself.

When it is considered that it was Dr. Peters who, of course after taking counsel with those whose opinion was worth having, chose Nippur as a site to excavate; that the misfortunes of the first season did not deter him from undertaking a second, nor occasion the withdrawal of the generous support of the committee at home; that the second season yielded such brilliant results; that the continuance of the work with adequate equipment, under Mr. Haynes, in subsequent years, was largely due to his persistent efforts and energy, and that he has followed the work with active interest in all its stages, putting his experience freely at the disposal of those who could make use of it—it will be apparent that Babylonian discovery owes no small debt to Dr. Peters. Mr. Haynes's account of his work will be eagerly welcomed. It illuminated and extended that of his predecessor, but that predecessor's work will remain entitled to the full measure of recognition and praise already accorded to it by those best able to appreciate its worth. We are glad to know that 'Nippur' has passed to a second edition. It is an evidence that wide circles value what Dr. Peters has done, and are attracted by the direct, manly way in which he describes how he did it.

American Contributions to Civilization, and Other Essays and Addresses. By Charles William Eliot. The Century Co. 1897.

Dr. Eliot's book consists of miscellaneous addresses and magazine articles written during the past twenty-five years. The reason of their being mainly social and political—a fact which at first strikes the reader with surprise—is explained in the preface; it is merely because the educational addresses and papers are reserved for another volume. There are, however, in this volume a good many passages relating to education, and one entire essay discusses the question "wherein popular education has failed." What is striking about the book, coming from the President of the oldest American university, is that his field of speculation and interest is so much larger than the mere field of education. Fifty years ago such a book would have been a narrow if not sectarian performance; to-day the essayist is no mere educator, but a man of the world, an administrator, the executive, representative head of a corporation so important, so closely connected with the life of the country, as to make him a public character; a man whose function it is to speak, not merely for Harvard University, but for the United States.

This Dr. Eliot does in this volume with a very representative and characteristic voice. Perhaps the best essay is the first, which attracted a good deal of attention when it was originally published. It is really polemical, though not contentious, in form; it is nothing more than an attempt to answer the question so often asked, What has America done for civilization? Dr. Eliot mentions five contributions—peace at home

and arbitration abroad, religious toleration, universal suffrage, proof of the fitness of man for political freedom, and the diffusion of well-being, material, moral, and mental. The real force and pith of the essay, however, does not lie in these answers so much as in a most ingenious criticism of the Jingo philosophy which advocates war as a school of virtue and heroism. Those who, with this idea, would have this or any country kill a million men, and destroy thousands of millions of property, make millions of wives widows and children fatherless, and let loose famine and panic on every side, he very neatly compares to those who "would set a city on fire in order to give opportunities for heroism to firemen," or introduce cholera or yellow fever in order to give physicians and nurses an opportunity of displaying disinterested devotion. This is a fatal criticism; it cuts the ground from under the feet of the philosophical Jingo, and is itself a contribution to civilization.

Dr. Eliot is a pronounced optimist, but it is precisely in this particular that we see how representative he is. Right or wrong, the wide diffusion of material well-being which he considers one of the five chief American contributions to civilization, tends to make Americans optimistic, just as the oppressive character of the struggle for existence in Europe tends to make Europeans more or less pessimistic. Such, at least, has been the case, speaking generally, for two generations. This optimism is incarnated in Dr. Eliot, and breathes lustily in every word he utters, and it is curiously illustrated in an address on "The Happy Life," delivered at Baltimore two years ago. The address is full of good advice on the conduct of life, but the determination with which the author minimizes the everlasting misery of the world, and makes the enjoyment of life an affair of the individual will, would make a pessimist foam at the mouth. Referring to the "highly speculative opinion" that external nature offsets every good with an evil, and that whatever purpose may run through Nature, we have no key to it, he replies that all science teaches us that knowledge is progressive, and the discovered is as nothing compared with the undiscovered. People cannot, they complain, discern the moral purpose of the universe. "Why," says Dr. Eliot in reply, "should they discern it?" A lawyer would criticize this as "not responsive"; but an optimist is logical only when he chooses to be so. He is not merely a critic, but a practical adviser, and he only obeys the law of his being when he meets a fatal objection by advising the sufferer to think about something else. Indeed, the author even goes so far as to suggest that happiness may be advanced by a "judicious selection of beliefs." Here he takes the clerical view, so commonly advanced nowadays, that as we really know little or nothing about life, and everything is entirely uncertain, the sensible thing for us to do is to believe what will make us happy. To this, of course, the agnostic would reply: How can I select a belief as to matters with regard to which I have no grounds for forming one? But such advice is not really addressed to agnostics; it is addressed to those who do not discriminate between hoping and believing, and to whom happiness is more important than truth. After all, what is Truth, that we should worship it and make it an end in itself? We can make no advances in knowledge without devotion to truth, but knowledge does not make us happy. Truth is in fact an ideal, while happiness is the only reality. Yet this would lead to a profession of faith which the author would be very much averse to selecting.

Industrial Freedom. By David Macgregor Means. D. Appleton & Co. 1897. Pp. ix, 248, 8vo.

The impossibility of equalizing the distribution of individual property, or, more specifically, of raising the real wages of free laborers at the expense of their employers' profits, by any legal machinery which shall not at the same time impair the incentive to industry and thus check the prosperity of society as a whole—this is the main thesis of Mr. Means's vigorous book. He contends that the efforts of the owners of capital to increase their total profits—a term which he uses, as Adam Smith did, to include interest—have led in the past to a gradual decrease in the rate of profits and to a gradual increase in the rate of wages. This tendency is likely to continue, but any attempt, in the supposed interest of laborers, to reduce the rate of profit by law more rapidly than, under industrial freedom, it will, in fact, be reduced by competition, is likely to discourage saving, and, by thus reducing the number of competing capitals, to check the process upon which the increase of wages ultimately depends. This general idea is familiar, but the author illuminates it with a wealth of fresh and apposite illustration, and applies it with ingenuity and force to many current "labor arguments." Especially noteworthy is his patient examination of the popular delusion which attributes to the mere corporate form of managing business a peculiar power of reducing wages below what individual employers would pay for like service.

Mr. Means's general conclusions are so reassuring in the face of much loose socialism and semi-socialism that it would be pleasant to find them supported by arguments as universally convincing in matter as they are entirely admirable in manner. But it is not clear that the conclusions are always so supported. The author does, indeed, make an obvious effort, throughout his book, to state fairly both sides of each question discussed. But in each case the emphasis of his discussion gradually accumulates upon one side with a weight which finally preponderates the other, and it thus becomes his conclusion. Now his may be in each case the right emphasis, and in general we believe that it is right; but what will be its effect upon the reader who at the outset believes otherwise? If open to conviction, he might be convinced by an enumeration of ascertained facts adequate to justify the author in placing his emphasis just where he has chosen to lay it. In the absence of such an array of facts, the reader is likely, as it were, to rewrite the book in accordance with his own prepossessions, reversing many of the author's conclusions by a simple shifting of the emphasis in the discussions which lead up to them. In other words, the problem with which Mr. Means deals, like most economic problems, can be solved, if at all, only by a quantitative determination of conflicting factors; and to those who differ from him Mr. Means will appear, as do most economists, to determine the relative magnitude of the various factors by a process largely subjective.

An Historical Greek Grammar, chiefly of the Attic Dialect as written and spoken from classical antiquity down to the present time. By A. N. Jannaris. The Macmillan Co. 1897.

This massive volume (737 pp.), by the lecturer on post-classical and modern Greek in the University of St. Andrews, is a monument of industry and scholarship, which will naturally attract few readers save specialists in dialect and syntax. When, therefore, Mr. Jannaris, with elegant modesty, informs us, in his preface (p. xi), that his work is intended, "not for specialists, but for the wider class of classical students, including clergymen, who would gladly have their memory refreshed by a summary repetition of half-forgotten details," he is making one of his few mistakes, and we are happy to state that his grasp greatly exceeds his reach. Why he should thus quixotically devote his profound and luminous scholarship to polishing the rusty accidence of the country vicarage, we are at a loss to imagine. The few though fit specialists who will find this grammar a mine of information in several branches of philological study, have good cause to regret that Mr. Jannaris did not decide to reduce the size of his book, and incidentally its price, by the omission of those elementary facts of accidence for which the clergy may well be referred to their half-forgotten Eton Grammar.

The author's main object is to show how much of ancient Greek survives in modern Greek, and how much has become extinct, with the how, why, and when of the losses and changes. This is a task that only a native Greek, who was himself a classical scholar, such as Hatzidakis, or Sophocles, or Jannaris himself, could undertake. Mr. Jannaris has too much of the scientific spirit of scholarship to be a partisan, and, while his treatment naturally brings out the numerous similarities between ancient and modern Greek, he nowhere gives the impression that he is holding a brief for the latter. He has limited himself to the Greek which has been evolved out of the Attic dialect—no narrow field, since, to use his own words, "the entire Greek language, from its 'classical' period down to the present time, forms an unbroken continuation of classical Attic." By modern Greek Mr. Jannaris means the living speech on the lips of the Greek nation of to-day, not the literary, partly revived Greek of Neo-Hellenic writers and journalists.

Of the three main divisions of the book into Phonology, Morphology, and Syntax, it is the first and the third that are of most interest to scholars. Under phonology Mr. Jannaris discusses the question of the pronunciation of ancient Greek, and gives his reasons for renouncing the Erasmian method, to which he was, for a period, converted. We have not space to comment here on several new terms which must be mastered before one can use the book with ease; of these, "antectasis" for "compensatory lengthening," and "phonopathy" for Max Müller's "phonetic decay," commend themselves. The term "secondary subjunctive," in favor of which Mr. Jannaris would oust the familiar " optative," is a less happy innovation. We see no advantage whatever in calling the pure optative of wish the "de-

siderative secondary subjunctive," or the present optative the "imperfect subjunctive." The notation employed is, at first, bewildering. We are asked to remember that (+ XIV$^{th}_{c.}$ +) stands for circ. 1400 A. D. and a simple reference appears as (05^{b} ff. .020 [z] & 20).

In his argument for the early use of writing in Greece Mr. Jannaris ignores modern theories so far as to speak, without qualification, of the σήματα λυγρὰ—the tokens of woe—of the sixth book of the 'Iliad' as "a direct mention in the 'Iliad' of writing" (p. 22). It would be impossible to discuss here all the minor points on which Mr. Jannaris differs from orthodox grammarians. He is inclined to doubt the occurrence of the future optative in classical Greek, and would regard its presence in our MSS. as due to the innovations of later copyists (p. 452). He would not hesitate to read ἤ for εἰ in all cases in the New Testament where εἰ occurs as a direct interrogative particle, and would restore ἦ μὴν for ἀμὴν in all cases where the latter opens an assertion, *e. g.*, ἀμὴν λέγω ὑμῖν. Here again he holds the copyists responsible. Let New Testament scholars see to it; classical scholars, we imagine, will be slow to assent to his unqualified assertion that in all cases of οὐ μή with the subjunctive and future indicative they should cut the knot that Mr. Goodwin labored to untie and read οὐ μήν, which has been corrupted by the copyists to μή! Few will be found equal to this act of faith. Mr. Jannaris is so confident that his is the true explanation that he devotes only half a page to this important construction, and practically confines himself to the bare statement that, "as a matter of fact, μή in this complex stands for μήν, or rather is a corruption of μήν" (p. 433). He does not discuss the opposed theories, but is content with remarking that "οὐ μή cannot be reduced to any principle of the language." Some obvious objections to his theory which he omits to mention are (1) the fact that, in several cases, οὐ and μή are separated by several words, *e. g.*, Soph. Aj. 560 or El. 1029. (2) Prodelision occurs in verse, which puts μήν out of the question in such passages as Soph. Trach. 978, and Ar. Pax. 1302. (3) The μήν theory would introduce into classical Greek a large number of subjunctives used "prospectively in the room of the future indicative" on the model of the Homeric instances. Mr. Jannaris accepts this consequence, again without comment (p. 449), and does not feel bound to explain why they are all negative. Here is another heroic proposal which may serve the clergy as a counsel of perfection. The "Recension of Peisistratos" is a favorite field of exercise with Homeric critics. Mr. Jannaris offers a perfectly new solution of the problem. His argument runs as follows: We hear of Peisistratos in connection with Homer. It is universally admitted that he did not institute a collection, redaction, or edition. But he certainly did something. "So we hear that he appointed a commission of scholars . . . with instructions to draw up a rational and practicable system of normal spelling calculated to facilitate the reading at school of the national or standard texts. . . . It is this orthographic normalization for school purposes that is alluded to . . . by Cicero" (p. 530). Mr. Jannaris then quotes the well-known *primus Homeri libros confusos antea sic disposuisse dicitur*, etc., in support of his argument. Surely if it is to be used as evidence at all, it tells against him. The *vox totius antiquitatis* is dumb before such dogmatism.

The appendices contain much important matter. That on Accent, in which Mr. Jannaris attempts to justify his belief in stress accent for both Greek and Sanskrit, is especially interesting.

In a first edition of such a work some inaccuracies were perhaps unavoidable. On p. 429 it would have been better to make a separate class of cases in classical Greek of the use of οὐ in the protasis of a conditional sentence such as Soph. Aj. 1131. This Mr. Jannaris regards as the classical prototype of εἰ οὐ in such writers as Aristides and Aelian. The difference, of course, is that in the Sophoclean passage οὐ affects a single word, whereas in post-classical Greek it negatives the whole clause. It is not true that classical Greek "admitted only the infinitival construction after οἶομαι and νομίζω (p. 571). In Xen. Hell., V. 4. 62, we find νομίσαντες ὅτι, and οἶμαι τοῦτο ὅτι occurs in Protag. 345 D. in what Mr. Gildersleeve calls "a case of especial temptation." The book is remarkably free from proof-reader's errors. We have noted the following: P. 410 mid., for "hew" read "new"; p. 459. footnote, for "particles" read "participles; p. 485, for "rquiring" read "requiring." We hardly think that Mr. Jannaris really means that καί connects words "in a free and easy manner" (p. 401); "stylish composition" (p. 564) is another slip of the same kind; in the phrase, "Each of these moods was of its own an exponent" (p. 552), there seems to be a lapse into French idiom. The admirable indices, covering 156 pp., add greatly to the value of the book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Atkinson, T. D., and Clark, J. W. Cambridge Described and Illustrated. Macmillan. $7.
Bailey, L. H. Lessons with Plants. Macmillan.
Banks, Rev. L. A. Immortal Hymns and Their Story. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co. $3.
Barrows, Rev. J. H. A World-Pilgrimage. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.
Bryant, Sophie. The Teaching of Morality in the Family and the School. [The Ethical Library.] London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Carruth, Prof. W. H. Schiller's Wilhelm Tell. Macmillan. 50c.
Carpenter, Prof. G. R. Principles of English Grammar. Macmillan. 75c.
Converted Catholic. Vol. XIV. New York: James A. O'Connor.
Dickens, Charles. Old Lamps for New Ones, and Other Sketches and Essays. New Amsterdam Book Co. $1.25.
Du Maurier, George. A Legend of Camelot. Pictures and Poems. Harpers.
Durand, E. D. The Finances of New York City. Macmillan. $2.
Encyclopædia of Sport. Vol. I., A—Leo. Putnams. $10.
Falklands. Illustrated. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Fortescue, J. W. The Story of a Red Deer. Macmillan. $1.50.
George, Henry. Progress and Poverty. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.
Gordy, W. F. A History of the United States for Schools. Scribners. $1.
Gosse, Edmund. A Short History of Modern English Literature. Appletons. $1.50.
Heffernan, F. S. The Palmetto. F. T. Neely.
Hillis, N. D. The Investment of Influence. F. H. Revell Co. $1.25.
Hooper, George. The Campaign of Sedan. New ed. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Huntington, Rev. W. R. A National Church. Scribners. $1.
Kodak Portfolio. Rochester: Eastman Co.
Luttgen, F. W. A Sound, Honest, True, and Stable Money. New York: The Author. $2.50.
MacDonald, Prof. William. Select Documents Illustrative of the History of the United States, 1776-1861. Macmillan. $2.25.
Newcomb, Florence D. The Carnival of Venice, and Other Poems. F. T. Neely.
Norman, J. H. Universal Cambist. London: Effingham Wilson; New York: Putnams. $3.
Penn, Rachel. A Son of Israel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Poetical Works of John Milton. [Apollo Poets.] Whittaker. $1.75.
Poetical Works of Robert Burns. [Apollo Poets.] Whittaker. $1.75.
Poetical Works of William Wordsworth. [Apollo Poets.] Whittaker. $1.75.
Pollard, A. F. Political Pamphlets. [The Pamphlet Library.] Henry Holt & Co.
Porter, Rose. Shakspere's Men and Women. E. R. Herrick & Co. $1.25.
Rawle, Francis. Bouvier's Law Dictionary. Revised and brought up to date. Vol. I. Boston: Boston Book Co. $6.
Rhys, Ernest. Literary Pamphlets, Chiefly relating to Poetry. [The Pamphlet Library.] 2 vols. Henry Holt & Co.
Speyers, Prof. C. L. Text-Book of Physical Chemistry. D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.25.
Stall, Rev. Sylvanus. What a Young Man Ought to Know. Philadelphia: Vir Publishing Co. $1.
Stead, W. T. Satan's Invisible World Displayed. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Stillman, W. J. The Old Rome and the New, and Other Essays. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Stirling, J. H. The Secret of Hegel. New ed. Edinburgh: Oliver & Boyd; New York: Putnams. $5.
Students' Standard Dictionary. Funk & Wagnalls. $2.
St. Nicholas. 1897. 2 vols. Century Co.
Tarr, Prof. R. S. Suggestions for Laboratory and Field Work in High School Geology. Macmillan. 25c.
Thorpe, Prof. T. E. A Manual of Inorganic Chemistry. New ed. 2 vols. London: William Collins, Sons & Co.; New York: Putnams. $4.50.
Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations. Vol. X. Hurons: 1636. Vol. XI. Hurons and Quebec: 1636-1637. Vol. XII. Quebec: 1637. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.
Vlymen, W. T. First Reading Book. Second Reading Book. [Columbus Series.] Catholic School Book Co.
Warfield, Prof. B. B. The Significance of the Westminster Standards as a Creed. Scribners. 75c.
Waring, Col. G. E., jr. Street-Cleaning. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.25.
Whitby, Beatrice. Sunset. Appletons. $1.
Woodhouse, W. J. Aetolia: its Geography, Topography, and Antiquities. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Worcester, John. Matthew's Gospel. Boston: Massachusetts New-Church Union. 75c.

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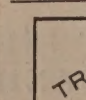

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 27, 1898.

The Week.

The Senate silver resolution, which was given precedence of Hawaiian annexation and all other business a week ago, bore the unmistakable marks of stock speculation. Stocks have been going up lately in a rather rapid way—perhaps too rapid for safety. If a clique on the short side of the market, or a certain number of speculating Senators wanting to "get in at a lower level," were concerned in this movement, they would naturally bring forward a resolution to scare timid people, and they would frame it in such a way as to secure a large vote for it without committing anybody to the free coinage of silver. The larger the vote, the greater the scare. It is lamentable indeed that the business of the country should be exposed to such barbarian attacks, such wanton shocks, whenever a clique of stock speculators, or a political faction, think they can see a gain for themselves by giving a fresh blow to public confidence. Perhaps we shall always have a party of disorder in the commonwealth to prevent the sober and industrious classes from forgetting their political duties.

We hear the opinion confidently expressed by knowing observers in Washington, that if that eminent citizen, the President, would put into the business of currency reform even one-half of the energy and enterprise he is expending on the annexation of Hawaii, he would carry a satisfactory financial measure. But how can we believe this, seeing that we elected this eminent citizen for the express purpose of reforming the currency, and that if he had not promised to reform it, he could not have been elected? "Oh, but he is leaving the whole matter to the wisdom of Congress," it is said. Then why does he not leave the annexation of Hawaii to the wisdom of Congress? Why is he so busy and earnest about that? He was not elected for that. No mention was made of it in that anxious summer of 1896. It was not in order to get Hawaii that tens of thousands of honest Democrats and of kicking, cantankerous Mugwumps fell into line and voted for the "Advance Agent of Prosperity." Most of these disbelieved in the possibility of restoring prosperity through Dingley's tariff, but they supported the Advance Agent just the same, being willing to let him have his tariff if he only gave them a stable standard of value. The conduct of the Agent, if it be really true that he is occupied by Hawaii, and cares nothing, or seems to care nothing, about the currency, is inexplicable in an honest man, and we know Mr. McKinley is honest because he is religious, and religion includes honesty. He cannot have pretended to care about the currency when he did not. If in Canton he were to betray the confidence of his neighbors in this way—that is, "swear to his own hurt and then change" (Ps. xv. 4)—there would be a terrible row. Nobody would pray for him when he went away. He would depart with his gripsack, unwept, unhonored, and unsung. But how is it any less disreputable to do so to a great party, numbering millions, concerning a great public interest? The Agent may depend upon it that when he comes to his final account, and is asked what he did to fulfil his vow and reform the currency, his exertions about Hawaii will not be accepted as a set-off. Nor will Dingley be able to help him, for Dingley himself will be keeping out of the way, lest he should be asked about the deficit or about the proceeds of the clothing clause.

The whole subject of the strength of the Hawaiian Republic seems to be enveloped in obscurity. We have been told, and have believed for a good while, that if we did not take Hawaii, it would be sure to transfer itself to Great Britain; that, for some mysterious reason, this strong and wise republic could not consent to exist any longer under American protection; that it must be annexed by some Power, but would prefer being annexed by the United States. This is what the eminent Hatch, the Hawaiian Minister in Washington, says, and no one will insinuate that Hatch says what he does not believe. We were settling down comfortably in this somewhat odd faith, when the President of the Republic, Mr. Dole, reached our shores. Of course he is, *ex officio*, a better authority about the views current among the Hawaiian people than the eminent Hatch. After his arrival, while standing beside a radiator in a Chicago hotel, he made several important statements. One was that Hawaii was not at present prepared to wage war with any great Power. This was made simply to show that if any great Power made an attempt to conquer the Republic, it could not resist without help from the United States. He then took up the question, What will happen to the Republic if the United States refuses to annex? The Bureau holds, and has always held, that it will then offer itself to any of the Powers which stand waiting to see what we are going to do about the matter. President Dole denies this. "If the Senate," said he, "refuses to adopt the treaty now before it, I suppose the Republic will go on as before." This admission was hard for Hatch to bear, but he bore it, merely shaking his head in sign of dissent. President Dole also admitted that "he could not say how many Hawaiians are for annexation, and how many are opposed to it." We thus see that as the Republic is able to stand alone, and to "go on as before," it would not be well to find out what proportion of the natives are in favor of annexation. What is the use of knowing? What have they got to do with it?

The gravity of Chairman Hitt's speech on the Cuban question in the House on January 19 lies as much in its implications as in what he explicitly said. He is at the head of the House committee on foreign affairs. He spoke after repeated consultations with the President, and distinctly foreshadowed the President's policy. When he affirmed that Mr. McKinley would "not disappoint the expectations of his countrymen," and set the galleries applauding this sentiment, he made it clear that the Administration contemplates intervention—forcible intervention, if need be—in Cuban affairs. Indeed, Mr. Hitt's speech was largely a glorification of the steps preliminary to intervention which the President had already taken. The actual communications of our Government to that of Spain have not yet been made public, but Mr. Hitt, who must have seen them, gave a summary of their contents. Mr. McKinley, he declared, had protested with emphasis and energy against Gen. Weyler's conduct of the war, and had secured his recall in disgrace. Furthermore (and this is now said for the first time by authority), he had "informed the Sagasta Government that the war must cease and proposals for settlement be made within a reasonable time." This is, of course, the baldest intervention, and plainly has the threat of force behind it. In fact, Mr. Hitt's whole argument against action by Congress was that it would be unwise to hamper the President in the action which he was preparing to take. Congress was to remember that there was "a faithful pilot at the helm," and was to be "patient and ready to support him if he takes the step which the honor and interests of our country may demand." If that does not signify that Mr. McKinley contemplates forcible intervention, and that speedily, words have no meaning.

The authorities at Washington naturally seek to minimize the importance of the dispatch of a war-ship to Havana. It is only an ordinary routine naval assignment, they say. But time and

manner often make an ordinary thing extraordinary, and they seem to do so in this case. No American men-of-war have visited Havana for more than two years, and the reason has not been concealed. We wished not to offend Spanish sensibilities. We also wished not to provoke American inflammabilities. If the reason was good for two years, it ought to be good longer, unless some change has occurred in the situation, which is denied. What the step amounts to, therefore, is a willingness to disregard Spanish sensibilities and to risk the effect on American inflammabilities. What has moved the President to take the step? There is much guessing, but the strong probability is that he was told he had to do something to appease the Republicans in Congress. They have heroically consented to eat their own words of a year ago, and to go manfully into the "hole" which their own hands had digged, but they have not at all liked the operation, and very likely have notified Mr. McKinley that he must make haste to fulfil Mr. Hitt's prophecy that he would, in the Cuban matter, not disappoint the hopes of his countrymen. The open expressions of joy and relief uttered by Republican Congressmen when they heard of the sailing of the *Maine*, bear out this view. But they also contain a warning to the President. He must see that if he says A to the Jingoes, he must also say B, or, as one Senator expressed it, fill Havana harbor with war-ships. If the Spanish are excitable, what is our press, what are our Legislatures, our Congress? A war-ship is a curious kind of oil on troubled waters, though the Administration would have us believe the *Maine* to be about the most unctuously peaceful ship that ever sailed.

Mr. Dingley is terribly sarcastic at the expense of the "chatterers" about his beloved deficit. Customs revenues in January will be about double what they were in August; what have you got to say to that? Well, the obvious thing to say (which Mr. Dingley does not say) is that, double revenue or not, the deficit so far this month is more than $8,000,000, so far in the fiscal year more than $50,000,000. Now when we bear in mind that the tariff under which these glorious results have been obtained was passed in order to secure increased revenue "without delay, hindrance, or postponement," and that the tariff which it superseded showed a deficit in its last year only one-third as great as the Dingley deficit is in its first seven months, there seems to be still a good deal of chattering matter left. The way for Mr. Dingley to silence the chatterers is, not to bring out a fresh line of prophecies, but to produce his surplus revenue.

The people who expect any great falling off in immigration if the pending restriction bill shall become a law are destined to be disappointed. A record of the illiterates over fourteen years of age among those who arrived during the last year was kept, and the Commissioner-General reports that the number reached only 44,580. This included 1,572 who could read but not write, and the Spooner amendment would admit such. The total must also have included some thousands who would come within the excepted classes in the pending bill, as the illiterate wives or minor children, or parents or grandparents, of immigrants previously admitted. The "hordes" who are to be kept out by the educational test are thus reduced to pretty small proportions.

The Republicans who are fighting the Quay machine in Pennsylvania talk as though they "meant business." A conference of representative business men opposed to Quay rule in all parts of the State is to be held at Philadelphia on the 2d of February, and the leaders in the movement declare that they will then nominate a first-class man for Governor, whom they will support and whom Quay can support or not as he chooses. If this programme shall be carried out, Pennsylvania politics will be rendered extremely interesting this year. We observe, however, with some apprehension, that certain "conservative" members of the Business Men's League oppose the selection of a candidate who has been "aggressively antagonistic to Senator Quay," on the ground that the latter would not accept him as a compromise candidate, and that, if a split in the party should ensue, a Democrat might be elected, and the loss of the Governor to the Republican party would be blamed upon the League. For these reasons they are in favor of agreeing upon a candidate whom Senator Quay would be more likely to accept. If these "conservatives" get control of the conference, the anti-Quay movement in Pennsylvania will amount to no more than the anti-Platt movements in this State, which ended in agreeing to take candidates who suited the Boss.

The Croker Government is a good deal alarmed by the magnitude of its first budget for the administration of the city. Instead of being from $60,000,000 to $75,000,000, as was estimated before consolidation, the prospect now is that the appropriation for the first year will be nearer $100,000,000 than $75,000,000. The most portentous agent of increased expenditure seems to be the new borough system, which was looked upon during the charter agitation as one of the chief influences which were to transform human nature in this part of the world. Nearly all the department estimates which have been made thus far call for many hundred thousand dollars in addition to the combined sums expended by the separate divisions of the city before consolidation, because of the new machinery created by the boroughs. Thus, the Health Department must have about $350,000 more than previous Health Departments in the old divisions had, because of the new officials and higher salaries created, and the separate organizations required for the boroughs. The Park Board must have about $250,000 more than the separate Park Boards had last year, chiefly because of the expense of setting up separate "administrative authority in the Borough of the Bronx." The Bronx Commission not only must have a "staff of engineers" at $10,000 a year in salaries, but must have a borough building for them to meet in, and other necessary accompaniments. This is the way it goes all through the new system, and the only way in which the Mayor seems to be able to meet the rising tide of appropriation is to lose his temper and scold the persons who call attention to the charter's requirements.

There has been a struggle between the Mayor and the Council as to which should be permitted to exercise one of the most momentous of the features of the "larger measure of home rule" which the new charter bestows upon the city, and the Council has won. The Mayor, acting in accordance with the basic theory of his administration, to wit, that everything in the way of office or "plum" belongs to Mr. Croker, and should be dispensed in accordance with his personal wishes, caused an ordinance to be introduced in the Municipal Assembly giving him absolute control over the issuing of all licenses for street encumbrances, etc. The members of the Council took alarm when this first appeared, and sent a deputation to call on the Mayor with an ultimatum, which was, that they would not consent to the passage of the ordinance unless the Mayor would pledge himself to honor their recommendations in the exercise of his power over licenses. They demanded recognition, in other words, for all their men in the bestowal of licenses for newsstands and other privileges on the sidewalks of the city. The Mayor refused this, as he was bound to do, for it placed the wishes of the Councillors above those of the Boss. The Councillors have accordingly defeated his ordinance, and the distribution of licenses will be made on the broadest basis of home rule.

The sorrow and alarm which the Democrats of other boroughs than Manhattan are expressing over the conduct of Mayor Van Wyck in cutting off their share in the offices of the enlarged city are very moving. They did their utmost

to put Tammany in possession, and now that they detect strong evidences of a purpose on Tammany's part to grab everything for itself, they feel hurt, and even begin to suspect that their innocence has been played upon. They go to the architects and defenders of the new charter, and ask them if the Mayor has any right to refuse to carry that sacred instrument into effect in every detail, giving to the outlying boroughs all the offices and emoluments which are granted by it to them. The renowned De Witt of the Borough of Brooklyn, who is one of the fathers of the charter, says in effect that the Mayor is "all wrong," that the "provisions of the charter are mandatory," that "no man is above the law," that "the charter provides the boroughs with certain administrative functions," and that "to deprive them of these would, of course, be an attempt to defeat the aims of the charter and be a violation of its provisions." That is unquestionably true. There is not a particle of doubt that the "aims of the charter" provide a great flood of offices and expenditures for all the boroughs. That is the reason why all the politicians of all the boroughs were so hot in favor of consolidation. For Tammany to say through its Mayor that the Borough of Manhattan shall have everything and the other boroughs as little as possible, is a breach of faith which ought to be denounced by every man who voted to put Tammany in power. The idea of Mayor Van Wyck saying that he was not going to be Mayor of five cities, but of one!

Now that Germany has promptly agreed, on the British demand, to open any Chinese ports she gets hold of to all the world for trade, one begins to wonder why Brother Henry was sent out. Henry's parting with his sacred brother led the world to believe that he was to have encounters with somebody, and hairbreadth escapes; but it now appears that his sole mission was to open ports, with the consent of everybody concerned, to the peaceful commerce of the world. In fact, it begins to look as if the whole affair was an attempt to bully England which was promptly nipped by Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's warlike speech. It looks, too, a little as if it was the prolonged gentleness and timidity of Lord Salisbury's policy which raised up so many enemies for England and created her much-talked-of "isolation." Sir Michael Hicks-Beach and Mr. Chamberlain have at last reached a comprehension, through the bye-elections, of the effect this policy is having on the public and of the disgust excited by "the Concert of the Powers." The "Powers" apparently used the "Concert" simply to humiliate England and make her feel helpless, and began to try to mine her colonial empire and block her channels of trade, as soon as they had got the Turk into a position to defy her. It is pleasant to find that merely showing her teeth has sufficed to keep the peace. Pleasanter than all, however, happier for man than any "Concert of the Powers," is the open declaration of the first of the sea Powers that she stands for open ports and for free trade. To be sure, it is for her own benefit, for she holds 80 per cent. of the China trade, but everybody is and will be at perfect liberty to take it from her if he can.

Mr. Chamberlain, whom Lord Farrer styles "one of the most powerful members of the [British] Government," having been beaten in his Zollverein scheme for the working of those "neglected estates," the colonies, has now propounded a plan for the relief of the West Indies. The first Conservative idea was to put a countervailing duty on foreign sugar—that is, the beet-sugar of France and Germany—the manufacture of which is promoted by bounties. A resolution recommending this was passed by a conference of Conservative delegates in November last. But this met with little favor, because there was no getting over the fact that duties on foreign sugar would increase the price of sugar to the Englishman, and the consumption of sugar by Englishmen is enormous. Mr. Chamberlain saw this, and has "gone them one better." He announced last week that the Chancellor of the Exchequer had consented to make a "very large grant in aid" to the West Indies "to enable the [sugar] industry and population to tide over a crisis, until Continental nations recognized the impolicy of the bounty system." This system of "grants in aid" is evidently to be, under Mr. Chamberlain's directing, the Conservative mode of getting round the popular hostility to protection. Finding there was no chance of the revival of a duty on corn, they made a remission of $12,500,000 in taxes to the landed interest. They have increased the grant in aid to the denominational schools, and we may be sure that, once the ball is set fairly rolling, grants in aid will multiply. There is nothing like the appetite of "interests" for grants in aid. These grants are simply another mode of giving the taxpayers' money to particular classes to help them to carry on business which does not pay. Instead of allowing them to take their stand at the ports and get their money out of duties, the Government takes the money out of the Treasury and gives it to them as a "bonus."

The fact is that, in the present state of the world, all industries are exposed to the vicissitudes which have been introduced by improvements in production, by the increased facilities of communication, and by the increased mobility of capital. Governments are everywhere being called to protect them against these vicissitudes—in other words, to prevent the operation, in their case, of the ordinary laws of trade. There is no proof that a grant in aid will set the West Indian islands on their legs. Their sugar would still have to compete with the sugar of India, of Queensland, of Mauritius, of Fiji, and elsewhere, all British possessions. If these countries find that the grant in aid enables the West Indies to take their market from them, they will have a still better claim to a slice of some kind of assistance from the British Treasury. Nothing has been made clearer by recent events than that sugar-growing is not the best industry for the West Indies to engage in. During the next few years, especially if Cuba should be pacified, the production of sugar elsewhere is likely to be greatly increased. The work before the West Indies is, therefore, not to stay in a losing business, by begging, but to find out in what industry it is that their soil, climate, and labor give them a clear advantage.

Whatever else the Paris rioting proves, or does not prove, it proves the mischief of secret trials. Suppose Jameson had been tried in England, as Dreyfus was in France, behind closed doors, and none of the evidence, only the verdict, given out? We might have seen in London such nervous excitement, fed on wild rumor, as Paris has been suffering from for the past week. The secrecy of the original Dreyfus trial was bad, and the semi-secrecy of the Esterhazy trial was worse. The public was permitted to know only of the evidence that looked black for Major Esterhazy; but the evidence on the strength of which he was acquitted and the guilt of Dreyfus practically reaffirmed, was kept secret. It is clear, however, that the case turns very largely on a question of handwriting, and the chances for deception in this are notoriously great. It must be said that some of the inferences of the French tribunal on this subject were uncommonly like the reasoning in the famous trial in 'Alice in Wonderland.' It will be remembered that there, too, a letter, containing a set of verses, was the chief thing:

"Are they in the prisoner's handwriting?" asked another of the jurymen.

"No, they're not," said the White Rabbit, "and that's the queerest thing about it." (The jury all looked puzzled.)

"He must have imitated somebody's else hand," said the King. (The jury all brightened up again).

"Please your Majesty," said the Knave, "I didn't write it, and they can't prove I did; there's no name signed at the end."

"If you didn't sign it," said the King, "that only makes the matter worse. You must have meant some mischief, or else you'd have signed your name like an honest man."

There was a general clapping of hands at this; it was the first really clever thing the King had said that day.

"That *proves* his guilt," said the Queen.

THE PEDIGREE OF THE TELLER RESOLUTION.

Senator Vest, discussing last Thursday the Teller resolution which declares the public debt to be redeemable in silver, remarked that since the vote on a similar resolution, twenty years ago, "a new generation has come into existence and entered upon the active duties of life"; and he intimated that these younger citizens needed to have the past recalled to them. We agree with Mr. Vest that a useful purpose may be served by recalling to the minds of a younger generation, and perhaps of a forgetful older generation, the past history of this congressional resolution.

As the authors of the pending measure explain, it is virtually a verbatim copy of the resolution introduced by Senator Stanley Matthews, January 16, 1878. But in order to trace the Teller resolution's actual pedigree, we shall have to carry back the reader, not twenty years, but thirty. The bonds of the United States issued during the civil war were habitually made redeemable in coin; and for the express purpose of providing coin to meet the current interest, payment of customs dues was required in that form of money. In two or three of the early acts to authorize bond issues, the coin-redemption provision did not appear. This omission, as the Secretary of the Treasury observed in his report of 1864, "was accidental, as there could have been no intention to make a distinction between the different classes of securities in this regard." Such was the supposition at the time not only of the Secretary, but of everybody else.

But in 1868, seeking an "issue" under much the same circumstances and with much the same leadership as those of 1896, the Democratic party grasped at this omission in the bond statutes of the war, and boldly declared, in their Presidential platform, that "when the obligations of the Government do not expressly state upon their face, or the law under which they were issued does not provide, that they shall be paid in coin, they ought in right and in justice to be paid in the lawful money of the United States"—meaning by this, of course, in legal-tender notes. This resolution, we have no hesitation in affirming, is the true parent of the Teller resolution of 1898, as it was of the Matthews resolution of 1878. Indeed, this declaration of thirty years ago has much the same superficial argument to commend it to the shallow mind as is possessed by the more recent declaration for silver payment. Because the war bonds could not be sold at par for gold, the Government had consented to take notes for certain issues, and in other cases notes had been made explicitly convertible into bonds. Therefore, said the opposition statesmen of 1868, since the bonds were bought with legal tenders, let them be redeemed in legal tenders.

The proposition, thus submitted to the people, was made the pivot of a Presidential canvass. Before the campaign was half over, the common sense of the American voter had pierced the cloud of sophistry surrounding the argument, and had grasped the salient fact, which any intelligent citizen could understand, that because a nation had chosen to give its bonds for its notes, there was not the slightest honesty or propriety in assuming that the bonded debt was payable in notes. With equal propriety might an individual, after placing a mortgage to redeem his notes-of-hand, coolly propose to pay off the mortgage in new promises to pay. The people's opinion of this impudent proposition found expression, in the 1868 election, by an electoral vote of 214 to 80 against the plan, and an adverse popular majority of 309,000. The term repudiation, then and afterwards applied to this plan of shirking honest payment of the public debt, had for many years after the vote of 1868 so bitter a taste as to make revival of the plan impossible.

The refunding act of 1870 provided for a series of bond issues payable, interest and principal, in "coin." It is under the provisions of this law, supplemented by the resumption act of 1875, that all subsequent bond issues of our Government have been made. But when this law was passed, in 1870, the only coin in circulation, outside the fractional issues, was gold. Dr. Linderman's Mint Report of 1870 showed that since the foundation of the Government only 4,291,640 silver dollars had been coined, and that of these 2,320,000 had been coined before the middle of the century. Up to and long after 1870, all our silver was exported; the suggestion that the public debt might be redeemed in silver would have been dismissed in that year as simply silly. But after 1874, when the enormously rich Nevada silver mines were opened up, came a sudden decline in the market price of silver. Before 1878 the metal reached a price which made the 412½ grains of the former silver dollar worth on the bullion market less than one hundred cents.

Here was an inducement which brought simultaneously upon the scene the silver free-coinage agitators and the old repudiation leaders. Thinking that 1868 must by this time be forgotten, the repudiators introduced in January, 1878, the famous Matthews resolution, of which Mr. Teller's pending declaration is a duplicate. The case was as clear against the dishonest plan in 1878 as it had been in 1868. Indeed, there was in the later year an element of the ridiculous; for the Bland bill had not passed when Senator Matthews forced his measure to a vote, and yet the "bond resolution" calmly declared that, in the judgment of Congress, it was right and proper to pay the public debt in a coin which not only did not exist except on paper when the funding act was passed, but which in 1878 did not yet exist even on paper. This extraordinary declaration Mr. Matthews and his friends so framed as to cover not only future bond issues, but the large issues placed by the Government between 1870 and 1878, for which gold had been required and received by the Treasury. The Matthews resolution passed both houses of Congress, and there it rested as an empty expression of the crude opinion of a single Congress—an opinion which Mr. Hayes and his Treasury administration were wholly at liberty to disregard. They did thus disregard it.

This second repudiation movement reckoned confidently that in a year of almost unparalleled industrial distress the people's angry discontent would applaud any such piece of sharp practice with the public creditor. Its authors reckoned, too, that if the Hayes Administration ignored the resolution, there would at any rate be cast in the congressional elections a heavy anti-Administration vote, based on the disputed title of 1876, and that the silver legislators might claim such a vote as their personal vindication. In both regards they reckoned without their host, and met the same fate as the political calculators of 1868. The sound common sense of the American voter again grasped the real facts in the controversy, and the outcome, in November, 1878, was in effect a sweeping victory, in the face of all these odds, for the anti-repudiation President and cabinet. The blow was stinging and severe enough to bury the Matthews resolution and its principles for twenty years.

But now at length Senator Teller, in his excursions through the political graveyards of American history, has dug up this mouldy corpse and thrust it before the faces of a new generation. Not a single new argument in its favor is adduced; the Senate finance committee's silver majority has not even had the wit to change the language which the people flatly rebuked in 1878. The only novelty in this clumsy congressional performance is the fact that the resolution now applies as well to $262,000,000 bonds sold in good faith for gold since 1893. The proposed repudiation is a little more sweeping in its scope than it was in 1878; this is the only difference. It is proposed with a House of Representatives as certainly against the scheme as it was in favor of it during 1878, and with a people educated by a recent anti-silver Presidential canvass, as they certainly were not twenty years ago. What kind of politics this is, even from the point of view of an inveterate repudiationist, we find it hard to say.

MORE BUREAU.

The latest thesis of the Hawaiian Literary Bureau is that Hawaii would be a good place to fight in. The argument that if we got Hawaii as a place to fight in, we should have to have a fleet and fortifications to protect it, is met by the following piece of ratiocination, the massive strength of which we admit is discouraging:

> "But there are some who argue that the possession of the islands would be a source of weakness to this country, because it would have to maintain fortifications and garrisons and a fleet there to protect them, and thus would have to divide its forces, instead of concentrating them all for continental defence. Yes. It is a pity, then, that we ever annexed California and Oregon, since that gave us two coast-lines to defend instead of one, and compelled us to divide our forces, instead of concentrating them all upon the Atlantic Coast. Perhaps it would be well to relinquish the coast altogether and be content with an exclusively inland domain. Then we should not have to maintain any navy or any coast defences at all. In fact, it might be the part of wisdom to abandon the whole country to some other Power. Then we should not have even to keep up a police force. But somehow or other such reasoning does not greatly commend itself to the average American mind. Perhaps because we are a stiff-necked and perverse generation."

It would seem, then, that if you cannot sally out and take something that does not belong to you 2,000 miles away, there is no use in holding or defending your own home occupied by your own family. The *reductio ad absurdum*, that, by parity of reasoning, if you cannot seize your neighbor's house, you might as well abandon your own, has a crushing effect. There is absolutely no answer to it. If you take your neighbor's property and cannot keep it by force, what is the use of keeping or defending your own? If you cannot take an island in the Pacific from its people against their will, why should you want to keep this continent? We really do not know.

The Bureau also has got the help of Mr. Frederick W. Seward, and prints a letter from him which it evidently thinks important, judging by the type. We have always considered Mr. Seward a quiet, conservative gentleman, but the Bureau has suddenly converted him into a sort of Genghis Khan, in favor, like Genghis, of indefinite expansion, right or wrong, moral or immoral—you-shut-up-and-get-out-of-the-way sort of man. He does not go quite so far as the Bureau, by showing that, if we do not take Hawaii, strict logic requires us to abandon the continent of North America, but he shows that every one who has ever opposed any sort of annexation has languished the remainder of his days in obscurity and disgrace. All this apropos of "the Louisiana purchase, the Florida cession, the Gadsden purchase, and the California acquisition," and the Alaska purchase. But, putting aside the fact that these acquisitions were large tracts of uninhabited territory on our own continent, which we desired to settle, and did settle, with our own population, let us remind Mr. Seward of something really parallel to the proposed annexation of Hawaii. Has he not heard of the attempts to acquire San Domingo and St. Thomas? These attempts were pushed by the very same arguments as are now used to push the annexation of Hawaii—naval station, coaling station, commercial and military "key," other Powers waiting to purchase or seize, British agents intriguing, "people" eager to join us, and so on. Yet these attempts did not succeed, and the men who opposed them—including Sumner, Morrill, Edmunds, Schurz, Bayard—did not sink into either oblivion or ignominy.

Now, the bulk of sensible, sober Americans are glad these attempts did not succeed. We know several who were energetic and active in their opposition to them. Not one thinks this opposition was "the greatest mistake of his life." Not one is looked on as "a man who tried and failed to bar the national progress." On the contrary, they are well and hearty, and absolutely court publicity as men proud of having prevented the republic from making the hideous mistake of purchasing islands inhabited by a mongrel race unused to constitutional government, and quite used to assassination, revolutions, earthquakes, and hurricanes. They felt that besides the damage to our governmental system and national credit which would be wrought by having politicians keeping the admission of such communities as equal sovereign States constantly hanging over our heads, by having our newspapers filled every day with accounts of the fresh scandals created by the operations of the carpet-baggers among the negroes, the dagoes, the coolies, and so on, there would be the gross abuse of using the taxes to protect acquisitions which neither strengthen union, "nor establish justice, nor insure domestic tranquillity, nor provide for the common defence, nor promote the general welfare, nor secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity."

Genghis Khan's position was, in fact, far more defensible than ours, as an expander. He was in favor of expansion because, as he openly avowed, he liked the fun of expanding. He enjoyed killing people who resisted annexation and piling their heads up in pyramidal form. He indulged in no hypocritical pretences about their wanting to be annexed, or about the good annexation would do them. He just annexed. He had no "instinctive pride" in expansion, and did not care a cent about "growing greatness." But he was a sterner logician than any of the dialecticians of the Bureau. He had a way of silencing opponents vastly more effective than theirs. No man who faced him in argument is known ever to have been heard of again. He did not even linger in obscurity.

RESPONSIBILITY.

Gov. Black is being rightly warned of the "responsibility" he is incurring in providing simply for an investigation of his own into the canal scandal, and putting off any report on it till next year. Appeals and invectives are both being lavished upon him, to get him to be careful of what he is about, and vague threats are made of what will happen if he does the wrong thing. Well, in our belief, he knows better what he is about than his critics. The remonstrances addressed to him are interesting illustrations of the way in which, in politics, a nomenclature may survive after the things to which it was originally applied have disappeared. For instance, under the old government of New York, such things as the canal scandal would have lain entirely within the province of the Legislature. It is the Legislature which would have been indignant about it, which would have inquired into it, would have settled by whom the inquiry should be conducted, to whom and when the report should be made, and what action should be taken about it. The Governor would simply have called attention to it, and have made recommendations about it, but the Legislature would have considered his recommendations, and, in its wisdom or discretion, have accepted or rejected them.

Under the present government, the Legislature seems to have nothing, or very little, to do with the matter. The Governor has apparently complete control of it. It is he who decides whether it shall be inquired into, who shall inquire into it, and when and to whom the report shall be made. All the remonstrances addressed to him about it imply that it is his will which will rule, and not that of the Legislature. The rôle of the Legislature has, in fact, for some time been covertly that of the Parlement of Paris under Louis XIV., that of a body which simply registers edicts. There is, however, no longer any concealment about the matter, or necessity for concealment. The Governor is openly treated as the only person whose opinion as to the action of the State Government about the canals need be discussed. This is really an immense change in our system. It is nearly as great a change in the State as the Croker régime in the city, but it is disguised by the continued use of the old terms and forms.

The Governor is warned, however, that if he does wrong or makes a mistake, he will be "called to account"; he will be "held responsible." Disagreeable questions will be asked of him. The People will be angry. Something unpleasant will happen to him. Here again the whole situation is disguised by the use of the old nomenclature. We get no clear idea who will call the Governor to account, or in what manner he will

suffer, if he does not do his duty. He, however, knows perfectly well. What will happen will be simply what happened to Hill in 1894. He will be beaten at the polls by another Governor of exactly the same type and the same notions of expediency and responsibility. There will be no change whatever in the system. Croker will take Platt's place, and things will go on as before. The Legislature will be called "Democratic" instead of "Republican," but this will be the only difference. It will be composed of the same sort of men as this one, but more of them will be Irishmen. It will have the same ideas of duty, honor, patriotism, and expediency. It will be somewhat more hostile to our civilization, and more indifferent, if possible, to the fate of our democratic experiment, than this one. But this is all. The one relic of our old government we have preserved in the State is the power of punishing wrongdoers at the polls; but the power of mending the wrongdoing or preventing its repetition we have apparently lost.

How has this come about? Simply through our nominating system. The mind of the nation has been devoted for half a century to the task, not of selecting proper persons for our public offices, but of creating machinery for selecting them. We have acted as if the chief end of the American man was, not to fill offices fitly, but to get them filled; as if the greatest work of government was, not to secure competent candidates, but to secure candidates. The result is that the nominating system has grown to be a bigger and more important thing than our government itself, so that the man who gets hold of it becomes, *ex officio*, Governor. The Legislature becomes merely the recorder of his edicts. Gov. Black is not responsible to the people in any sense which makes his responsibility of any use to the people. He is only nominally responsible to the people. If we punish him, we simply make his punishment a reward for another man exactly like him, and he may make terms with this other man for shares in this reward. It is all very much as if a family were to be so much occupied in deciding what shoemaker they would employ, and thought the selection of such importance, that they never got time to leave their measure with any one, and went barefoot.

Under these circumstances, the continued devotion of so many people to the "primary"—that is, to the comparatively insignificant task of saying who shall run for the governorship or the Legislature—is something very odd. It is all the odder because the primary has shown an irresistible tendency to decline in efficiency as the work of nomination has become more important. We have had primaries for fifty years, and for fifty years the quality of the men they have selected for office has been slowly but steadily running down. Attempts to reform have come only when primaries at last actually ceased to do any work at all and turned their function over to a man not elected at all. If any criticism on the work of the convention for primary reform now in session were called for, it would be criticism of the continuance of the work of "keeping the party together" by organization and rules and regulations—as if, in short, the creation of a huge nominating machine were more important than the quality of the men nominated. What is most important in our politics is the free and untrammelled expression of the opinion of the citizen, both about measures and about men. Any nominating system, though it were sticking a card in his window, which makes this easy and convenient is good. Any observer of American politics to-day who knew nothing of our history might readily conclude that we cared nothing about the character of our public officers or the administration of our laws, as long as we were allowed the privilege of nominating them if we chose to exercise it; and that generally we did not choose.

NEWSPAPERS AND LIBEL.

The subject of newspaper libel suits is attracting as much attention in England as it is in this country, and for much the same reasons. We cited a few weeks ago some excellent observations which the Lord Chief Justice of England made in dismissing several newspaper suits which he fitly styled "trumpery." In a recent issue of the London *Daily News* we find a statement that at a newly opened sitting of the Queen's Bench Division the list of cases contained thirty actions for libel, mostly against newspapers, and in commenting upon these the editor says: "We know nothing about their merits; but of libel actions in the past, a considerable proportion have been got up by a low type of solicitor for the purpose of obtaining costs." We have the same variety of solicitor here, but his object in working up suits is not costs, but a verdict for damages in which he is to go halves.

The burdens imposed upon litigants are not nearly as great in this country as they are in England, and unless a court here grants the successful party to a suit what is known as an extra allowance, the costs in an action for libel are not likely to exceed $200 or $300 at the utmost on either side. Then, too, there is a limit to the amount of costs which a successful plaintiff may recover which is very annoying to the American "low type of solicitor." If the verdict in favor of his client be less than $50 damages, he can recover costs only equal to the amount of the verdict. When, therefore, a suit for $10,000 or $20,000, as the case may be, has been brought against a newspaper, and has resulted in a verdict for the plaintiff of six cents damages, all that the lawyer who has worked it up can get out of it in the way of costs is six cents. The invariable effect of a verdict of this kind in the past has been the prompt discontinuance of many other suits brought with a similar hope of mutual profits.

The English newspapers have no such protection as this, for they are liable to very heavy losses through the recovery of costs. If the plaintiff wins, the newspaper, being able, is compelled to pay the costs in full; but if the defendant wins, it often happens that the plaintiff is impecunious and unable to pay a penny of costs. His solicitor, like his American prototype, then fails to gain anything by his enterprise, since he undertook the suit on speculation. In other words, the English newspaper loses heavily, no matter in which way the suit against it may go.

It is not surprising that under such conditions the English press is urging a less stringent law of libel. In fact, agitation in this direction has been in progress for several years, and a bill which has been before Parliament since 1891 has been brought in again this year. This bill possesses several features that are of interest to us; and our libel lawmakers, including Senator Ellsworth, whose antics upon the subject are too grotesque for serious consideration, would do well to consider them. The English bill, which is supported by members of all political parties, provides in the first place that particulars of the libel or libels, with dates, must be endorsed on the writs. This is to give the defendants an opportunity of at once apologizing or paying money into court, without waiting for the next stage, which would be the statement of the claim. It is estimated in London that this provision would reduce the costs about 70 per cent. The second clause allows alternative pleadings, which are forbidden at present. As the *Daily News* says, under the present law, the "proprietor of a newspaper may not say, 'I deny that this is a libel, but if it be one, forty shillings are ample compensation.' Where is the justice of such a rule? A libel may be true, and yet the truth may be extremely difficult to prove. If the libel be a really bad one, so much the worse for the defendant. But if it be trivial, a small payment should suffice even though the alleged facts cannot be indisputably established." In this country the defendant may plead mitigating circumstances, notwithstanding he has pleaded, or attempted to prove, a justification.

A common peril to newspapers on both sides of the Atlantic lies in the publication of news matter from the regular news associations or agencies. A case which the *Daily News* cites could be

paralleled easily with many similar ones in this country. A solicitor was struck off the Rolls by the High Court of Justice for fraud. His name was read out in court. The reporter of a news agency supplied the address from a Law List. But unfortunately it was the address of another and perfectly innocent solicitor with the same name. To an action of libel in such circumstances there could of course be no defence, and it was right that the aggrieved person should receive reasonable damages. But the libel had been published in twenty newspapers, and the plaintiff proceeded to sue them one by one. The law furnishes a partial remedy for this situation by enabling the newspapers to unite in a joint defence, but this can be rendered useless by the plaintiff if he shall bring his suits one after another, instead of simultaneously. One English solicitor kept a libel in use in this way for three years, never bringing in a new action till an old one had been concluded. The new bill gives a judge power to direct in all such cases of simultaneous libel in several newspapers, that all actions in respect to it must be brought within a specified period.

Another clause of the bill provides that in all cases in which the court is satisfied that the plaintiff is a bankrupt, or will be unable to pay costs in case of losing his suit, it shall issue an order staying all proceedings unless within a specified time the plaintiff can give satisfactory security for such costs. A similar provision is not so necessary in this country as it is in England, because, as we have said, the burden of costs is much lighter here, but at the same time some provision which shall prevent bankrupts and other impecunious persons without character from bringing frivolous suits at the instigation of speculative lawyers would be a great aid to the newspapers, and spare them many thousands of dollars in annual expenditure for suits which never ought to be given standing in court.

ROSSETTI AND MILLAIS.—I.

LONDON, January 3, 1898.

We have heard only too much about the Pre-Raphaelites of late years. Those who knew them best have been at such pains to unload upon the general public all the facts and gossip of their private careers that the very man in the street could pass an examination in the story of their iniquities and weaknesses, their finances and friendships. Indeed, so great has been the attention paid to matters, surely, concerning no one but themselves, that we run the risk of forgetting that they could paint, among their other occupations and amusements, and that their pictures, as well as their old scandals and romances, have survived them.

Just at this juncture, fortunately, the two large exhibitions of the London winter are devoted chiefly to the two masters, the greatest exponents, each in his way, of the Brotherhood. The Royal Academy, according to its announcement of last year, at the time of the Leighton show, has got together a fairly complete collection of the work of Millais. The New Gallery, though it attempts feebly to take over the duty of exhibiting the old masters relinquished by the Academy because art would not pay—a curious comment from a body that includes Mr. Sargent and Mr. Abbey among its members—would prove of no particular interest were it not for the room full of drawings and paintings by Rossetti, interesting in themselves, and doubly so exhibited at this appropriate moment. The series does not pretend to be exhaustive, as is the case with Millais, but it is delightfully representative, and has further the advantage of including nothing that should have been omitted for the sake of Rossetti's reputation; while, at the Academy, it would have been kinder to the memory of Millais had at least two-thirds of the pictures never been hung.

I do not mean that every Rossetti in the gallery is a masterpiece; that could not well be possible, since Rossetti's masterpieces were so very few in proportion to the amount of work he produced. But there is not one that does not reveal the artist, not one that does not give a clue to his overwhelming personality, not one that does not help you to understand the passionate love for beauty of color and form and line that was ever his inspiration—when he failed most signally no less than on those rare occasions when he came as near realizing his ideals on paper or canvas as an artist can. The series covers the years from his "Girlhood of Virgin Mary," his first oil painting, to several of his latest, "La Donna della Finestra," the "Blessed Damozel," the "Vision of Fiammetta;" from his studies for the illustrations to Allingham's 'Music Master' and his own 'Italian Poets' to the large crayon drawings, I believe with Mrs. Morris and Mrs. Stillman as models for the pictures of the "Proserpine" and "Pandora" type.

In the thirty or more years that elapsed from the first to the last he had time to change, modify, and develop his methods. In the "Girlhood of Virgin Mary" it comes as a surprise to find a cool, pale color-scheme, at variance with the more sumptuous harmonies his name now suggests, and there is an unaccustomed touch of naïveté in the funny little Holy Ghost perched in a halo overlooking the Virgin as she meekly embroiders her lilies, and the Mother who watches by her side; an unaccustomed breadth in the treatment of the peaceful landscape beyond, with its quiet waters and great stretch of green country sweeping away to the far blue hills. It is really a wonderful performance for a mere youth, and you can sympathize with his pleasure when he saw it again, almost twenty years afterwards. "I can look at it a long way off now, as the work of quite another 'crittur,'" he wrote to a friend, "and find it to be a long way better than I thought." In the water-colors that followed, there is more of an effort to give rich, gem-like hits of color, to make of the composition a decorative arrangement; as in the black-and-white drawings, the design fills the given space with amazing ingenuity—is well "packed," as it is sometimes put. At his best, the result is an exquisite piece of decoration, as in the "Lucrezia Borgia," the "Paolo and Francesca," the "Sir Galahad, Sir Bors, and Sir Percival fed by the Sangreal," and a dozen others.

But Rossetti was not always at his best, and when, in another room of the New Gallery, your eyes happen to fall on a little picture of "Francis I. and Marguerite of Valois," you are forced to admit that a painter like Bonington brought to his work as fine a feeling for color as Rossetti, and produced his effects with a technical accomplishment Rossetti could never rival. In the same way, a drawing in grisaille of the "Procession to Calvary," by Dürer, in a third room, serves as a reminder that in the decorative fitting-in of the figures in a composition the Pre-Raphaelites, strive as they might and did, never approached the earlier masters of the art. In his larger paintings Rossetti seems carried away by such a passion for color that he would have outdone the Venetians in gorgeousness had he but shared their command of palette and brush, while chance lent him for models two women of a strange luxuriant beauty that, reproduced on canvas, suggested probably far more mystical and esoteric meaning than had ever entered into his original conception. The way he chose his titles shows that much of the symbolism with which his admirers are so impressed meant nothing in particular. One memorable remark of his is an excellent antidote to the insufferable rubbish written about him. He was painting a picture at Kelmscott, and of this he said, as he might have said of many besides, "I have painted the better part of a little picture, but don't know who is to buy it. I can't be bothered to stick idle names on things now—a head is a head; and fools won't buy heads on that footing." But in all these paintings, water-color, pen, pencil, and crayon drawings, differ as they may in medium, method, and quality, you are always conscious of the artist, the poet, at work, but struggling most of the time with a form of expression he had not mastered. He was never at home with paint as with words, and this is the reason why the picture often is better expressed in the lines he left on a margin or a frame. He was haunted by the beauty of color and form, but his accomplishment fell so far short of his intention that to feel his charm, as I have heard it said, it is best to be away from his pictures; to remember, not to see them. Take a picture like the "Vision of Fiammetta," now in the New Gallery—the large, enigmatic woman in flame-colored draperies, with the apple-blossoms trailing their white and rose glory about her—as it pales and grows dim in memory, or as one looks at it through his sonnet, it may come to seem as splendid in color as a Titian, as full of strange, mystic fancies as a Botticelli was to Pater. But in the painting itself, the plain truth is that the color is hot and unpleasant, the figure hard and wooden, the drawing absurd, and the flowers positively offensive in their metallic glitter. Indeed, in almost all the large pictures now exhibited, you are struck but with the unsuccessful effort to do that which was done really incomparably well in the "Mariana," only less well in the "Lilith" and the "Blessed Damozel." In the "Mariana" you have the warmth and richness and splendor that you are sure Rossetti was for ever striving after, the loveliness in the pose of the languid figure and the flow of her ample blue draperies, the exquisiteness in the embroidery

slipping between her idle fingers. Rossetti never painted a more beautiful picture.

I have not attempted anything like a list of the work exhibited, but a few drawings and pictures that have special associations to add to their importance ought to be mentioned. These are his portraits of himself, his mother, and sister, of Ford Madox Brown, above all of Mr. Swinburne, with a pallid face and masses of red hair, which the decadent youths of to-day would give worlds to emulate. Then there are two elaborate, primitive, and fine pen-drawings, inscribed to "Frederic G. Stephens, from his P. R. brother, Dante G. Rossetti," the words varying slightly in the two. It is also amusing to see the original design for the illustration to Allingham's 'Music Master,' about which Rossetti had so very much to say in his letters to Allingham, edited by Dr. Birkbeck Hill for the *Atlantic Monthly*. In these letters one reads how a drawing for it was finished on the block and then discarded, so that it is no surprise to find the first sketch absolutely unlike the published version. Amusing, too, is a remarkable picture of "Queen Guinevere," by William Morris, stated in the catalogue to be the only painting by him. But this can hardly be true. There is reference to another and altogether different picture in a letter of Rossetti's to William Bell Scott. Morris, it says—it was in the summer of 1857—"is now busily painting his first picture, 'Sir Tristram after his Illness in the Garden of King Mark's Palace, recognized by the Dog he had given to Yseult,' from the Morte d'Arthur. It is being done all from nature of course, and I believe will turn out capitally." This helps to explain the distinction of the "Queen Guinevere," for it is not easy to conceive that such good work ever was done in a first and only attempt. In some ways, in the swing and movement of the pose especially, it is far more distinguished than anything I have seen of Rossetti's; it recalls really the grace and elegance of Millais's "Mariana," while the painting of the books, the draperies, and all the accessories is masterly. One ends by wondering if Morris was entirely responsible for any part of it except the face and hands, which are black and dirty. N. N.

THE PAINTINGS AT CHANTILLY.—II.

PARIS, January 12, 1898.

Mignard is represented at Chantilly not merely by the great allegorical picture "Condé's Repentance"; M. Gruyer attributes to him also a portrait of Cardinal Mazarin, which has sometimes been erroneously attributed to Philippe de Champaigne; a portrait of Henrietta, Duchess of Orleans, the youngest daughter of Charles I. and of Henrietta of France; portraits of Louis XIV., of his brother, the Duke of Orleans; of Marie of Bavaria, mother of the Duke of Burgundy; of Henriette de Coligny, Countess de la Suze, who was first married to Thomas Hamilton. The Countess de la Suze was granddaughter of the great Admiral Coligny. She turned Catholic in order to get separated from her husband, who was a drunkard, and whom she detested. Her salon rivalled that of Rambouillet. She was a poetess, and wrote elegies which Boileau pronounced to be "of an infinite charm"—a judgment which has not been ratified by posterity.

The famous Vanloo is represented at Chantilly by a portrait of Thomas Corneille, brother of the illustrious Pierre Corneille. There is not much to say about a few portraits by Lebrun, Sebastien Bourdon, Claude Lefebvre, a pupil of Le Sueur and of Lebrun. Nattier deserves fuller attention; it was probably at Chantilly itself that he made a charming portrait of Mademoiselle de Nantes, daughter of Louis XIV. and of Madame de Montespan, just after her marriage with the grandson of the great Condé. The new Duchess of Bourbon was only seventeen years old; she is represented as a goddess, with a golden sickle in her hand, with light draperies, half-naked limbs, sandals tied with golden strings, a red drapery round her. Saint-Simon describes her as a very fascinating beauty. "Louis XIV.," says M. Gruyer, "gave her something of his majesty, and Madame de Montespan something of her very peculiar beauty."

Largillière, born in 1656, and deceased in 1746, occupies a very commanding place among the painters of the French school. We find at Chantilly a beautiful portrait made by him of the famous tragic actress, Mlle. Duclos. She is represented in "Ariane," a tragedy by Thomas Corneille, at the culminating moment of the dramatic action, when *Ariadne*, in love with *Thesecus*, sees her own sister, *Phædra*, conquering the ungrateful and capricious hero. She is dressed in the style of the end of the reign of Louis XIV. We recognize the masterful art of Largillière also in a portrait presumably of Marie de Laubespine, wife of Lambert de Thorigny. There is, again, an excellent portrait by Largillière of an unknown gentleman, "one of the finest," says M. Gruyer, "of this painter's works." This picture was in the collection of the Palais Bourbon, and it is to be supposed that the personage was one of the familiar friends of the house; yet it is impossible to give a name to it with any certainty. "This brilliant picture, nevertheless, belongs to the seventeenth century—the solemn wig, architectural, orderly, belongs to Versailles; at the same time the picture has already something of the charm of free and independent life which is to characterize a new age. The time is already past of the Lebruns and Mignards. A new art begins, free and unrestrained, suitable to the gayeties of the French character, relieved of the solemnities of the *grand siècle*. Between the seventeenth and the eighteenth centuries Largillière has thrown a bridge of marvellous construction."

Hyacinthe Rigaud (born in 1659, died in 1743) may be said to belong more to the seventeenth than to the eighteenth century. The galleries of Chantilly show us some of his solemn, pompous, and theatrical pictures—a reduction made by him of his celebrated portrait of Louis XIV., which was executed for Philip V., King of Spain, and which can be admired now at the Louvre, and a life-size portrait of Louis XV. Rigaud had several copies made of this official portrait of the King, who is represented with all the attributes of royalty, in the grace of his adolescence. The original is at the Museum of Versailles. Chantilly has only a copy, but it is of a very good quality, and was probably retouched by the great master. We see also at Chantilly, from the hand of Rigaud, a portrait of Armand-Jean de Boutheiller de Rancé, Abbé of La Trappe, and a presumed portrait of the architect Mansart. M. Gruyer gives no special attribution to several portraits of the school of the second half of the seventeenth century, among which are some very interesting ones, such as the portrait of the Count of Toulouse, a very handsome youth, in the costume of *novice du Saint-Esprit*.

The great gallery at Chantilly which goes under the name of "Galerie des Batailles," forms a part of the old château. It has six large windows opening on the lawn and the forest; on the wall opposite these windows are great mirrors, and between the mirrors are painted on panels the battles fought by the great Condé. There are other panels between the windows also covered with pictures; eleven of them were painted by Sauveur le Conte, one by Michel Corneille. From an artistic point of view the pictures of Sauveur le Conte are of secondary interest; from an historical point of view they may be said to have the place of honor in the house of Condé. On each panel there is a principal subject and beside it several complementary subjects; in all there are as many as seventy-two pictures which narrate, so to speak, the whole life of Condé. It was very interesting to listen to the historian of Condé, conducting his guests in this magnificent gallery, narrating before many of them incidents in the life of the hero, which he had studied in the most minute details, showing with pride on the chimney (which is in the centre of the gallery) one of the flags of the Spanish regiment beaten at Rocroy, torn and full of glorious holes.

When we enter upon the eighteenth century, we find first the pictures of Jean-François de Troy (who lived from 1679 to 1752). His "Déjeuner d'huitres" is a very striking scene; among the personages who partake of this very gay oyster-breakfast there is probably some member of the royal family, and the colors of the liveries of the servants make us think that the breakfast took place in the Palais Royal. All the faces are portraits; the Duke d'Aumale heard his father give the names, but he was too young to remember them. Watteau is represented at Chantilly by four charming little pictures: "Love Disarmed," "Pastoral Delights," "The Serenader," "The Uneasy Lover." These pictures, especially the two last, are among the most brilliant and clever compositions of this master, who has only in our time acquired the great reputation which he deserves from the grace and freedom of his manner and the singular beauty of his light and transparent coloring.

There are two rooms at Chantilly which are called the "Singeries"—one of large and one of small dimensions. Monkeys dressed in various costumes have the principal part in the decorations which cover the panels, and which are caricatures, alluding to the various occupations of the inhabitants of the château, hunting, fishing, etc. These curious pictures, surrounded with ornaments—attributes of all sorts—produce a charming effect, together with their gilt frames in the style of the time. Goncourt attributed the Singeries to Watteau. "I find," says he, "in these arabesques the characteristics of the arabesques created by Watteau. I see in them his light decoration, a little thin, and traced, so to speak, with the end of a pen, his shower of little objects, his way of associating and grouping the attributes of war and of pastoral life. I recognize his lambrequins, his cameos, his fruit, his foliage, his trellises," etc. M. Gruyer gives his reasons for attributing the Singeries to the

painter Huet; they have also sometimes been attributed to Gillot, the master of Watteau.

Among the most agreeable portraits in the Chantilly collection are those of the second Nattier (born in 1685, died in 1766). He was well called by a poet of his time "the painter of beauty." He found an admirable model in Mademoiselle de Clermont, daughter of the Prince de Condé who married Mademoiselle de Nantes. She is represented as the nymph of the mineral waters of Chantilly; in the background is the pavilion of Sylvia, where there is still a spring which is said to have curative properties. The famous Venetian painter Rosalba also made a portrait of Mademoiselle de Clermont, which is in one of the rooms of the château. The mythological portrait by Jean-Marc Nattier is in the great galleries. Nattier made also a charming mythological portrait of Louise-Henriette de Bourbon-Conti, who became Duchess of Orleans; it too is in the great galleries. The Duchess is represented as Hebe, with an eagle at her side. We further meet with a Princess de Condé (born Rohan-Soubise) by this painter.

Lancret (born in 1690, died in 1743) has a very important picture, known under the name of the "Déjeuner au jambon." Several gentlemen and a lady are breakfasting in the open air, in a fine park; the breakfast is very gay, as is shown by the disorder of the table and the attitudes of the guests. The name of Subleyras is almost forgotten in France; he remained in Rome all the active part of his life. We find at Chantilly one of his best pictures, a portrait of Lambertini, who was Pope under the name of Benedict XIV., and to whom Voltaire dedicated his tragedy of "Mahomet."

Duplessis (born in 1725, died in 1802) was not a great painter, but his portraits are curious historical documents, and have some merit. A certain importance must be attached to his Duchess de Chartres in view of the ship *Saint-Esprit*, which bore the Duke de Chartres into the naval engagement of Ouessant. We see the ship in the distance; the Duchess, who is admirably coiffed, is reclining on the seashore against a rock; she has dropped a novel which she was reading; her pretty feet are bare, and are shown under her beautiful white satin gown. She has engraved on the rock some sentimental lines expressing her grief at the departure of her husband. The picture is very characteristic of the spirit of the times; everything in it is false and yet agreeable. The sea is smooth; the Duchess is posed on the shore as she might be in a boudoir; her thoughts are less on her husband than on her coiffure and her dress. We cannot help thinking, before this portrait, of the contrast between the happy times in which it was made and the troubled years which followed. Duplessis painted the Duchess de Chartres when she was twenty-five years old. Her marriage was not happy; she was imprisoned during the Terror, proscribed, and conducted to Spain; she died in France in 1821, leaving only a son and a daughter. Her son, the Duke d'Orléans, became in 1830 Louis Philippe; her daughter never married, and was known as Madame Adélaïde. Two other portraits by Duplessis exist at Chantilly—one of the Count de Provence, who became Louis XVIII., an excellent portrait, full of life, and a portrait of the Count d'Angiviller, a mere sketch (the great portrait of M. d'Angiviller, Comptroller of the King's palaces, is in the Museum of Versailles).

Correspondence.

FAULTY ADMINISTRATION AT THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Reports from scholars in Washington who are using the books of the Library of Congress in its new house indicate that the system of library administration is not working smoothly. It seems to require something more than half an hour for the untrained assistants to decide that the Library does *not* possess a special volume—one of a long series of publications of the Transactions of a famous European Academy, for example. A special edition (that of 1846) of the works of a world-renowned philosopher was asked for. On a first visit the edition of 1884 was produced at the end of twenty minutes' search, and the report made that the edition of 1846 was not in the Library. Accordingly, a copy of a few paragraphs was made from this edition and the book returned. On a second visit it was desired to verify an extract, and the edition of 1884 was inquired for, but that of 1846 was delivered after forty minutes' delay! As this edition was now of no use, it was returned and another quarter-hour lost in obtaining that of 1884.

Another reader, having only an hour to spare, asked for an ordinary book, not in the least out of the way, and was obliged to leave before it was found. Still another, asking for Blanc's 'Venetian Art,' received the volume on 'Dutch Art'; asking for a certain volume of Sismondi, received a different one—and all this with vexatious delays. Similar reports come from still another user of the Library. There are no end of attendants bustling around the central pulpit-desk, and the automatic delivery tubes keep up a great noise, but somehow the books do not come; or, when they come, they turn out to be volumes that have not been asked for. Conversation on the part of the readers is prohibited, but the crowd of employees and messengers do not scruple to speak as loud as may be, and the women clerks bustle about with rustling skirts and with loud-tapping boot-heels on the marble floors. The consumptive coughing of the pneumatic delivery tubes goes on continually, and the whole atmosphere of the nation's library in its gorgeous home is as far from scholarly as can be imagined. The placards "Keep Quiet" are hung at the pulpit-desk, from which comes all the noise! After years of possession there is no card catalogue, and if a book does not chance to be in one of the printed catalogues, readers must depend on the memory of the librarians. Altogether the condition of affairs at the new Library appears to be as unsatisfactory as possible, and with the present staff (selected by favor and "covered into the civil service" when the favors were given out at the hands of the Chief Librarian, himself no scholar, however eminently useful he may have been during the last Presidential campaign) there does not seem to be any immediate prospect of improvement.

When one reflects what such a library might be under good administration, actuated by a high and scholarly spirit, it is somewhat melancholy to remember that this national institution has apparently been sacrificed to the smallest and pettiest political considerations. It ought to be possible for a citizen of any State to make an inquiry by mail on any subject, from Egyptian hieroglyphics to the manufacture of small arms or bicycle balls, and to receive a prompt answer, giving him the best information that the Library affords, or, at the very least, a reference to the books where such information is to be had. If one desires to find out how far the Library is from fulfilling such an ideal, let him forward such a letter, in good faith, and see what reply he will receive. Yet the Library will never be national, in the true sense, till it is a part of its regular business to furnish such information freely. The Smithsonian Institution has done so for years. Why not the nation's library?

The instances just cited also show that the wants of scholars who have made a special visit to the Library to consult its really splendid collections are not provided for. It is quite inadmissible that a half-hour of waiting should be consumed in order to decide that the Library does *not* own a required book or that a half-hour should be needed to bring one from the stacks, even to bring the volume asked for. When the wrong volume is produced at the end of such a delay, it proves that the system of administration is quite faulty. There is no excuse for wrong administration of the details of library work in America, where such matters have been fully worked out. The delivery of books at the Astor Library or at the Boston Public (to name no others) is as prompt as can be wished for. It is no valid excuse to say that the national libraries of Berlin or Paris are slower in their deliveries than our own. More shame to them, but no excuse for us.

It is, perhaps, worth while to call attention to these shortcomings at the Library of Congress, in the hope that some improvement may be made. If the present methods are allowed to crystallize into habits, the Library will have totally failed to meet legitimate expectations. Q.

New York, The Century Club,
January 20, 1898.

THE CONSTITUTION AND ITS RATIFICATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The current number of the *American Historical Review* contains, among other interesting matter, a letter written immediately after the adjournment of the Federal Convention by William Pierce, a member from the State of Georgia. Though the letter is not long, it adds considerably to our fund of knowledge concerning the aims and opinions of the framers, for Pierce doubtless expresses the views of others. I desire to call the attention of your readers to the light thrown upon two questions which, before the civil war, were of supreme political importance, and are still of much historical interest. The two questions may be thus stated:

(1.) When the Federal Constitution was ratified, was it the general opinion that by ratification each State was surrendering a portion of its sovereignty, or that each State was merely granting to the new government permission to exercise a few

functions which belonged of right to still sovereign States?

(2.) Was the Federal Constitution ratified by the States individually, or by the people of the United States *en masse?*

Upon the first question the letter speaks as follows:

"The great object of this new [federal] government is to consolidate the Union, and give us the appearance and power of a nation. The inconvenience of the different States meeting on the footing of compleat equality, and so many sovereign powers confederated, has been severely felt by the Union at large; and it is to remedy this evil that something like a national institution has become necessary."

Plainly, the inference is that heretofore the States have been sovereign, but for the future, if the proposed Constitution is accepted, that evil is to be remedied by making them less than sovereign. The only possible obstacle to this interpretation appears to lie in the somewhat equivocal manner in which the new federal government is described—"something like a national institution" and as having "the appearance and power of a nation." But any doubt arising from this suggestion is removed by a passage occurring towards the end of the letter: "It requires very little wisdom or forethought to see into the consequences of the new federal government when put compleatly in motion." Then follows an enumeration of some of its powers and the significant comment:

"All this taken collectively forms such a power independent of the states as must eventually draw from them their remaining sovereignty. Whether such a thing is desirable or not, let every man appeal to his own judgement to determine. It is clearly my opinion that we had better consolidate than to remain any longer a confederated republic."

Regarding the second question, the evidence furnished by Pierce's letter is not so decisive of his opinion, but it seems to indicate that he thought of the Constitution as presented for ratification to the States and not to the people of the United States *en masse*. This conclusion is based upon the impression derived from the letter as a whole, and from the following passage in particular:

"It is a difficult point to concentrate thirteen different interests so as to give general and compleat satisfaction. But as individuals in society (to use an old hackneyed and well known principle) give up a part of their national [natural?] rights to secure the rest, so the different states should render a portion of their interests to secure the good of the whole. Was this question proposed to each of the states separately, 'What kind of government is best calculated for the people of the United States?' there would be as many different opinions as there are different interests."

Here Pierce seems to have clearly before him the States as the ratifying constituency, for what follows is an illustration that each cannot be satisfied. It is true that other passages speak of the decision as lying with the people, but in none of them is there the slightest suggestion that the people of the United States *en masse* is meant; all these passages can mean the people of each State, while the passage above quoted can mean only the States.

Summarizing the points which I have been endeavoring to establish, the following conclusions seem warranted:

(1.) The States, in Pierce's opinion, gave up their sovereignty by ratifying the Constitution.

(2.) He apparently thought of the States as the ratifying constituency; or, if that be a trifle strained, the letter gives no countenance to the view of the "people *en masse*" theorists.

(3.) It is noteworthy that Pierce's opinions exactly coincide with Madison's views of what occurred in 1787-9. This may be seen by a study of the 'Federalist,' the proceedings of the Virginia ratifying convention, and Madison's correspondence during the nullification controversy. Madison's views, be it noted, do not agree with those of Webster and Story on the one hand, or of Calhoun on the other. FRANK MALOY ANDERSON.

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, January 18, 1898.

ASSOCIATION FOOTBALL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with much interest the letter which you published recently, sent from England by the American football-player, Mr. Edward Brooks, and advocating the substitution of Association for pure Rugby, or the unfortunate American modification of it, rather than see this splendid game tabooed by public opinion and finally, perhaps, suppressed in our universities.

Though not a player myself—once this season, however, I was impressed as goal-keeper at a scrub contest—I enjoy immensely watching the game, and have attended many matches in the football fields in the Bois, at Vincennes, Billancourt, and Clichy-Levallois. I have remarked that nine times out of ten Association is preferred to Rugby, and I have never yet seen an accident of any importance. But last Thanksgiving Day an American game of football was played at the Clichy-Levallois grounds by former American college men residing temporarily in Paris, and, before the end, a man was carried off the field with a broken ankle. At the same time, in another part of the same enclosure, an Association game was in progress between two teams made up of Americans, Englishmen, and Frenchmen, but not a man nor a boy received any harm worth mentioning. Myself and many others preferred to watch the latter game from beginning to end. "I take no interest in that brutal American perversion," I heard several French and English onlookers remark, much to my mortification.

Why, then, do not our college presidents come together and declare that Association football shall alone be permitted? And if our State legislators insist upon interfering in such things, why might they not take similar action? In this way the serious objections to the American game would be removed, our college sports would be freed from what is considered in many eyes a stigma, and this admirable winter game would be preserved. T. S.

PARIS, January 7, 1898.

AN ACKNOWLEDGMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Owing to illness, I was unable to attend to the last revise of my work, 'The Sultan and his Subjects' (Chapman & Hall). At the last moment, a number of pages (indeed, two or three entire chapters) had to be omitted in order to render the book sizable. Among these abstracted pages was one containing the following paragraph:

"I am also much indebted to Prof. Grosvenor's delightful work, 'Constantinople' (Messrs. Sampson Low & Co.; Boston: Roberts Bros.), which is one of the very best books on the Turkish capital I have ever seen. It should be the vade-mecum of every visitor to Stamboul, being full of every kind of historical and legendary information. The Chronological List of Byzantine Emperors and Turkish Sultans at the end of the second volume of 'The Sultan and his Subjects' is also derived from this admirable work."

It was only recently, when rereading my work in print for the first time, that I discovered this omission, and I hasten to call attention to it, through your columns, as an act of justice to Prof. Grosvenor, whose courteous forbearance in this matter I greatly appreciate.—I beg to remain, sir,

Yours obediently, RICHARD DAVEY.

12 BUCKINGHAM ST., STRAND, W. C.,
January 12, 1898.

Notes.

Herbert S. Stone & Co., Chicago, are about to bring out 'Plays, Pleasant and Unpleasant,' in two volumes, by Bernard Shaw; 'How to Play Golf,' by H. J. Whigham; and a volume of reminiscences by Mrs. M. E. W. Sherwood.

Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. have nearly ready the seventh volume, with index, of Sybel's 'The Founding of the German Empire'; 'Workingmen's Insurance,' by W. F. Willoughby; and 'Congressional Committees,' by Dr. Lauros McConachie.

Further announcements by G. P. Putnam's Sons are: 'The Writings of James Monroe,' edited in four octavo volumes by S. M. Hamilton, Librarian of the Department of State; the fifth volume of the 'Life and Correspondence of Rufus King'; 'Reminiscences of the Old Navy,' from the journals and private papers of Capt. Edward Trenchard and Rear-Admiral Stephen Decatur Trenchard, by Edward Stanton Maclay; 'A History of the Parish of Trinity Church in the City of New York,' edited by Dr. Morgan Dix, in three octavo volumes, printed from type; 'The Cross in Tradition, History, and Art,' by the Rev. William Wood Seymour, with copious illustrations; 'Renascent Christianity: A Forecast of the Twentieth Century,' by Martin Kellogg Schermerhorn; 'Led On, Step by Step,' autobiographical scenes from clerical, military, educational, and plantation life in the South, 1828-1897, by A. Toomer Porter, D.D.; 'Jewish Religious Life after the Exile,' by the Rev. T. K. Cheyne; 'Coffee and India-Rubber Culture in Mexico, together with Historical and Geographical Notes on the Country,' by Matias Romero; 'Bird Studies,' in Eastern North America, by William E. D. Scott; 'Open Mints and Free Banking,' by William Brough; and 'Republican Responsibility for Present Currency Perils,' by Perry Belmont.

Mr. W. H. Brett, of the Cleveland Public Library, announces that his Cumulative Index will be continued as a bi-monthly, but will appear in two series. "The first number will appear in February and will include periodicals for January and February; the second will appear in April and will contain those from January to April inclusive; the third will be published in June and will include all entries from January to June. This number will end the first series. The first number of the second series will appear in August and will include the periodicals for July and August. An Octo-

ber number will be published including entries from July to October inclusive, and the December number will form the annual volume, including all the matter previously published and all entries from magazines not indexed cumulatively, and will form a complete index for the entire year to all the periodicals included. This plan will make it possible to issue the annual volume in January, 1899."

Dr. Weir Mitchell's 'Hugh Wynne' and Gen. Horace Porter's 'Campaigning with Grant' were both concluded in the last volume of the *Century Magazine* (May-October, 1897), and are the chief features of that volume as it lies bound before us. In other respects it presents the usual variety, with prominent sporting papers and tales of travel in barbarous and semi-civilized lands. The poetic sum is made up of our elder and our newest bards, but throws no light on the problem of a new era for poetry in this country.

It is not easy to specify the leading features of *Scribner's* 21st and 22d volumes, but we shall name the series of articles on the conduct of great businesses; another on undergraduate life at Harvard, Princeton, and Yale, respectively; and Mr. Charles Dana Gibson's pictorial report on London. In illustration, we remark the full-page "Scenes from Great Novelists," in which Mr. Frost, for one, frankly adopts the conventional types of the Pickwick characters for a fresh composition. Some color experiments are more curious, perhaps, than satisfactory.

Girls count for very little in the bound volume of *Harper's Round Table* for 1897, the last of the weekly issues. It is true that Mrs. Wiggin, Mrs. Sangster, Miss Seawell, Miss Deland, and Miss Wilkins are among the contributors, but some of these furnish war stories. It is also true that the Rev. Edward Everett Hale, discoursing on the meaning of a vote, anticipates that the reading of the *Round Table* will enable "bright girls in the next generation," while waiting for the suffrage, to "understand the difference between Senators and Representatives"—a difference, surely, now without a distinction. On the other hand, Carl Schurz, defining "Party Allegiance and Political Independence," and Henry Cabot Lodge, inculcating the opposite doctrine in "What a Primary Means," are clearly addressing themselves to boys or young men. Much more so are Capt. King, James Barnes, and Theodore Roosevelt, with army and navy sensationalism. Even Mr. John Corbin, with his interesting descriptions of English schools, can have had only boys in mind. We trust that the belligerent monotony of the *Round Table* will be relieved by the change to a monthly issue, determined by the prospect of a British audience, on which our patriotic and Jingo stress must pall if it does not repel.

St. Nicholas, in its customary two volumes or "parts," is frankly for children of both sexes and of a considerable range in years. It changes little, and not for the worse. There is nothing in the varied contents for 1897 more to be singled out than Mr. Laurence Hutton's autobiographical "Boy I Knew."

Babyhood, as our readers know, is for mothers, and not for the children, whose care it alleviates and wisely directs. The thirteenth volume (December, 1896-November, 1897) testifies to the solid hold it has on its proper audience, which yet must be capable of indefinite enlargement. The table of contents is a full one, grouped under Medical Articles, Miscellaneous Articles, Nursery Problems, and the Mothers' Parliament. The publication office is at 140 Nassau Street, New York.

A showy exterior characterizes the series of "Apollo Poets," of which the letterpress is English, the portrait photogravures French, and the publisher of the copies before us (T. Whittaker) American. Small type and broad margins distinguish the Milton and Burns; small type and narrow margins the Wordsworth. They are, however, well indexed and very moderate in price.

Mr. Bernard Partridge's illustrations to F. Anstey's "farcical romance" 'The Tinted Venus,' which furnish the pretext for a handsome new edition of this ingenious and well-sustained extravaganza (Harper & Bros.), are noticeable for the consistency with which the recurring characters are depicted. The drawings are also academically clever and well composed. Taken by themselves, however, apart from the story, they would barely suggest a comic connection. This is no reproach to the artist. The absurdity which inheres in the very plausibility of the narrative could be conveyed only by caricature, and perhaps (with success) only on the scale on which Cruikshank was accustomed to work. Mr. Partridge has undertaken to present the plausible and realistic side of Mr. Anstey's humor, and has done this very well and sympathetically, while ornamenting the book.

The 'Students' Standard Dictionary' (Funk & Wagnalls Co.) has the merits of the parent work, and also inherits its unprepossessing typography. It contains, we are assured, 60,000 words, and, in view of the necessary compression, we can but think that space has been wasted by concessions to the "phonetic respellings recommended by the American Philological Association and the Philological Society of England." Cross-entries like *fonetic*, *fonograf*, *nevew*, etc., are cases in point. More to the purpose is the attempt to satisfy inquiry in the study of the works of eminent English authors required to be read either before or after admission to college. The appendixes are valuable, but that on "Faulty Diction" must be used with caution. We are glad to find conspicuously absent the old tirades against *reliable* and *had rather*, and to meet with an occasional defence of the richness of the tongue against those who condemn a locution because it is "superfluous." The doctrine conveyed under *all of*, *elder*, and *that*, *who*, *and which* is either wrong or misleading. This work is illustrated.

Mr. Herbert J. Davenport, whose 'Outlines of Economic Theory' we recently noticed, now offers us 'Outlines of Elementary Economics' (Macmillan). As the title implies, we need expect nothing but the skeleton of a science; but Mr. Davenport has done as well as his limits permit. His style is clear, and he shows a thorough acquaintance with his subject. He has inserted a very large number of questions intended to stimulate reflection among pupils; and as many of them are much easier to ask than to answer, the desired result may be obtained. But Mr. Davenport should provide the ordinary instructor with a key.

Many thoughtful readers will welcome Prof. George Harris's 'Inequality and Progress' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). While not a reply to works of the class of Bellamy's 'Equality,' it is in substance a trenchant and destructive criticism of the shallow philosophy on which these are based. The fine scholarship of the author gives a delightful flavor to his essays, which are at the same time marked by complete fearlessness of the odium which, in a democratic community, attaches to all criticism of popular formulas and traditions. The chapters on the relations of variety and progress, the meaning of equality of opportunity, the resentment of inferiority, the two kinds of discontent, are especially forcible and suggestive. The whole book is to be heartily commended to clergymen and others who have been carried away by the visionary ideals of Socialism.

'Uncle Sam's Secrets,' by Oscar Phelps Austin, appears in Appletons' series of "Home Reading Books," which is edited by the United States Commissioner of Education. This book is classified as belonging to Division III., Social Science, is provided with an introduction by the editor, an analysis and an index, and consists of a trashy sensational story, the course of which is from time to time interrupted by the insertion of a page or two of statistical and miscellaneous information about various matters. Many iniquities are committed in the name of education, but this is, perhaps, in view of the office held by the editor, about as discreditable as any of them.

In the Macmillan Co.'s "Rural Science Series," edited by Prof. L. H. Bailey, a volume prepared by the editor appears under the title 'Principles of Fruit-growing.' The merits of Prof. Bailey are too well known to agriculturists to require exposition here, and we content ourselves with remarking that the modern arts of growing, storing, and marketing fruits on a large scale are the leading features in this book.

Mr. G. Paramaswaran Pillai, editor of the Madras *Standard*, one of the principal English-written Hindu daily papers, now gives us an interesting-looking volume entitled 'Representative Indians' (London: Routledge & Sons)—short lives, with portraits, of thirty-six of his countrymen who have most distinguished themselves during the present century. A preface is furnished by Sir Richard Temple, who, while candidly admitting "that although political talent, statesmanlike ambition, and administrative power fail to be fostered under British rule," allows that "still there are ample fields for learned research, for literary taste, for social reform, for poetic culture, for philosophic meditation—in short, for general culture." And here we have exemplars of the results of such culture as "tended in every possible way by the state." The book treats of names and events and subjects so foreign to the lives and thoughts of the average English-speaking reader that a wide circulation here cannot be looked for. Rammohun Roy is the only name likely to be familiar. The book is, however, of interest as forcing on our attention the brilliant capacities of a people whom too many of those administering the government of India and seeking to influence the theological belief of its inhabitants are prone to disparage.

The Italian Ministry of Public Instruction has permitted the resumption of the publication of the catalogue of Palatine MSS. in the Royal National Central Library under the direction of Prof. Luigi Gentile. The new issue is number five of volume ii.

and extends from Nos. 792 to 887. The majority of the entries are scientific, but there are not a few appetizing titles in history and belles-lettres. No. 837 includes biographical sketches of fifty illustrious Pisans; No. 824 a history of Volaterra; No. 826 a treatise on the forum of Florence, etc. No. 809 is the *Poesie* of Tommaso Crudeli, dedicated to Sir Horace Mann, British envoy at Florence in the last century; one would like to dip into his apologue, "Un uom già fu, della campagna amante," as into the sonnet of Lorenzo de' Medici, "Chiar' acque, io sento 'l uostro mormorio" (No. 816).

Signori Mariotti and Mestica, of the committee charged with examining Leopardi's literary remains, are busy with a calendar. One tid-bit is the poet's commonplace-book of 4,526 pages, closely written in his own elegant and minute hand, and equal to nine volumes of print in conformity with Le Monnier's edition.

The *American Naturalist* has obeyed the law of its being in removing back to the Massachusetts coast on which it was born, and its 32d volume, dating from the present month, will bear the imprint of Ginn & Co. Dr. Robert P. Bigelow of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology assumes the editorial control.

Current History, too, has gone eastward, from Buffalo to Boston, where it will be issued without change of management by the New England Publishing Co., at No. 3 Somerset Street.

The most curious information contained in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for January is perhaps the list of the eight men first slain by the Indians in King Philip's war. Mr. Waters, in his "Genealogical Gleanings in England," gives a characteristic mass of wills illuminating the Juxon connection. We learn that the proposed complete index to the *Register* is under way on the strength of subscriptions already secured, but more will be needed to complete this important undertaking.

Statistics given in the *Revue Pédagogique* present a sad picture of the physical and mental condition of the male youth of Italy. Of 363,617 conscripts of the class of 1875 presenting themselves for medical examination, nearly 191,000, or more than 52 per cent., were found to be permanently or temporarily unfit for service. Of 176,400 young men enrolled, 60 per cent. were able to read and write, and 38 per cent. wholly illiterate. These last figures indicate, however, a diminution in illiteracy since 1867 of 26 per cent., but a strict enforcement of the compulsory school law of 1877 should have reduced the proportion to almost nothing. As things are managed, 800,000 children, or one-third of those of the obligatory school age between six and nine, were receiving no instruction in 1895; and it seems that many of those who have been in school relapse into ignorance almost as fast as they have been lifted out of it. In years gone by, partly with the aid of regimental schools, then well supported and efficacious, the percentage of illiteracy among *disbanded* soldiers had been brought down as low as six or seven; in recent years it has from various causes risen again to twenty-six.

—The municipal problem is prolific of books. Most of them have the feature in common of being thrown into the form, now so attractive, of a scientific treatise. In this class would seem to fall 'The Study of City Government,' by Delos F. Wilcox (Macmillan). It cites three and a half pages of authorities, and is mainly descriptive in character, the author avoiding rather than endeavoring to reach conclusions. He divides the subject into three kinds of problems—those of "function," those of "control," and those of "organization"—and there is a great deal about "units"; which sounds more like chemistry or physics than anything relating to human government. This scientific jargon (for it is really little else) leads to curious results; thus, the author tells us (p. 15) that the task of political economy and sociology is "the assignment of functions" to the state and to individuals; on the next page he puts down religion as coming under the head of "external" functions of the state, and as connected with "foreign affairs"; and on page 20 he insists that any one who calls a city a "business corporation" ought to admit frankly his "close kinship to the Socialist." On the other hand, he makes here and there statements the truth of which cannot be questioned, as that "raising revenue is not undertaken for its own sake," which for scientific purposes should have been contrasted with the antithetical proposition, now admitted by all students of this branch of science to be true of the individual political unit—that it is not in politics "for its health." We must candidly confess that there is something a little depressing about science like that of Mr. Wilcox. His speculations read as if he had quite forgotten that city government is a product of human life, and that its functions, control, and organization depend on the human beings who produce it; consequently, the first qualification for a study of it is robust common sense and knowledge of life. A boss could give a clearer idea of what the "problems" actually are than a sociologist, and to him most of the discussion of this book would seem as irrelevant as the rural view of municipal life does to a buncosteerer.

—The Jesuit Relations (Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Co.) involve so many topics that each part, as it appears in monthly sequence, has some fresh feature. The official letter of 1636, which has already run through two instalments, is now concluded in Vol. X. Brébeuf is the sole author, and his subject, after the list of conversions has been dispatched, is the life and habits of the Hurons. The novelty is that this race is more advanced, more settled, and more strenuous than the Siroquois of Acadia or the Montagnais of the lower Laurentians. Moreover, although Le Jeune's style and matter are both above the average and well suited to their purpose, we feel in reaching a long unbroken narrative of Brébeuf that we have before us the strong man in the whole band of Jesuit missionaries. After touching on the state of Christianity amid such barbarism, he passes to an outline sketch of events that have marked the year. A great drought in the spring had been the means of pitting the French and the native sorcerers against each other, with the result that the former gained credit for the opportune rain which came about the middle of June. But weather reports and a notice of Iroquois forays are of slight moment compared with Brébeuf's careful description of the Huron people. He had by this time overcome the language, and could eke out what he saw with the report of what he had gathered in conversation. The second and by far the longest part of this Relation is entitled, "De la creance, des mœurs et des coustumes des Hurons." He begins *ab ovo* with the nation's theory of its origin, proceeds thence to its views of the soul and religion, comes in the third place to civil organization, and at the end describes the solemn funeral of the dead. The chapter on the conduct of councils shows the race at its best. We have more than once, in the course of notes on this subject, stigmatized the filth, cruelty, and other baser traits of the Indians. To do justice by the Huron braves we must quote what Brébeuf says of their public speech: "Quasi tous ses esprits sont naturellemẽt d'une assez bonne trempe, ratiocinent fort bien, et ne bronchent point en leur discours; aussi font-ils estat de se mocquer de ceux qui bronchent; quelques uns semblent estre nés à l'eloquence."

—One of the most useful pieces of work by the lamented Prof. F. D. Allen was his little book called 'Remnants of Early Latin.' Its worth was speedily recognized, and since its publication, now nearly twenty years ago, it has served as a text-book in many colleges in this country, as well as in at least one German university. Its thorough revision, which the learned author had begun, was cut off at the very outset by his sudden death. In that very month, last August, is dated the preface of Mr. W. M. Lindsay's 'Handbook of Latin Inscriptions' (Boston: Allyn & Bacon), a book of about the same size as Allen's, and intended, like his, to treat of the history of the language through the medium of inscriptions, with brief explanatory notes. It is a curious coincidence that Mr. Lindsay, who is a Fellow of Jesus College, Oxford, should have recently accepted an invitation to give at Harvard, during the second half of the academic year, lectures on some of the subjects which Allen had expected to treat there. Mr. Lindsay's new book carries the history down much farther than Allen had gone, and discoveries of inscriptions since the publication of the 'Remnants' enable him to begin earlier; his examples extend, in fact, from the Praeneste brooch, which belongs perhaps in the fifth century B. C., to the "Judgment of Pepin" in the middle of the eighth century of our era. The selections are excellently made, and the book, used in connection with the author's 'Short Historical Latin Grammar,' from which much of the explanatory comment is drawn, will be a real boon to teachers and students. Here and there, perhaps, the tone is a little too dogmatic, and sometimes we miss a hint that there is another side to the shield; but such failings must always be whenever a man sets out to compass infinite matter in a little room.

—On January 6 Herman Grimm celebrated his seventieth birthday. Not long before, there appeared a new edition of his 'Novellen' (Berlin: Wilhelm Hertz), first published in 1856. This, after the lapse of more than forty years, is a gratifying evidence of vitality in the work of a man who, with unimpaired intellectual vigor, continues to exert a strong and healthful influence in the world of literature and art. During all this period Grimm has steadily resisted the gentle demand on the part of friends and admirers for the republication of these charming tales. He had in the meantime gained a wider fame as the biographer of Michael Angelo, Raphael, and Goethe, and as the author of the fine and suggestive essays to whose number

he is still adding year by year; he felt that his stories, the productions of his youth, appearing in the midst of a generation which had grown to maturity since they were written, might create the impression that the scholar and essayist had turned once more to story-telling. On the same ground he had repeatedly refused to allow them to be rendered into English. Throughout the first half of his life Grimm was exclusively the poet. The late Prof. Brunn has related how, at parting from Grimm in Rome, the latter announced his intention of winning a firm foothold in some special branch of scholarship. After several years of diligent preparation Grimm produced the 'Life of Michael Angelo,' but he has always remained essentially a poet; it was this poetic faculty that enabled him to reconstruct the Cinquecento. In all his work is observable the intellectual guidance of Goethe. Upon Grimm descended the afflatus of that august spirit, and in him were preserved the finer inspirations of the spiritual movement which began in the young enthusiasms of Herder and Goethe. In the 'Novellen' of Grimm this spirit and these inspirations are winningly manifested. They are the products of a mature but youthful mind which, as he says of one of his characters, "knew from hearsay that there was a future, and to which the past had already become an unknown land to whose shores memory never returned." They are the works of a poet who finds his materials in the everlasting now, using recollections of the past and seer-glimpses of the future only as diaphanous veils the better to reveal, as Schlegel said, the all too near actuality of the present.

—An appreciative notice of this reprint, by Anton Bettelheim, appears in the January number of *Cosmopolis*. "Even an indifferent reader," says the reviewer, "in reading the more impassioned scenes of these stories, is overcome by an emotion such as only the last scene of Goethe's 'Geschwister' calls forth"; and he speaks of Goethe's narrative manner as unmistakably evident in Grimm's style. Of these stories, the two most distinctively German both in subject and in treatment must also be regarded as the best, "Das Kind" and "Der Landschaftsmaler." The original of the "Child" belonged to the author's immediate circle, and the scene of the "Landscape-Painter" is Wiepersdorf, the estate of the Arnim family, where Bettina von Arnim, Grimm's mother-in-law, now lies buried. Deep, true sentiment characterizes these tales, and Bettelheim confesses to a feeling of contentment and rest at finding himself "in this timeless world of peace, among noble natures of splendid uprightness and sincerity." And it is a pleasure in this "Jahrhundert der Verzweiflung," as Grimm himself has called the present age, to see these gentle children of peace and beauty reappear by the side of Sudermann's and Hauptmann's disquieting creations. Meanwhile, the author pursues his philosophic way, living only with the best, perceiving the good in what is new and strange to him, and understanding even the worst that is thrown upon the shores of every new day by the restless wash of the intellectual tides.

—In a note in the *Monthly Weather Review* for September, Prof. Bigelow writes that meteorological observations are being made to ascertain the probable state of the sky at several stations along the path of the total eclipse of the sun, May 28, 1900. The 1900 eclipse in this country passes from New Orleans northeastward to Norfolk, Va., and Prof. Todd's original plan for the observations has been followed. Beginning with May 15, 1897, continuing until June 15, so as to include May 28 centrally, observations were made at sixty-six stations, along the track covering quite uniformly the States of Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana. The general state of the sky at 8 A. M., 8:30, and 9:00 was noted, the instructions reading: "Observe carefully the state of the sky over the whole heavens, and enter the following notations: 0=sky entirely clear; 1=sky ¼ clear; 2=sky ½ clear; 3=sky ¾ clear; 4 =sky all cloudy." At the same hours the sky near the sun was observed, as "sun clear from clouds; in scattered clouds; in a mass of clouds; quite invisible," represented by the same figures. The observers are largely voluntary. An inspection of the tables already collected seems to show that conditions in the interior of Georgia and Alabama are better than in North Carolina, South Carolina, or Louisiana. Another table shows that a minimum of cloudiness prevails for May in the South Atlantic and Gulf States, this season of the year being therefore generally favorable for eclipse work. As these observations will be repeated at like hours and seasons in 1898 and 1899, the selection of stations for the 1900 eclipse can then be intelligently made.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

The latest publication of the Selden Society, 'Select Cases in Chancery, A.D. 1364 to 1471,' though bearing the imprint 1896, belongs, so far as this country is concerned, to the succeeding year. It is edited by William Paley Baildon (London: Bernard Quaritch). The bill in chancery underwent less changes and vicissitudes than almost any other legal document from the earliest times down to its abolition in 1873. Most of the well-known heads of equity we find at a very early date, and one of the primitive illustrations presented in this volume is amusing. The battle of Agincourt was fought October 25, 1415. In this battle John Craven and Simon Irby took certain prisoners, names unknown. The prisoners were, however, wrongfully taken away and ransomed by one William Bukton, without satisfying either the King or their captors. The latter thereupon file their bill, informing the Chancellor of these facts, that a sum of two hundred marks, part of the ransom, is in the hands of the wife of the Treasurer of Calais, and praying for an injunction forbidding him from letting it be delivered to any one before trial, and for the discovery from Bukton of the names of the prisoners. The author of the writ of subpœna is not yet known, but it seems to be made out that his great achievement was the discovery of the possibility of substituting a definite pecuniary penalty for an indefinite threat of something terrible.

Mr. W. A. Watt is the author of an essay on 'The Theory of Contract in Its Social Light' (Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark). He says that he has attempted "to investigate the fundamental conception and chief social relations of contract." This suggests metaphysics, and so does the opening sentence: "The borderland between Ethics and Jurisprudence is full of interest." The author is unaware of the danger which lurks in the attempt to define terms connoting a whole history in themselves. Sir F. Pollock, giving it up, avoids definition and describes contract in elegant terms. The Indian Contract Act, with audacious brevity, makes it "an agreement enforceable by law," which adds nothing to the term and gets us no nearer the "fundamental conception." Mr. Watt writes eighty-three pages about it, and reaches the conclusion that "we must endeavor to find an adequate theory, by making Philosophy and Jurisprudence criticise each other; by reading Hegel with the eyes of Savigny, and Savigny with the eyes of Hegel; by interpreting Drs. Caird and Sir Frederick Pollock each in terms of the other; by following for ourselves, so far as we may be able, all the currents of thought, from whatever side they may come, and striving to determine the total result." If we are not mistaken, this is not law, but what is often called jurisprudence. In order to criticise it at all, we are forced to turn to some practical question, such as "Is Marriage a Contract?" discussed in chapter iii. We find here that Mr. Watt regards marriage as properly an institution, or, as a Common Lawyer would say, a domestic relation, and we are entirely of his opinion.

The book is not for practitioners, and bears the same sort of relation to a practical book of the law that metaphysics does to science. Therefore, we have no doubt that it will be read by a number of people with much interest. The metaphysical stage in law, as a Comtian would say, is not by any means outlived yet. Socially, the book may be described as the work of an equilibrist, who balances so justly the conflicting claims of various theories that it is impossible to make out what his own, if any, are. How does it advance matters to be told that the woman question is one of "Applied Ethics"? (p. 37).

A 'Treatise on the Criminal Law as Now Administered in the United States' (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.), by Emlin McClain, is a compendium of the whole subject. The endeavor of the author has been to make use of every criminal case of general value decided in the courts of last resort in the United States and England, and in the course of his work he has cited some 20,000. Of course, under these circumstances it is impossible that there should be much discussion or examination of the reasons on which the law is founded; brief statements only of the rules are given. These are accurate and cover the field.

In 'Common-Law Pleading: Its History and Principles,' by R. Ross Perry (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), the author gives the gist of Chitty and Stephen on Pleading, and Dicey on Parties. In addition to this, he incorporates many of the results of the researches of Maine, Pollock and Maitland, Bigelow, Holmes, Thayer, and Ames. The book consequently contains much of the substantive history of the common law. The production of a book of this kind for the use of students shows what a vital hold upon our law the old system of pleading, though nominally superseded and done away with, still maintains. This is, no doubt, owing partly to a fact which our energetic law-reformers of fifty years ago overlooked, and which accounts for many present anomalies—that while they abolished common-law pleading and practice, they forgot to abolish the common-law trial. Keeping

trial by jury, and the consequent separation of findings of law and fact, they preserved much of what they thought they destroyed. Common-law pleading doubtless might have been wholly destroyed, for we have in equity pleading, and in admiralty, a different system; but so long as trial by jury, or the peculiar system of which it is an integral part, is preserved, common-law pleading must be to a certain extent studied by any one who wishes to attain a thorough comprehension of the reformed system. Without some knowledge of the older system, it is impossible for the student to distinguish between the different kinds of actions and remedies, and it is still true of the distinction between these, as Mr. Justice Grier once said, that it "lies in the nature of things," and "is absolutely inseparable from the correct administration of justice in common-law courts." Even the Legislature "cannot compel the human mind not to distinguish between things that differ." Besides all this, the history of actions and pleading is the history of the law itself. Our legal storehouses are full of substantial rights, the common property of all. But the seed of this great harvest was nothing in the world but the writs and declarations and pleas and demurrers of the precise logic of a more primitive legal world.

A book of a very different sort is Charles M. Hepburn's 'The Historical Development of Code Pleading in America and England' (Cincinnati: W. H. Anderson & Co.). It is a valuable compilation, giving an historical account of the rise and progress of the modern system of pleading in the modern English-speaking world. It brings out the fact that the movement set on foot by Bentham has virtually resulted in producing one uniform system everywhere. Of this system the essential features are the single form of action (if that can be called a form which has none), the statement by the plaintiff of the facts of his case, and the requirement that these facts shall be admitted or denied specifically by the defendant, who then sets up any affirmative defence that he may have. Why, then, the reader will ask, is the system productive of such different results in different jurisdictions? Why does it produce simplicity and certainty in the courts of England and the colonies, and so much dissatisfaction in New York, the first American State which introduced the system? The author does not discuss the question in this aspect, but he points out the radical change which the present English and colonial system has introduced, and which we have thus far steadily refused to adopt. The English regulation of practice is judicial, while ours is legislative. What we call a practice act, or a code, consists, in the English system, in great measure of flexible rules of court which may be judicially modified whenever the interests of justice demand.

"The framers of the English system appear to have thought that the most direct course to the end which both systems have in view—a complete and final determination of a controversy in its entirety and according to its esential facts—was to put the least possible restraint upon the discretion of the court in dealing with a case; on the other hand, our codes have kept close to the common-law theory that judges should be required to exercise no more discretion than is absolutely necessary" (p. 200).

The result of this difference is that questions of pleading and practice in New York must be looked up in a book containing over three thousand pages and an act containing 3,441 sections. After half a century's work, we are still endeavoring to get a good system out of a legislature, when all our experience shows that it cannot be done. We have confounded with the rules of pleading, which can be stated in permanent form, and which are now the same everywhere, the network of procedure, treating questions relating to it as if they were matters of substantive right, to be fought over at every step, to delay as much as possible the final decision of the suit, and make as much opportunity as may be for future litigation, instead of being mere matters of judicial administration, which judges only are competent to provide for, and into which legislation can only introduce disorder. The idea that judges cannot be trusted to deal equitably or conscientiously with the questions presented is so preposterous that it is difficult to treat it seriously. Every one knows that in our system it is the courts which preserve our rights and the Legislature which invades them. Can we put life, liberty, and property in the hands of the judges, and not their own practice? No good can possibly come of the American system as it now exists in the chief State in the Union, and we have no sort of doubt that just as England originally took the reformed pleading from us, so we must take the reformed practice as developed in England.

Among recent additions to the Hornbook Series is a 'Handbook of the Law of Private Corporations,' by Wm. L. Clark, jr. (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.). Mr. Clark, who is the author of three other Hornbooks, states in his preface that his treatise is not intended to deal with corporation law in its application to particular classes of corporations, but only to give general principles. To some unsettled points he says he has devoted more space than is given them "in the larger works," *e. g.*, the doctrine of corporations *de facto*, of estoppel to deny corporate existence, of subscriptions to stock prior to incorporation, of watered stock, and of stock as a "trust fund" for creditors. Where we have examined his work, it seems to be conveniently arranged, and the author vouches for its having been written "from the cases themselves." Since the appearance of Mr. Morawetz's treatise, any writer must follow more or less in his footsteps, and accordingly Mr. Clark is at great pains to explain in his "corporation defined" that a corporation's personality is a mere legal fiction, introduced for the convenience of the corporation in transacting business. This makes his definition really a description. It is a page in length. Chief Justice Marshall, a pretty good authority in his day, defined a corporation in a dozen words: "An artificial being, invisible, intangible, and existing only in contemplation of law." This has never been improved upon, and Mr. Morawetz, who has a great gift of clear statement, opened his book with it. The definition does not conflict with the fact that all legal rights and duties really inhere in natural persons, and a corporation will necessarily remain a "person" in law to the end of time. To our minds, to say that this is a figure of speech is misleading. It is an abstraction, like a state, a church, or committee, and totally different from a real legal fiction, like those invented to give vitality to the old action of ejectment. The Erie Railroad is a true legal person; John Doe and Richard Roe were creatures of the imagination, evoked from the shades. It is pointed out in Pollock and Maitland's 'History of English Law' that, in the case of a corporation, what we personify is not the associated group of men, but "the purpose for which they are associated."

A 'Treatise on the Law in Relation to Promoters and the Promotion of Corporations,' by Arthur M. Alger (Little, Brown & Co.), is an important publication. The subject is one of great and growing interest, and there is no other treatise on it. The reason why the matter has not been treated separately before is because the cases relating to promoters and the business of promotion do not constitute a special branch of law—the word "promoter" itself is not a legal, but a business term. Notwithstanding this, the promotion of corporations is sufficiently specialized as a matter of fact to make the principles of law applicable to it capable of being grouped under well-defined heads, and Mr. Alger has done this very well.

In order to understand the law of the subject, the mind has to be freed from the primitive idea of a corporation as a voluntary assemblage of small contributions of capital for a common purpose, and to conceive it as in many cases an artificial being, called into existence by persons who have objects of their own to advance, which objects may have little to do with those of the corporation. Thus, a man may promote the organization of an electric-light or gas company in order to dispose of patents which he has bought, a mining corporation in order to dispose of a mine, a fertilizer company that he may "unload" a phosphate island. To accomplish such objects, he must induce a number of people to contribute capital, and as these people will constitute the corporation, he is said to stand to them, or rather to it, in a "fiduciary" relation. But this term does not mean that the promoter is a trustee for the corporation.

"Familiarity with trusts and the language employed in connection with them has led to the description of the relation as a fiduciary relation; and although this is not a very happy expression, it is not easy to suggest a better. What is meant is, that although there is no actual relation of trustee and *cestui que trust* between a promoter and an unformed company, yet that when he has succeeded in forming it, he is liable to it, in respect of frauds practised by him upon it, planned by means of agreements entered into before its formation, and the real nature of which is carefully concealed from every one except those who profit by them. The frauds thus perpetrated are obvious when discovered, and the doctrine of fiduciary relation has been invented or extended in order to defeat them."

This is the language of Lord Justice Lindley, and it can hardly be improved upon. Promotion is one of two things: it either involves ordinary mercantile dealing between man and man, or it involves cheating. In the former case no question as to the liability of promoters arises; in the latter the promoter's liability is based on fraud. When we ask what is fraud, the law can give no other answer than that given by the moral sense and practice of mankind. A chancellor will hold that to be fraud which other people of the same degree of enlightenment hold to be fraud. He will not hold every advantage gained by man over man fraudulent, but he will as a rule follow the best commercial code of honor of his time. Thus, when Park and Stewart went to England to sell the Emma mine, they agreed with a

promoter, Albert Grant, to sell the mine for $1,000,000, to a corporation to be organized for the purpose of buying it. But Grant was to have a commission equal to 20 per cent. of the capital stock, and this was kept secret. In other words, the real price was not the nominal price, and the company was accordingly held entitled to recover the secret profit (p. 78). Another well-known case is that of Erlanger vs. New Sombrero Phosphate Co. A syndicate of which Baron Erlanger, a Paris banker, was the head, purchased, for £55,000, an island said to contain valuable mines of phosphate. A corporation was got up by Erlanger (who managed the purchase) to take over the island and work the mines. He named five persons as directors, and they, or a sufficient number of them, were practically under his control. The island was put in at £80,000 in cash and £30,000 in paid-up shares, while the original price was not disclosed. On suit brought by the company, the contract was rescinded (p. 26), on the ground, as stated by Lord Cairns, that the directors' meeting by which the operation was accomplished was "little else than a mockery and a delusion."

'The Law of Mines and Mining in the United States,' by Daniel Moreau Barringer and John Stokes Adams (Little, Brown & Co.), is the title of a new book on a subject of growing importance. It is preceded by a geological preface, with plates by Mr. Barringer—a "new departure" in a legal text-book, and one which, in this case, undoubtedly adds to its value. Without some knowledge of geology, neither mining terms nor mining law can be understood. The book is dedicated to Mr. Justice Field, and very naturally; his judgments forming the basis of the whole mining law of the country. This law is now mainly statutory, and the plan of the work, which seems well carried out, is to give the statutory regulations in a rational order, with gloss and cases. We are surprised to see (p. 178) that the effect of the authors' statement about the question of State ownership of minerals is to minimize the importance of Justice Field's great California decision on the subject. The Judge, in his privately printed reminiscences, says that the doctrine "perished"; the authors think that it is merely "extremely likely" that his opinion "would be followed"—a strange way of putting the matter. The fact is, that the decision represents the rout of the State of California in a great legal battle—a rout so disastrous that no mining State has since cared to revive the attempt. The value of the book is mainly that of a practical compendium.

Mr. Edward Lyman Short of the New York bar has added to the text-books on railway securities a volume on 'The Law of Railway Bonds and Mortgages in the United States of America' (Little, Brown & Co.). Where we have consulted it, it seems full and accurate. The subject is a thorny one; we notice that Mr. Short points out (§§26,286) that two theories under which railway frauds are often successfully practised, have no foundation in law. One of these is, that a railway mortgage is a sort of town meeting, in which anything that the majority favors must be done; the other is, that every bondholder is a law unto himself, and can consequently do what he pleases without reference to other bondholders. Directors or bondholders who act on either theory are badly advised.

'The Law of Sales of Personal Property,' by Prof. Francis M. Burdick of Columbia (Little, Brown & Co.), is intended specially for students, and is confined to the discussion of the principles applicable to this class of contracts. It is assumed by the author that the general principles common to all contracts are already understood. It seems to be also assumed that the student knows what is needful about the Statute of Frauds. In fact, the book reads in places rather like the materials for a course of lectures than a completed introduction to the difficult topic of sales. It is a small magazine of learning which Prof. Burdick can no doubt readily use among his own students, but which others might not find so available. On the whole, we should say that, with sufficient oral explication, it might as a hand-book be made very useful.

However, we must protest against the definition of sale on page 1, where we are told that the seller "engages to pass the general property in a thing, *and to deliver possession thereof, to the buyer* for a price." Neither Blackstone, nor Kent, nor the Supreme Court of the United States says anything of this sort. Delivery of possession is no necessary part of a sale. A may sell B his ship lost at sea, for what it may be worth if recovered from the bottom; but he is not obliged to deliver the ship. Benjamin's definition—"a transfer of the absolute or general property in a thing for a price in money"—can hardly be improved upon. That the author himself is at home with the subject, notwithstanding this slip, can be seen from the care with which he guards against one or two common mistakes (committed, alas! even by judges on the bench), *e. g.*, that of confounding an executed with an executory sale, and the almost criminal error of talking about a vendor's "lien on goods which still belong to him."

The annotated 'Negotiable Instruments Law,' by John J. Crawford (Baker, Voorhis & Co.), gives the statute as passed by the New York Legislature. In 1895 the conference on Uniformity of Laws held at Detroit took steps to codify the law relating to bills and notes. The matter was referred by a committee to the author as draftsman, and his draft was printed and sent to lawyers and judges both in this country and in England for criticism. In 1896 this conference, representing fourteen States, amended and adopted his draft. Since then it has become a law in New York, Connecticut, Colorado, and California. The fate of this experiment will be watched with interest. Will the Legislatures of the adopting States leave the law alone, or will they alter and make patchwork of it? Sec. 262 enacts that protest, if not made by a notary, must be made by a "respectable resident." Does this enable an issue to be made as to the social standing of a merchant who, in default of a notary, protests? The old rule appears to have been, that, by custom, merchants and officials other than notaries might sometimes protest. The rule never gave the courts any trouble; but we venture to predict that the statutory form of it will be found to open a way for contention and delay which would not otherwise have existed.

'An Outline of the Law of Libel,' by W. Blake Odgers (Macmillan), consists of six lectures delivered in the Middle Temple Hall during Michaelmas Term, 1896, at the invitation of the Council of Legal Education. It does not deal with the allied subject of slander, except where it is necessary to distinguish that species of wrong from libel. Mr. Odgers's well-known treatise or digest covering both topics is a proof of his competency to deal with them, and in two hundred pages he manages to give a key to the law of libel, condensing this again into a summary of twenty. In this outline he goes over the general principles governing libel, the question of "fair comment" on matters of public interest, of construction and justification, of privilege, and of malice, and concludes with a chapter on criminal law. The book is intended for beginners, and in many respects resembles Mr. Augustine Birrell's little hand-book of six lectures on Trustees. It is written in a popular style, and there are always difficulties in making a popular style adapted to a law book; but it is clear and to the point, which is the main thing. Some of the illustrations are very pat: *e. g.*, under the head of justification, wishing to illustrate the fact that truth in law does not mean mere adherence to the letter, the author says: "If Mr. Weller, sr., wrote to his son that 'the Rev. Mr. Stiggins drinks,' it would be idle for him to prove at the trial that the reverend gentleman occasionally sipped a glass of water, if the jury think that the words impute that he habitually drank to excess." In the chapter on privilege, he shows very clearly that "malice in law" is a fiction, and consequently, if the law is said to "presume" it, he can "only echo Mr. Bumble," that the law must be "an ass." This style evidently has its dangers. Speaking of the old dictum that "a seal imports consideration," he declares that "you might as well say that a man must have a handsome balance at his bank because he has a handsome knocker on his front door," which is amusing, but implies that the dictum is sheer nonsense or insanity, which is not true.

Mr. Odgers's levity of style is connected with a certain hastiness of judgment which is sometimes calculated to mislead the student. Out of his scanty space he gives up a page to the suggestion that a fair comment may become actionable, owing to actual malice in secondary publication. To clinch the matter he supposes that A and B are both suitors for the hand of the same lady. A writes a book which is severely, but fairly, criticised in a newspaper. B reads this, and maliciously sends a copy of the criticism to the mother of the young lady, intending to injure his rival. Mr. Odgers declares that he thinks an action will lie for this, but is able to cite nothing directly in point. Of course it may be that what is a fair comment as originally published by A may become actionable through being maliciously used by B, but the imagined case is far from a good means of strengthening the author's suggestion. To our mind, the illustration throws doubt on the proposition it is intended to fortify. Curiously enough, a real illustration of words originally innocent becoming actionable through misuse (though here the words originally were spoken) is given at p. 7, in the case of the man who told as a good joke a story of his having been taken for Jack Ketch, on which the defendant meanly published the story in his newspaper, and so led people to point at the plaintiff and call him Jack Ketch. The defence's attempt to prove that the story was

set in circulation by the plaintiff himself was unsuccessful. This little book may be strongly recommended to any beginner who wishes to fix in his mind a general outline of the subject, and he will find it, moreover, very entertaining. For the layman it is hardly intended.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Tower of the Old Schloss. By Jean Porter Rudd. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

A Pretty Bandit. By Frank Bailey Millard. New York: The Eskdale Press.

Clever Tales. Selected and Edited by Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke. Boston: Copeland & Day.

The Stepmother. By Gregory Xenopoulos. Done into English by Mrs. Edmonds. John Lane (The Bodley Head).

A Story-teller's Pack. By Frank R. Stockton. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Statement of Stella Maberly. By F. Anstey. D. Appleton & Co.

A Transatlantic Chatelaine. By Helen Choate Prince. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Burglar Who Moved Paradise. By Herbert D. Ward. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Gold; A Dutch-Indian Story. By Annie Linden. The Century Co.

Tales from a Mother of Pearl Casket. By Anatole France. Translated by Henri Pène du Bois. New York: George H. Richmond & Co.

Sketches in Lavender, Blue, and Green. By Jerome K. Jerome. Henry Holt & Co.

The Express Messenger, and Other Tales of the Rail. By Cy Warman. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Uncle Lisha's Outing. By Rowland E. Robinson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Lying Prophets. By Eden Phillpotts. Frederick A. Stokes Co.

'The Tower of the Old Schloss' is a pleasing little story of 'The Old Ma'mselle's Secret' type minus the mystery. There is no secret; only an agreeable amount of Austrian-Tyrolese landscape, a haughty Baroness, and the rest. The novelty in the book is the extraordinary rendering of Tyrolese dialect into a hodge-podge of English, German, and Scotch. For example: "Hei, thee hat right now; as lang as I hae lived, an' I hae lived lang enough, I've nit-a seen the man yet as are worthy of it."

'A Pretty Bandit' and the tales which accompany it are much, yet not over-much, lauded when it is said that, dealing with the interminable alkali plains, the eternal sage-brush, and the inevitable cowboy, they have yet freshness and crispness and newness enough to make a very entertaining and original volume.

Is it because we are making strides in story-telling that the French *conte* does not necessarily now strike us dumb with admiration and wonder? 'Clever Tales,' to which France, Russia, and other Continental countries have contributed, are clever, truly, for the most part, yet cause one to reflect that cleverness may become tiresome, as in "The Phœnix," "Milton's Daughters," and "Newton's Brain"; and that, as shown in many of the rest, cleverness allied to ghastliness or to motiveless coarseness, is a combination of which by this time, let us hope, we are all heartily weary. "Karen" is an honorable contrast, humorous, melancholy, and not repulsive.

A tale of every-day life in modern Athens, by a modern Greek, put into English, is sufficiently a novelty to command the attention of fiction-seekers. 'The Stepmother' is, moreover, a story of some attractiveness, giving a glimpse of the Athenian home, and having as its motive the question of the advantages of early marriages. That the hero is only twenty years younger than his father, leads to a serious situation which only just does not wreck the family. The story may be read with interest, whether or no it is persuasive as to the desirability of keeping one's parents as old as possible.

When Mr. Stockton returns to his short stories, he comes again into his own and we into ours. Therefore, for 'A Story-teller's Pack' we thank him. If in one or two instances the humor hovers on the edge of that steep which falls away into flatness, there is the saving grace of a speedy ending to the matter, and we pass on, finding, all told, very little from cover to cover that does not sustain Mr. Stockton's unique and enviable reputation.

In no disparagement be it said that Mr. Anstey's books recall the remark of the Tennysons' family servant, that "you might coomb hell with a fine-tooth coomb, and you would not find their likes." 'Miss Maberly's Statement' is, no less than his others, a case in point—weird, wild fancy costumed as common sense. If one does not believe in his magic, it is not his fault, for all is systematically and logically elaborated and set down in plain good English. To tell the story would be to dull the surprise for the reader, to whose personal inspection, therefore, we commend the puzzle.

'A Transatlantic Chatelaine' is written in a fine and lofty style, and teaches a rare and noble lesson—that of fidelity to duty without story-book reward. Its effectiveness as a novel is marred by the inconsistencies of the heroine's character, who, with a pure, cold, rarefied soul, is imposed upon by unworthies whose detestable qualities cry aloud at the first glance. The villain is not only so, but a cad, and would hardly have deceived such a nature as Sylvia's, even for an hour. The circumstances which lead to her wealthy widowhood (and wealthy widowhood, of course, was imperative if she was to become a French chatelaine) are a tax on credulity, and the detailed account of her father's career a tax on patience.

In light, bright, and charming vein is Mr. Ward's 'Burglar Who Moved Paradise.' If there is a suspicion of Stockton in its composition, surely none will object (unless Mr. Stockton does); there is, to boot, a composite quality, compounded of fun, sentiment, and salt water, which is almost to be called a new combination and which is thoroughly pleasing.

'Gold,' so far as known to the present reviewer, is the first Dutch Indian novel that has seen the light of day. It has the merit of absolute originality in its scenery and its figures. There are the Dutch-Indian islands, there are Orientals of every sort from Chinese to Javanese, and the dwellers in Moa. The hero, a perfectly commonplace young Amsterdam merchant, falls a prey to the gold craze, through reading in old Malay manuscripts of the Mountains of Moa; he persists in a crazy expedition, and only his lady-love's devotion saves him from destruction. There is a good deal that is interesting in the accounts of people and places, even though the latter are filled with poisonous horrors and the former have "manners which are none and customs which are disgusting." The story needs an oiled feather, for the imaginative and the realistic are not welded with skill. It is at moments horrible, at other moments flat. Yet it is striking and readable, and serves to make one grateful not to have had his lot cast in Dutch India.

The tales of Anatole France have much of the mother-of-pearl texture of the casket whence they are taken—its firmness, its smoothness and finish, its variety and delicacy of tint. They are the tales of a scholar, and range from Roman Judaea to Revolutionary France. Of the sixteen the sketch of Pontius Pilate is the most learned and one of the best. There is a very good one of the first French Republic, the journal of a recruit, and a charming one or two based on monastic legends. In others we find the historic sense rather over-keen for the sickly; and the mystical sketches are very mawkish. In a tale of spiritualism, referring to the well-known William Crookes of England, a sentence runs: "Moreover, William Crookes was deprived suddenly of the aid of the incomparable dead lady who had gracefully granted to him several spiritualistic séances." The translator, obviously a Frenchman, has a copious vocabulary and a command of construction, but has not escaped the snares which await the foreigner who tries to master our *will* and *shall*, our *has been* and *was*. An occasional sentence reminds one of Madam Eve, as when the young hermitess, Oliverie, is not frightened by having a unicorn enter her kitchen, "one day that she was weaving wool"; knowing that "the unicorn never does any harm to misses who are wise." Misses will please note the fact in case of unicorns in or out of kitchens.

Of Mr. Jerome's nine tales and ten "character-scapes" there are good, bad, and indifferent, but the greatest number is good—good in the Jerome style, let it be understood, with his well-known alternations of the ingenious with the commonplace, the clever with the cheap, the fanciful with the sordid. A well-edited Jerome might be a book of real diversion; and, by the way, will the maker of that edition kindly omit illustrations?

Locomotives and Indians, separate and combined, have found an eloquent biographer in Cy. Warman. He knows his locomotive as Howells his Venice, as James his international heart. And he makes the reader know it in a series of sketches which are certainly not void, though they have little form. They read like synopses rather than accomplished work, with their lists of characters, engines, Pawnees, Sioux, firemen, drivers, and road-agents, and their galloping recapitulation of disasters and escapes. The language is an odd fusion of scenery-English and the slang which came with electricity and the development of the West, and which is not ill-suited to the theme, though "stroking his long gray Peffers" may well contract the heart of the stoutest patriot. But it is the nature of the engineer to use local color in his speech, of the Indian to scalp, and of the locomotive to lead an errant life when it is not sulking; and these are stories of the rail, and as such fulfil amply and ably their promise.

'Uncle Lisha's Outing' is chiefly interesting

as a study in early Vermont philology; and of its gems of speech there are no two of purer ray serene than Antoine's "lonesick," and (in response to "I druther") Uncle Tyler's "You'll get your druther." We do not underrate the joys of camping and hunting in Vermont wildernesses of half a century ago, nor the never-failing thrill of a glimpse of the underground railroad, nor the felicity of meeting again our old friends the Danvis Folks—old Uncle Lisha, for ever young; Joseph Hill, for ever cautious; Ann Twine, the French Canadian, for ever amusing; yet we confess that, in lieu of six days of the landscapery, the dialect, and the duck-massacring, three would have contented us.

Landscape and dialect abound also in Eden Phillpotts's book, 'Lying Prophets,' but as accessories to a heavy-hearted story of no little power. The novels that come up out of Cornwall are ever woful and tragic. From Isolde's time to this, so has it been. The Cornish coast is cruel, the melancholy of the sea touches life at every point, religion is as sombre as the granite crosses on the moors, and even joy and sunshine seem only will-o'-the-wisps leading to doom. Such is often the impression from Cornish tales, and such particularly comes from this one, where we meet, austere of the austere, the "Luke Gospellers," compared with whom Calvinists are freethinkers. Against their doctrine comes clashing nature-worship as practised by a London artist, but practised solely in the interest of his own art, and between the two forces the tragedy is struck into pitiless flame. "Lying prophets both" who preach these two religions, says to poor little Joan the good Uncle Chirgwin, who "has the faith that moves mountains." It is a painful and a moving tale, full of sad orthodoxies and sad heresies; told with a force which would have been heightened, to our thinking, by abbreviation of many scenes and descriptions. The characterizing is extremely well done; every person stands out strong and alive. For the time one lives in Newlyn and shares the common lot. The talk of the village fisher folk among themselves has the living and often the luminous quality of that of the country people in 'Adam Bede' and 'The Mill on the Floss.' And the beautiful Cornish dialect—can one have too much of it? "The auld stones speaks to me solemn, though they can't talk. They'm wise voiceless things and brings God closer. An' me an' all the world o' grass an' flowers, and the lil chirruping griggans do seem so young beside 'em; but they'm big and kind."

WORKS ON MUSIC.

Pianoforte Study. By Alexander McArthur. Philadelphia: T. Presser. Pp. 141.

Portraits and Silhouettes of Musicians. By Camille Bellaigue. English by Ellen Orr. Dodd, Mead & Co. Pp. 302.

Kritik der Tonwerke. Von Julius Fuchs. Leipzig: F. Hofmeister. Pp. 552.

A Pilgrimage to Beethoven. By Richard Wagner. Translated by Otto W. Weyer. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Company. Pp. 39.

Stories of Famous Operas. By H. A. Guerber. Dodd, Mead & Co. Pp. 258.

Alexander McArthur knows more about the life and art of Anton Rubinstein than any other writer on music, being the author of the best biography of him so far issued, and one based on a friendly intercourse of many years. The new book from the same pen has the sub-title of "Hints on Piano-Playing," and it may be said at once that, large as is the list of instructive works for students of that instrument, no other will do so much and in so pleasant a way to open their eyes and ears to what is essential in their art. It is not a mere treatise on technique, on which most pianists waste most of their time, but it pays special attention to the intellectual and emotional sides of the art, without which, in these days of rampant virtuosity, the most brilliant manipulators of the keyboard fail to command applause. In modern concert-halls brains are more important than nimble fingers. "It is better," says the author, "to practise an hour daily with your thoughts concentrated on your work than to practise five hours with your thoughts rambling." Some mothers would do well to read this book and note the damage done by injudicious flattery, as described on page 27. "All the geese become swans, and the number of young Paderewskis now flourishing would be amazing, were one to take a census from mothers only." "Of course it is lovely to be told that one has played a piece as well as, or even better than, Paderewski, but one should never forget to measure such praise by the ability and knowledge of the bestower."

The advice that Paris should be avoided by students of the pianoforte, because piano-playing in that city is at the lowest ebb, is perhaps hardly needed, as the great Mecca of students at present is Vienna, where dwells Leschetitzky, who is supposed to have the magic gift of converting sparrows into nightingales. Leschetitzky, the author points out, undoubtedly sends forth pianists perfect in technique, but very often defective in poetry. Paderewski was his pupil, but what is poetic in his playing was born in him, or is due to his own studies; his readings are his own. Paderewski is justly classed by the writer as one of the world's three greatest pianists, Liszt and Rubinstein being the other two; but the statement that there are just four great pianists to-day—Paderewski, Carreño, D'Albert, and Rosenthal—is questionable; there are many who would say that MacDowell and Joseffy have greater claims than the second and fourth in that list—in some respects greater than the third. Rosenthal is properly characterized as a mere virtuoso, and censured for his arrangement of Chopin's waltzes, "an atrocious example of musical taste, at the same time a brilliant exhibition of his grasp of counterpoint—but Rosenthal plays Chopin's Berceuse and Barcarolle too abominably for words."

Hans von Bülow recognized his own limitations. His playing of Beethoven was a revelation, but he had none of Rubinstein's fascination of touch or tone, and Chopin's poetry was beyond him. "I was never more struck by Hans von Bülow's wonderful critical powers," writes the author, "than when he said one day, during the lessons at the Raff Conservatory, to a pupil who wanted to play the A flat Chopin Ballade to him: 'I cannot show you how to play Chopin's Ballade, because I myself do not understand Chopin.'" Bülow owed his success as a teacher largely to his insisting that compositions should first be carefully studied with the eyes alone, away from the instrument. He himself "could play any piece—so highly had he himself developed this talent—after a short mental study." A musical student must also make experiments. Rubinstein once told the author that he had spent thousands of hours in trying to find a particular tone he wanted. Many of his most wonderful tone-color effects were combinations of the pedals—which few pianists know how to treat properly. Excellent as the remarks on the pedal in this volume are, we must take exception to the recommendation that it should be used very little in Bach's Preludes and Fugues. There is in those pieces a dreamy, romantic spirit which can be revealed only with the aid of the pedal. There is also a slight misconception (p. 97) as to Wagner's attitude towards the piano. He did, indeed, at one time, speak of it slightingly; but in his later essay on the Munich Conservatory he placed the piano in the front rank.

If a reader of the second book on our list should happen to open it on page 300, where it is stated that Wagner "passed by the beauty of the human voice almost without recognition. Despising, sometimes insulting human speech, he neglected," etc.—he would be likely to toss it into his basket as trash. But the judgment would be too severe, as there is nothing else equally foolish and antediluvian in the book. It is a series of rambling essays on fifteen composers—Palestrina, Marcello, Pergolese, Haydn, Mozart, Gluck, Beethoven, Rossini, Weber, Mendelssohn, Schumann, Auber, Berlioz, Meyerbeer, and Wagner. There is little in them that might not be found in more condensed form in the encyclopædias and musical histories, but lovers of Italian and French music, to which the bulk of the volume is dedicated, may find it to their taste. It must be said that there are other French books much more deserving the compliment of a translation than Bellaigue's; for instance, the 'Harmonie et Mélodie' of Saint-Saëns, or Julien's 'Musiciens d'aujourd'hui.'

Extremely silly but very useful—thus paradoxically might be summed up the criticism of the third book on our list. Herr Julius Fuchs undertakes the amazing task of classifying 2,576 composers mathematically in the order of their value—not individually, of course, from No. 1 to No. 2,576, but according to general divisions. These divisions are arrived at with the greatest ease. Following the ludicrous precedence of Naumann, Herr Fuchs puts the great composers up to Beethoven, and those only, in class I. 1; there are four of these lucky ones—Bach, Beethoven, Handel, Mozart; then in class I. 2 comes Schubert, all alone by himself. Class I. 3 comprises Gluck and Haydn. These are the first-rate composers—no romanticists admitted in this category. Then come the second class, II., 1, in which we find this happy family: Brahms, Mendelssohn, Schumann, Wagner, Weber. Herr Fuchs seems to be down on foreigners. So far, all the masters are Germans. At last, under class II. 2, he admits them—twenty-one of them, in fact; among them, Chopin and Mascagni, on the same rung of the genius ladder! It is to be feared that Herr Fuchs is lacking in a sense of humor; and what is more, he threatens to print another volume justifying his classification. Yet the present volume, as we have said, is very useful. The comic classification takes up only thirteen pages; the rest of the volume is divided into two sections; one (152 pages) gives a list of pieces for various instruments, or the voice, classified according to their degree of difficulty. This is followed by a list of the works of the 2,576

composers—very convenient for reference. The rank marks recur in this division, but they can do no harm.

When Richard Wagner was starving in Paris, he found that he could earn a few pennies by writing musical essays and novelettes. One of the best of the latter was a novelette entitled "A Pilgrimage to Beethoven," which, in a semi-autobiographic vein, describes a poor musician's journey to Vienna to see his idol, Beethoven. In ensuing conversations some of Wagner's own ideas are put into Beethoven's mouth; for instance, "If I were to compose an opera after my own taste and views, people would run away from it. There would be no arias, duets, trios, nor any similar stuff in it, with which they patch operas together nowadays." There is a good deal of pathos, too, in this novelette. It has been translated several times, but Mr. Carus's convenient edition is none the less welcome.

Some time ago Miss Guerber issued a volume on the 'Stories of the Wagner Opera.' Its success has encouraged her to write another, outlining the plots of the principal French and Italian operas, omitting those based on Shakspere as being sufficiently familiar. The stories are not mere "arguments," as the opera-house programmes call them, but are told at some length; in 258 pages only fifteen operas are disposed of. They are "Faust," "Carmen," "Aïda," "Huguenots," "Fidelio," "Don Juan," "Barber of Seville," "Martha," "Il Trovatore," "Lucia," "Norma," "Mignon," "Figaro," "Cavalleria," "Le Cid." There are also a number of pictures.

Life and Letters of John A. Roebuck, P.C., M.P. Edited by Robert E. Leader. Edward Arnold. 1897. Pp. vi, 375, with portraits.

These memoirs of a man who for a generation occupied a distinct place in British politics and died eighteen years ago, are judiciously written, and are likely to be of interest to those who remember his times. The public character of Mr. Roebuck is honestly brought out. It is one not particularly lovable or calculated to inspire enthusiasm. Mr. Leader admits Mr. Roebuck to have been "the zebra of politics," "a man of angles and peculiarities, uncomfortable to friends and dangerous to opponents." A leading journal is quoted as writing of him, after his decease, as having been

> "a thorn in the flesh of the party to which he nominally belonged. Whatever good he did in public life—and he did some very good things, especially in the earlier part of his career—he did by well establishing himself as a thorn in the tenderest region of his party's organization, and shifting about there freely as that party moved."

If he believed that, in following the interests of England, he advanced "the interests of the whole human race," the manner in which, according to a newspaper of the day, "he put Roebuck first and England second, and the magnificence with which he was able to trace all his country's greatness to a judicious obedience to the Roebuckian behest, were characteristics which often proved irresistibly tempting to the satirist and the scoffer."

The Life should be interesting of any man born amid the purple of Anglo-Indian officialism, brought up in the backwoods of Canada, and who, not altogether without the use of fists and pistols, fought his way up to the position of "Right Honorable." The reader will find himself somewhat bewildered in endeavoring to follow his tergiversations: a redhot Radical, a crusty Conservative—desiring the abolition of the Lords' veto, regarding them as the bulwarks of the state—the coadjutor of O'Connell and a lover of the Irish, their despiser and contemner—in favor of the abolition of all State churches, the supporter of even the Irish Church—a professed lover of freedom, the admirer of the Southern Confederacy. In Mr. Roebuck's case, as in that of other British politicians who have gone over to the Tories, we find it difficult to reconcile the Queen's sudden appreciation with the bearing of a constitutional monarch supposed to stand neutrally above party. "I have sent for you," said her Majesty, on Mr. Roebuck's reaching Osborne to be sworn on the Privy Council, "so that I might be able to express to you personally my high appreciation of what you have said and done upon the late trying occasions. I consider your conduct to have been that of a true patriot, and I am glad to have this opportunity of expressing to yourself my approbation and thanks."

We find many interesting notices of distinguished people. Judging of Mr. Roebuck, as we were accustomed, by his later career, it is curious to think of him as a sworn Benthamite, the associate of John Stuart Mill, the companion of the Taylors and the Grotes. We have a circumstantial account of his version of the causes that led up to his sudden breach with Mill. It varies essentially from that given in the Autobiography of the latter, where it is attributed to differences concerning the respective merits of Wordsworth and Byron. If this book has any special message to latter-day politicians, it is that seasons of discouragement such as that which came after the great Reform Act have before supervened apparently as deep as that through which they are now passing.

The Quest of Happiness. By Philip Gilbert Hamerton. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1897.

Disbelievers in hedonism are likely to derive more happiness than other people from this book. Its general effect is undeniably dreary and depressing, and this fact will be appealed to as demonstrating the unsatisfactory nature of the author's philosophy. It is substantially an atheistic stoicism; and stoicism without faith in divine rule seems to many but a broken reed on which to lean. The great practical rule of the Stoics was, Don't want what you can't get; and if this rule could be carried out, much unhappiness would disappear. The world, however, has never been able to adopt it, and even the virtuous Epictetus must have encountered serious difficulties in practising what he preached. To profess stoicism, said Gibbon, with Seneca's purse, was to enjoy at once the advantages of fortune and philosophy; but Seneca's soundness in the faith may be doubted. Man's nature is so full of longings and desires that he cannot tell beforehand which of them it is hopeless to try to satisfy, nor is the process of repressing feeling unattended with unhappiness.

There is, of course, as Lucretius observed, a pleasure in contrasting our lot with that of others less favored. As the worthy deacon put it in saying grace before his Thanksgiving dinner, We are grateful that so few families will sit down to-day to so good a dinner as that which is on our table; and every one remembers Marjorie Fleming's list of reasons for thankfulness. There is certainly more of happiness in this state of mind than in envying those who are better off than we are; but happiness of this description is not of a particularly edifying character. Mr. Hamerton was scarcely consistent in admitting that the Pharisee in the parable ought not to have been proud of his supposed superiority to the Publican, although he might fairly be glad that he was not an extortioner, nor unjust, nor an adulterer. Might he not get as much happiness out of the first reflection as from the others? And if he could, why shouldn't he?

But such queries as this would soon lead us into the sloughs of casuistry, which Mr. Hamerton, to do him justice, avoided. With his definition of happiness it is not hard to prove it attainable. It means simply such a degree of satisfaction with our existence as makes us willing to live on as we are without any important change. "So long as we prefer conscious to unconscious existence, . . . there must be some degree of happiness in our lot." A small enough degree, however, as Mr. Hamerton not only held positively that the happiness hitherto enjoyed by the human race would not compensate for its sufferings, but also looked upon the sure extinction of life in the course of nature "without the slightest disapproval and with very little regret." But the fact that living was a poor business did not prevent Mr. Hamerton from courageously, and even heroically, trying to make the best of it, and his maxims not only will commend themselves to such as hold to his philosophy, but deserve the attention of those to whom it is repugnant. For, as he pointed out, no one practically disregards utilitarian considerations. Even those who do not make their own happiness an end, struggle to promote that of others; and if such a struggle is to go on, it is desirable to know how to carry it on successfully. Certainly no safer advice can be given than to avoid dwelling on unattainable ideals. "The power of seeing things as they really are, without being biassed by the desire to have them as we think they ought to be, is, of all gifts, the most desirable, with a view to a rational though not an intoxicating kind of happiness." This is not the most elevating of doctrines, but Mr. Hamerton did not forbid us to dream of an ideal world, nor are those who think it base to seek happiness deliberately obliged to follow his precepts.

The most suggestive part of his book is that which illustrates the distinction between positive and negative happiness; but no doubt the whole of it will commend itself to his admirers. Perhaps it can be criticised no more justly than by quoting one of its sentences: "Happiness is much more nearly akin to self-satisfaction than is culture, and self-satisfaction is usually found in its highest perfection in narrow minds and in narrow lives."

Magic, Stage Illusions, and Scientific Diversions; including Trick Photography. Compiled by Albert A. Hopkins. New York: Munn & Co. 1897. 8vo, pp. 556.

This book has a distinctive character. Probably not fifty pages of it are filled with the stock of such publications, drawn from

Jerome Sharp and Ponsin. It is not a manual for amateurs, like Hoffmann's excellent volumes. It treats neither legerdemain nor the psychology of prestidigitation —a branch of the psychology of art which merits systematic discussion. Mr. Hopkins's main purpose seems to be to collect descriptions of mechanism for public illusions and stage-effects. These are eked out with photographic and other tricks, and with sundry contributions by Mr. Henry Ridgely Evans; so that on the whole the contents are somewhat promiscuous. There is a bibliography of white magic by Mr. Evans—naturally, a mere selection of titles with a few notes. It records the principal publications, as well as many others. That it is specially meagre in its English department is significant. For example, Baptista Porta's 'Magia Naturalis' is entered; not, however, the complete work, but only the first four of the twenty books which appeared in 1561, when the author was a boy. The popular English translation is not mentioned. Though Ozanam's 'Récréations' is given, the similar works written and translated by William Oughtred are omitted, even the somewhat celebrated book which pretends to be by Henry Van Etten. It is not in the French list, which ends with the letter R, so that Salverte and all authors later in alphabetical order are missing.

As a sample of the contents, take that trick in which the rise of the curtain discloses two large cages made of slats, like hen-houses or drying-rooms, but raised upon legs, so that the spectators can see under them as well as through them. Indeed, the performer happens to have occasion to pass to the back of the stage, when he can be seen as he walks behind the slats, and his feet can be seen below. A brilliantly dressed odalisk, or Mohammedan lady, appears upon the scene and enters one of the cages. Shades, like those of a carriage, are attached to it, and are pulled down; but no sooner is this done than instantly the door is thrown wide open, showing the whole interior, and in place of the lady there is a "caliph," or man in old Turkish costume. Just then the odalisk enters the parquette by the regular entrance in the rear. The curtains of both cages are now pulled down; the caliph enters one and the odalisk the other. The latter is then hoisted midway to the ceiling. The doors are now shut, and a shot is fired; whereupon the doors fly open, the odalisk's cage is empty, while she is in the one where the caliph, who has disappeared, was seen an instant before. The two cages stand open, and the audience can see right through them. The very simple secret is given.

The volume is rather handsome with its gay binding and 400 excellent illustrations. It will interest boys and amuse men.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Addison, Daniel D. The Life and Times of Edward Bass, First Bishop of Massachusetts. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Binns, C. F. The Story of the Potter. New York: M. F. Mansfield. 75c.
Castlemon, Harry. A Sailor in Spite of Himself. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
Date Book. To the Year 1897. George Routledge & Sons.
Evans, E. P. Evolutional Ethics and Animal Psychology. Appletons. $1.75.
Fredericq, Paul. Geschiedenis der Inquisitie in de Nederlanden. Ghent: J. Vuylsteke.
Gomme, G. L. Lectures on the Principles of Local Government. London: A. Constable & Co.
Hazard, Blanche E. Earliest Days in America. New York: Morse Co.
King, Lieut.-Col. C. Cooper. The Story of the British Army. London: Methuen & Co.
Lanza, Clara. Horace Everett. G. W. Dillingham Co.
Memorial of the Rev. Nathaniel G. Clark. Boston: Pilgrim Press.
New York Charities Directory. New York: Charity Organization Society.
O'Donoghue, D. J. The Life and Writings of James Clarence Mangan. Dublin: T. G. O'Donoghue.
Pancoast, H. S. An Introduction to American Literature. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Quarto, The. London: J. S. Virtue & Co.; New York: Brentanos. $1.80.
Randle, F. A. "Nil." F. T. Neely. 50c.
Sidgwick, Prof. Henry. Practical Ethics. [Ethical Library.] London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan.

Grant Allen's Evolution of the Idea of God.

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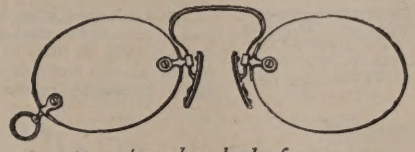

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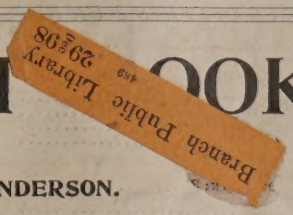

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 3, 1898

The Week.

The exhibition made by the United States Senate on Friday was, on the whole, the most discreditable yet seen. The Teller resolution, declaring that the Government may pay its bonds in silver dollars, which are intrinsically worth not half as much as gold, was passed, after a long discussion, by a vote of 47 to 32, or, allowing for the pairs, 52 to 37, if every member of the body had been present, one seat from Oregon being vacant. The affirmative included one Senator from New England, Chandler of New Hampshire, while only one Sound-Money Democrat, Caffery of Louisiana, was recorded in the negative. All the other Democratic representatives of sound-money States, Murphy of New York, Smith of New Jersey, even Gray of Delaware, voted with the Bryan Democrats and the Silver Republicans. Their excuse seems to have been that in their opinion the resolution was not equivalent to a declaration for free coinage (although some of its supporters claimed that it was), but was a mere legal statement of a right which the Government has always possessed, and which does nobody any harm so long as silver dollars are on a parity with gold, as now. This is a pretty weak excuse, but the attitude of men who are ready to vote on one side or the other is respectable compared with that of Allison of Iowa and Burrows of Michigan, who sat silent while their names were twice called on the proposition that all bonds are payable "in gold coin or its equivalent." The best that can be said of the day's work is the remark of Mr. Aldrich in closing the debate, that the "financial eccentricities of the American Senate have ceased to interest the American public to any appreciable extent."

There was a certain dramatic quality in the promptness with which the House took up the challenge sent over by the Senate in the shape of the Teller resolution, and there was something inspiring in a record of yeas from the Republican side which was broken only by a single nay from one North Carolina member of the party, and the shirking response of "Present" from another Republican Representative of that State. Leaving North Carolina out of the account, the Republican party in the House is now unanimous in taking the right side on a question involving silver. This is the first time that such unanimity has been reached since the silver craze broke out. It was almost exactly twenty years ago that a vote was taken in the House on the same resolution, which had been pushed through the upper branch by Stanley Matthews, then a Republican Senator in good standing, 18 of the other 33 Republicans recorded standing with him. When the roll was called in the House on the 29th of January, 1878, a decided majority of the Republican Representatives, 75 out of 131, voted in the affirmative. Among them were such prominent men as McKinley of Ohio and Cannon of Illinois, with every other Republican member from Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Iowa, except Garfield of Ohio. Even after fifteen years of "fooling" with the silver issue, the Republican party was far from being united on the right side when President Cleveland convened Congress in extra session during the summer of 1893 for the repeal of the silver-purchase act. On the final roll-call, August 28, 1893, twenty-five Republicans recorded themselves against repeal, among those on the wrong side being again Cannon of Illinois, with Hepburn of Iowa, and the three Republicans from Kansas.

Evidence steadily accumulates that public sentiment in favor of the gold standard, and in favor of currency reform based on that standard, is far stronger than the politicians suppose. A Wisconsin Senator voted on Friday for the Teller resolution declaring the bonds payable in silver, but the Legislature of that State is on record by an overwhelming majority in favor of the gold standard, and the silver candidate for President in that State was beaten by over 100,000 votes in the last election. An Iowa Senator sat silent in his seat on Friday while the roll was called on a proposition that all Government bonds are payable "in gold coin or its equivalent," but the Indianapolis convention last week was attended by fifteen delegations from that State, numbering sixty of the most prominent business men, who unanimously adopted a resolution requesting the Iowa Representatives in Congress to "use their best efforts to secure currency reform based on the gold standard," and the Governor of Iowa presided over the convention. Even more significant and encouraging is the announcement from Cheyenne that the State Treasurer of Wyoming has resigned the chairmanship of the Laramie County Republican central committee, because Senators Warren and Clark voted for the Teller resolution. He holds that the Republicans of Wyoming will not be forced by these leaders into a position antagonistic to that of the President and the national Republican party, and his resignation is believed to be the beginning of a fight by the gold-standard Republicans of the State to take control of the party organization out of the hands of Senators Warren and Clark and make this year's State campaign on a gold-standard platform.

Senator Turpie's carefully prepared speech of Monday week on the Teller resolution, now at hand in the *Congressional Record*, shows that the need of information on our past financial legislation is not limited to the "younger generation" about whom Mr. Vest is so solicitous. Mr. Turpie's entire argument is based on one positive historical assertion. "Prior to the passage of the act to strengthen the public credit in 1869," the Senator begins, "the bonds of the United States were payable in any lawful money. . . . The public credit had successfully passed" through the strain of war "without any law that our bonds should be payable in coin." This is strange history to spread before the "younger generation." If Senator Turpie is so ignorant of the financial incidents of 1863 as to suppose his statement to be true, we will refer him to the recent compilation, by the Register of the Treasury, of the provisions inscribed on the successive bond issues of this Government. From that official summary he will learn that something over one billion dollars in bonds, issued between 1862 and 1869, bore on their face the superscription, "payable, interest and principal, in coin," and that these words were in the act of March 3, 1863. Mr. Turpie seems to be equally unaware of the fact, familiar to most readers of history, that the public-credit act of 1869 applied primarily to the legal-tender notes, and in the case of bonds merely reaffirmed the already publicly declared purpose of the Government.

But in what coin were principal and interest payable? Let the Senator himself inform us. "There was at that time," says Mr. Turpie, speaking of this very period, "only an inconsiderable amount of standard silver dollars in existence—not enough to pay interest on the bonds." The simple-minded reader might then imagine that a provision for coin payment was to all intents and purposes provision for settlement in gold. But it seems not; for in the next breath Mr. Turpie tells us that when the act of 1873 discontinued the further coinage of the standard silver dollar, "there was nothing left but the gold dollar and its multiples with which to pay the bonded debt," and that "this transmutation of paper bonds into gold exceeded anything in the history of the Rosicrucians of the Middle Ages." That is to say, the Senator first declares, what we have shown not to be true, that the war debt

was all payable in notes, and then assumes, what he himself admits to be untrue, that it might have been paid in silver, and from these two premises arrives at the conclusion that the "syndicate of debt and gold" has somehow been cheating the Government out of its fair share of a contract. If we were not so familiar with this method of reasoning on this subject, we should say that we have no patience with it. But patience comes with long practice, though we are sorry to see, from Senator Turpie's case, that knowledge sometimes does not. We thank the Senator, however, for his plain confession that there was virtually no such currency in circulation prior to 1873 as silver dollars.

Senator Platt of Connecticut and Senator Chandler had a colloquy last week on the subject of bimetallism, the former contending that we have bimetallism in this country now because we use both gold and silver in our currency. Chandler maintained that bimetallism exists only where unlimited coinage is allowed to both metals. Chandler happens to be right in this instance. If Mr. Platt's contention could be sustained, we should have not merely bimetallism, but trimetallism or quadrimetallism, since we use nickel and copper also in our coinage. We use these metals in substantially the same way that we use silver; that is, the Government purchases and coins the metals, and then sells the coins to the public at prices much higher than the cost of production. It does not receive any such metals from private individuals for coinage, although it receives gold for that purpose in unlimited quantities. The phrase bimetallism is of comparatively recent origin. It was invented by Cernuschi about twenty years ago as a substitute for the phrase "double standard," to avoid confusion. There cannot be two standards at the same time and place, although there may be two metals admitted to unlimited coinage. Bimetallism means double legal tender rather than double standard.

There seems to be no doubt that the treaty for the annexation of Hawaii is beaten as it stands to-day. The best authorities at Washington agree that it lacks at least three votes of the necessary two-thirds, and some say as many as five. The opponents of annexation are ready to have the roll called without further delay, while the advocates of the scheme are pressing for postponement, on the chance that they may win over the votes which they now lack. Meanwhile they are resting their hopes upon the efforts of the two Presidents. Mr. McKinley is using all the influence of the Administration to carry through his personal policy (for control, and not annexation, was the policy demanded by his party in the platform upon which he was elected). President Dole is doing his best to help Mr. McKinley, but the advocates of the scheme do not seem at all sure that his visit to Washington is really helping them.

Senator Frye, in his speech at the dinner of the Manufacturers' Association on Thursday evening, admitted that the treaty is lost unless there is a change in sentiment among his colleagues, and urged his hearers to "exercise your influence upon the Senate of the United States to help us get the two-thirds vote there." Mr. Frye brought out all the old bugbears. He declared that we should lose the Hawaiian market unless we annexed the islands, though we have never had to own them in order to enjoy this trade. He predicted that, "if the treaty is not ratified by the United States Senate, in less than a year the Hawaiian Islands will be under the protectorate of Great Britain," although there is no reason why we should not continue to exercise the same control hereafter as heretofore. He brought out the "key" argument, and asked, "Where are you going to get your coal?" suppressing the fact that we have a perpetual right to the use of Pearl Harbor as a coaling station. There was, of course, "applause," and cries of "No, no!" were raised at the appropriate place, but proof is still lacking that the business men of the country are frightened by the bugbears or convinced by the arguments which the advocates of annexation bring forward. If the treaty shall ever be carried, it will not be public sentiment that does it, but the power of patronage exerted by the President.

That misunderstanding in Nebraska about the price of sugar-beets is made public at a most unlucky time for the waning fortunes of the Hawaiian treaty. It seems that the refiners are offering the farmers contracts for the year's product of sugar-beets at $4 the ton, as last year, but with a proviso that if Hawaii is annexed the rate shall be $3.50. This is dastardly. It also is really something very like *lèse-majesté*. Has not the Secretary of Agriculture officially declared that Hawaiian sugar will not compete at all with American beet sugar? Has not Morgan announced it, Lodge asserted it, Frye roared it, Allison rather guessed it might be so? Yet here are mere private business men cruelly offering contracts which show that Hawaiian sugar will compete, and will drive down the price of beets fifty cents a ton. The rascals should be prosecuted. Senator Thurston has been accused of being lukewarm on the treaty, and the President has labored with him; but his constituents are the chief offenders. Such nefarious methods as theirs would defeat any treaty. But we are confident that the annexationists are not at the end of their resources. They will insert in the treaty a provision to give every farmer $4.50 a ton for his beets, to be paid out of the contingent fund, and then where will these miserable $3.50-a-ton refiners hide themselves?

The House committee on appropriations is evidently not going to war along with our bellicose assistant-secretaries and second-lieutenants. We judge this from an inspection of the fortification bill as reported by the committee on Saturday. It carries only a little more than $4,000,000, instead of the $13,500,000 which the War Department authorities had declared to be "absolutely necessary." But Chairman Cannon ruthlessly cut off more than two-thirds of these absolutely necessary appropriations. The department asked for $5,000,000 to construct gun and mortar batteries to protect our "defenceless coasts." It got $1,000,000. The department begged for at least ten rounds of powder and armor-piercing projectiles for each gun and mortar expected to be in position by the end of the fiscal year. It would be too humiliating, it said, to have the ammunition give out just as it had a "hostile fleet" half whipped. But the committee voted money for only about three rounds. So it went all along the line. The eminent military authorities solemnly told the committee that they would not answer for the consequences to the country if their $13,000,000 was not voted. But the committee replied that it would not answer for the consequences to itself if it did vote such a sum, and remorselessly cut it down to less than one-third.

The best thing about the election of Mr. McComas as United States Senator from Maryland is the fact that the opponents of machine politics in that State are pleased with it. It is not the Democratic party only which has suffered from the evils of boss rule. The Republicans have had leaders who were anxious to establish a system which would be quite as offensive as Gormanism. Wellington, who was elected Senator two years ago, believes in the boss system, and set out to run the Republican party in just the same way as Gorman has so long run the Democratic. Wellington was unhorsed when the State convention met last September, but the lesson was lost upon Malster, the new Republican Mayor of Baltimore, who controlled several members of the Legislature from that city, and tried to dictate the choice of Senator. The election of Mr. McComas, who was clearly the favorite of the majority of his party, thus not only secures an excellent Senator, but shows that the people of Maryland know how to protect

themselves against the substitution of Republican bossism for Democratic.

The retirement of Mr. Preston from the office of Director of the Mint will be universally regretted by the friends of sound money, although we have every reason to think well of his successor. Mr. Preston had risen by his merits alone to the head of this important bureau. He had no political "pull." His work was the only testimonial and the only cause of his promotion. He ought to have been retained in the position of Director because of eminent and proved fitness. In any other government than ours he would have been retained. The bureau of the mint is peculiarly a bureau of details. It calls for special knowledge and acquaintance with a multitude of facts which cannot be picked up in haste. Moreover, Mr. Preston's term of office had not expired, and that adds something to the bad manners of his removal. It is evident that the demands of politics caused his retirement, yet, as we have said, his successor, Mr. Roberts, seems to be an uncommonly good selection if for any reason a change was to be made. We observe in the *State Register* of Des Moines of January 22 an address by Mr. Roberts before the Iowa Bankers' Association on "Banks and Modern Business," which evinces much careful study and accurate knowledge of the subject of which he treats, and a very pointed way of presenting his ideas to his hearers.

The *Wool and Cotton Reporter* tells us that "the foreign woollen manufacturers are, for the most part, in excellent spirits," are buying "large amounts of wool," are not conscious as yet that "they have lost our market," and are looking forward to a profitable business in light woollens in China and Japan. The rascals even think they will "sell us large orders in the future." Under these circumstances the *Reporter* naturally warns "American manufacturers to be on their guard." It is not this prophecy which affects us, but the cheerfulness of these scoundrels. We always thought one of the most attractive effects of a good tariff was to make foreigners feel miserable. We have now what all concerned admit is a model tariff, which has been in operation over half a year, and yet a leading trade journal tells us "the foreign manufacturers are in excellent spirits." The deficit is bad enough, but we should think this foreign cheerfulness would fill poor Dingley's cup to overflowing. Foreign misery is as essential a part of the protective system as home prosperity. There can be no true prosperity at home without weeping foreign operatives and "busted" manufacturers. Is this a consequence of having the tariff lower prices about this time?

The present comparative quiet in Cuban affairs should not blind any one to the really critical nature of the situation. Two things are absolutely necessary for Governor-General Blanco to do, and to do quickly. One is to set up anew the autonomous government; the other is to reduce the insurgent bands to submission. What progress is he making in either? Very little. The elections which were to have been held in February are now adjourned till April. It was felt, doubtless, that in the present condition of the island to hold a general election would be a little too facical. Occasional successes over the insurgents in the field are reported; here and there a rebel leader has been induced to surrender. But the Eastern provinces seem to be almost at the mercy of the revolutionists, and everywhere else roving bands are to be found. The death of the insurgent general reported on Friday took place in the province of Havana itself, which Gen. Weyler had asserted to be "completely pacified." Señor Canalejas, the ex-Minister who has been studying the situation in Cuba, goes to Spain to report that there is no immediate prospect of ending the war, as the insurgents have the means to prolong their resistance. At any rate, there is no likelihood of the war being ended before the beginning of the next rainy season in May, and if it is not, President McKinley, if we may believe what Mr. Hitt said in his name, is committed to a policy of intervention.

The Committee of Fifty-three, speaking for the anti-machine Republicans of the city, has put forth a statement in regard to "harmony" which is one of the most encouraging documents laid before this community in recent times. What could be more refreshing than the following passage, which is the keynote of the deliverance?

> "The machine and all sympathizers with it may as well understand, now and for all time, that the supporters of the new movement can no longer be fooled by worn-out tricks and promises of reform within and by the machine. We have walked too often into their parlor. We believe in treating the present machine in the same manner in which honest men treat rogues. Therefore, all talk of 'harmony,' so far as it can affect us, is absolutely wasted."

That puts the movement against Platt on the only basis upon which success is possible. He and his associates are not politicians in the proper sense of the term, but rogues, political gamblers, who use the party name only to enable them so far to conceal their real trade as to permit it to succeed. As Cornelius Bliss said of Platt, they act deliberately "so as to make it impossible for self-respecting men to be allied with them even for a good purpose." When all the honest men of the Republican party reach the position now taken by the Committee of Fifty-three, that they cannot hold any relations with rogues, cannot even treat with them, the end of Platt as a power for evil in politics will have arrived.

John Morley, as was to be expected, has vigorously assailed Mr. Chamberlain's plan of giving a "grant in aid" to the West Indian sugar-planters. He characterizes the proposal as only one more attempt of the Conservative Government to bestow a dole upon favored classes at the expense of the taxpayers. First it was the landlords, then the Church of England schools, now it is the sugar-planters. This is going only a little further in the way of condemnation than did that stout supporter of the Government, the London *Times*, which said that it was not "greatly enamoured of the system of doles to which, by some fatality, the present Government has resorted with unusual frequency." But the "fatality" is only that of following a leader who makes all sorts of grandiloquent promises to all sorts of people, and then asks them to let him off with a small cash payment on account. Chamberlain may yet drop his grant in aid as abruptly as he did his famous imperial Zollverein, to which Lord Rosebery referred in a recent speech, saying that it behooved the audience to observe that solemnity which was expected in the presence of a corpse.

The frequent recurrence of fights in legislatures is not helping the reputation of democratic government. The scenes in the Austrian Reichsrath were scandalous enough, but the last prolonged fight in the Assembly in Paris was worse than any. But the sort of dry rot which seems to have overtaken nearly all democratic legislatures does not act on ours in the same way. In Europe they fall to, and smash each other offhand. Ours do not feel enough to indulge in any violence about anything. They sit still till they hear from their boss or "old man." The last thing in the world they think of is fighting. Nobody could get them into a rage. We have no "scenes" in our legislatures, because there is little or no debate. There can no more be confusion in our legislatures than in a man-of-war. Every man has his duties assigned to him, and knows exactly what he is to do. Then, in the minds of our politicians there is neither envy, hatred, nor malice. Every man knows his duty, and is content with the place his boss has assigned him. The idea of having any views of his own which he cannot change or surrender at a moment's notice never enters his head. Why, then, should he fight or assault anybody? This is a feature of the boss system which has not received the attention it deserves. The rows which occur in the foreign parliaments are clearly due to want of discipline.

THE PRESIDENT'S SPEECH.

The rumor that the President intended to put the currency rather than the tariff foremost in his speech at the banquet of the Manufacturers' Association in this city proved to be correct. He not only gave the currency question precedence over the tariff, but, it may fairly be said, made it the sole topic of his discourse. Whatever else he uttered was merely introductory to that subject. His remarks on this theme were highly significant, as accentuating a division of parties which has been a long time under way, and for which the campaign of 1896 was a preparatory step. There has been a struggle within old party lines from the close of the war till the present time over the money question, one faction in either party desiring to prevent the currency from advancing to par with gold, or to debase it after it had reached that standard. The very first political campaign after the war, that of 1868, was of this character. Both parties were rent in the same manner. Gen. Butler headed the soft-money Republicans and George Pendleton the soft-money Democrats. Both were worsted for the time being, but the struggle went on. Other issues, such as reconstruction, carpet-bag government, and force bills and tariff bills, held the parties together. They prevented the disintegration that the money question was tending to produce, but the poison was at no time absent. It worked more persistently and insidiously in the Democratic than in the Republican party, but was prevented from reaching maturity by the wisdom, influence, and courage of a few strong men, notably Horatio Seymour, Samuel J. Tilden, and Grover Cleveland. Two of these men have passed away, and the third is no longer in public life. The Democratic party now stands for nothing else under the sun than a depreciated currency. The debate just closed in the Senate is the best evidence of this. Even the men who supported Palmer and Buckner in 1896 are now yielding more or less to the soft-money pressure behind them.

What has been going on in the Republican party all these years? In the campaign of 1868 it triumphed on a platform which declared in favor of bringing the currency to par with gold, and would probably have remained true to those principles but for the unexpected decline of silver in the world's markets. This accidental circumstance, coupled with the fact that a section of the Union, destined to have considerable political power, was a producer of silver, threw the party off its balance, and it helped to pass the first silver act of 1878 (the Bland-Allison bill) over the veto of President Hayes, Mr. McKinley voting in the affirmative. From that time to this the party has been struggling with itself over the same question in one form or another, but mainly trying to dodge a direct issue, to carry water on both shoulders, to produce a deadlock in one way and another, and to gain time. This is the meaning of the various schemes for international conferences, including the last one, headed by Senator Wolcott. In 1896 there came a time when dodging would no longer serve. The Democratic party, released from the influence of its Seymours, Tildens, and Clevelands, went to the bad altogether, and adopted a platform which, with very little disguise, proposed to reduce the dollar of commerce to fifty cents, with all the disastrous consequences to public and private credit which that act implied. The Republican party was forced to take a stand against that policy, and it did so, but not without violent internal commotion. The representatives of the silver-producing States formally seceded, carrying from the party the electoral votes of that section. The loss was more than balanced by gains in other places, but the cleft in the party was permanent and without remedy.

Mr. McKinley has been slow in recognizing this fact, but he has faced it at last. What he said at the banquet on Thursday evening was that the fight of 1896 must be fought to a finish, that there can be neither backward steps nor standing still. He tells his party friends that the St. Louis platform commits it to a reform of the currency, or at all events to an honest effort to do so. "It will not suffice," he says, "for citizens nowadays to say simply that they are in favor of sound money. That is not enough. The people's purpose must be given the vitality of public law. Better an honest effort with failure than the avoiding of so plain and commanding a duty." For saying something like this we have been accused by well-meaning newspapers in various parts of the country of over-stepping the mark of the St. Louis platform, and of imputing to the convention that adopted it more serious purpose than it ever entertained. We will let that pass, however. It is enough that their own President sees the duties and necessities of the hour in the same light. Of course, he will be accused of inconsistency. His past votes and sayings will be quoted against him, just as those of Secretary Carlisle were; but the battle will not be decided on grounds of individual consistency, but rather on those of national expediency and morality.

We might dwell upon separate phrases and paragraphs in the President's speech, but that would be a task of supererogation. The main purpose is to bring the supporters of the gold standard and of the national honor upon a common platform, to arm them with a common purpose, to drive all cowards out of their skulking-places, and compel them to take one side or the other. This is what the nation has stood most in need of for a full quarter of a century.

THE TYRANNY OF GOLD.

Throughout the debate in the Senate on the Teller resolution, and in many other debates, near and remote, a phrase has been of frequent occurrence implying that certain persons are "trying to fasten the gold standard on the country." This phrase, or something akin to it, was employed by Senator Chandler in the depth of his grief against Secretary Gage. The implication is that Mr. Gage and the opponents of the Teller resolution, including President McKinley, are seeking to introduce something new into our monetary system—that the act of fastening the gold standard on the country not only is wicked in itself, but is a novelty and an innovation. Lest they should create this impression in the minds of people who are liable to be imposed upon by gigantic impudence, we shall recapitulate the facts in the case, although they have often been repeated in our columns.

The truth is that the gold standard was fastened upon the country sixty-four years ago. It has been our monetary standard *de facto* for that length of time, and for twenty-five years it has been the standard both *de jure* and *de facto*. Consequently, Secretary Gage and the opponents of the Teller resolution, and President McKinley are not aiming to produce a new state of things. They are not seeking to bring about an innovation. On the contrary, they are resisting an innovation which Teller and Bryan are trying to introduce. Whatever merit belongs to conservative aims and tendencies belongs to the former. Whatever discredit attaches to radicalism and the spirit of change is the portion of the latter. We apprehend that it will be found in the long run that conservatism is the stronger force of the two. We believe that when the people come to understand that the silverites are the ones who are seeking to turn things upside down, while charging that intention upon their opponents, these gentry will be put upon the defensive, and that the task of defending themselves will not be an easy one.

Now, we invite their attention to a few well-known and oft-repeated facts of history. Prior to 1834 we had the double standard, as it was called, of gold and silver at the ratio of 15 to 1, which had been adopted in 1792. This was the true commercial ratio at the time when it was adopted, but it did not remain so. The commercial ratio changed, just as the values of wheat and corn vary with reference to each other. An ounce of gold came to be worth more than fifteen ounces of silver. Consequently it was exported or melted or hoarded. It disappeared from circulation. The people were left with an inconveniently heavy and cumbrous coin. They endured this

affliction as long as they could. Then in 1834 they changed the legal ratio to 16, although the commercial ratio was about 15½, and although the latter was then the legal ratio of France. It is not to be doubted that the object of adopting the ratio of 16 to 1 was to expel silver from circulation. The so-called "dollar of the fathers" was not wanted. It was driven out indignantly, or at all events effectually. The gold standard was thus established *de facto*. Less than two and a half millions of silver dollars had been coined from the establishment of the mint to 1853. The smaller coins were, however, of proportional weight and fineness with the dollar, and were full legal tender, and of these there had been upwards of $76,000,000 coined.

The next step was taken in 1853. Gold was then plentiful, and the silver dollar had passed out of men's minds as well as out of circulation. The only kind of silver that people were familiar with consisted of foreign coins and our own pieces of a half-dollar and less. In this year Congress passed a law demonetizing these pieces, *i. e.*, prohibiting their coinage on private account and making them legal tender for only $5 in one payment. This was in practice the demonetization of silver, because the act of 1853 demonetized the only silver coins that the people had any practical acquaintance with. A few foreign silver coins had been made legal tender for a limited period, which expired in 1857.

We now come to the "crime of 1873." It seems a long time since we saw that phrase in print or heard it from the lips of any public speaker. Perhaps the silverites have become ashamed of it. Perhaps its falsity has been so thoroughly exposed that it is no longer available. A crime implies the intention to commit a wrongful act. Whether the act of 1873 demonetizing silver was harmful or not, it is now sufficiently established in the minds of all candid persons that it was performed without any harmful intent, and simply in the way of public duty and supposed necessity. It came about in a revision of the laws relating to the mint, at a time when the silver dollar was worth two cents more than the gold dollar, and when no person could have anticipated that it would ever be worth less than the gold dollar. So innocent was it of any evil intention that some of the most vociferous silverites of the present day, including Stewart of Nevada, voted for it. The act merely carried to its logical end and conclusion the previous one of 1853 by placing the silver dollar, a practically unknown and unused coin, in the same category as the halves and quarters. A further and necessary step in the act of 1873 was the passage of a clause making the gold dollar the unit of value, in the words following:

"Sec. 14. That the gold coins of the United States shall be a one-dollar piece, which, at the standard weight of 25.8 grains, shall be the unit of value," etc.

The moral character of the act of 1873 is not now in question. We are only dealing with the false and misleading phrase, so often in the mouths of public men, that Secretary Gage and those who agree with him are trying to fasten the gold standard on the country, or, as it is sometimes phrased, are "fastening the tyranny of gold on the country." What is the meaning of the words we have quoted from an act of Congress passed nearly a quarter of a century ago? What is a unit of value? Manifestly it is the one thing in comparison with which all other values are to be measured and determined. It can have no other significance. Has there been any law passed since that time repealing or changing it or making anything else the unit of value? Nobody pretends so. Various attempts have been made to change it, notably in the last Presidential election. All such attempts have failed. It follows that the "tyranny of gold" has been upon us since 1834 *de facto*, and since 1873 both *de facto* and *de jure*. It follows also that the phrase imputing to certain persons a design to fasten this tyranny on the country is untruthful in its implications. It conveys the idea that those persons have some revolutionary design in dealing with the currency, whereas they are merely standing by and defending a condition which has been in force for two generations. The number of men who have seen more years than the gold standard has been in force in the United States are relatively few. They are those, and only those, who are more than sixty-four years of age. The only revolutionists and subverters of our ancient and established monetary system are the silverites themselves.

Something might be said about the phrase "tyranny of gold," implying that gold is a cruel despot and an injury to mankind. It is strange that we never heard of this tyrant until silver fell below par. If the despotism of gold is so cruel to the human race, it is strange that all other nations one by one are rushing to its embraces. Since the controversy became hot in the United States, Italy, Austria, Rumania, Chili, Japan, Russia, and even San Domingo have welcomed the tyrant, and now India is taking steps to the same end. The tyranny of gold is of the same nature as the tyranny of railroads in comparison with lumber-wagons, of telegraphs and telephones in comparison with post-boys, of gas and electric lights in comparison with tallow dips, of the United States in comparison with Mexico and China, of coined money as against wampum, of civilization in general as against savagery.

LOVE OF COUNTRY.

Mrs. Siddons, said Brougham, in reply to Talleyrand's question if Fox had not been *très occupé* with her, was too great to inspire affection; the East India Company might perhaps have dared to love her—nothing short of that. Of a truth, the magnitude of an object does affect the sentiments with which we regard it. Lovers dilate on the greatness of their love, but all tongues are full of the diminutives which they apply to its objects, and his suit would doubtless prosper ill who should address his beloved with the superlatives of dimension. The children of Israel were a stiff-necked people, but it cannot be called unnatural that they should seek some being more commensurate with their religious emotions than the awful Jehovah; a golden calf, even, or a brazen serpent might be much more comfortably worshipped than a deity whose greatness oppressed their imaginations. The worship of the Virgin Mary is not permitted to Protestants; but it would be uncharitable to deny that many millions of humble Christians have found the love of the Virgin something much more compatible with their limited capacities than that of an infinite being whom no human eye has ever seen or can ever see, and whose very perfections seem to elevate him beyond all relation to the petty turmoil of human passions.

If patriotism be defined as the love borne to a country by its inhabitants, it would thus seem reasonable to recognize the existence of some relation between extension on the one hand and intention on the other. There have been people who professed to love all men equally, but, granting their sincerity, we may question the heartiness of their attachment to millions and thousands of millions of their fellow-creatures whom they have never seen, and who would perhaps decline to reciprocate their amiable sentiments if the existence of such sentiments were disclosed to them. Love is no doubt an immaterial essence, but it must be susceptible of some kind of quantitative estimate, and the most large-hearted philanthropist can hardly maintain that he loves a million human beings severally with the same intensity with which another man loves a dozen. Established principles of psychology settle the matter, and it could be settled *à posteriori* as well. If we take a look into history, we find that the small states can make altogether the best case as regards the patriotism of their citizens. The Jews were plainly better patriots than the Egyptians or the Assyrians; the Greeks than the Persians. Lacedæmon was a very small state, but its soldiers have an exalted name for patriotism, and the Athenians were a notoriously patriotic people. There was more patriotism under the early Roman republic than under the later one, and under the Republic than under the Empire. The Chinese empire is perhaps the greatest in population in the world,

but it does not look as if the ordinary Chinaman were affected with patriotism in a very intense form. How much patriotism is there in the "vast and squalid empire" of Russia, compared with that in France, or England, or even Ireland? Is there any people of its size so dangerous to attack as the Swiss?

There is, perhaps, a dim metaphysical notion that patriotism consists in the love of one's country, rather than its inhabitants. Such is probably the idea of those newspaper writers and statesmen who profess to be inflamed with patriotism, while they are at the same time busily denouncing one another and large classes of their fellow-citizens as scoundrels. The sincerity of their feeling is best known to themselves, but if they have any affection for their countrymen, it must be confined to those who agree with them. But it would never do to define such affection as patriotism; the case would be worse than that of the Irish peasantry—

"fighting like divils for conciliation,
And hating each other for the love of God."

He who sets up as a patriot must yield his own tastes and preferences, and comprehend all his countrymen in the broad expanse of his affection. The Almighty, we are told, hates sin, but loves sinners; but no mortal can be allowed to pose as a patriot by proclaiming that he loves his country, but hates all his countrymen, or all that do not agree with his views. He must save his hatred for foreigners, and make his love cover all his fellow-citizens; otherwise, the most perplexing distinctions would be introduced. For, if a patriot denounces large classes of his countrymen, they may denounce him, and how can the dear People distinguish the genuine from the spurious article?

Since we Americans now number seventy millions, it can hardly be denied that our patriotism is in danger of becoming too diluted. It requires some effort to arouse the patriotic glow over a horde of Italians, Russians, Jews, Bohemians, Poles, Greeks, and Armenians just landed on our shores, but we must open our hearts to them, for they are just as much Americans as the rest of us so soon as they are naturalized. Length of stay counts for nothing. Some of our loudest patriots are of recent arrival, and if we are to take account of pedigrees, where should most of us be compared with the negroes and the "Indians not taxed"? If they can embrace us with patriotic emotion, we surely ought to fall on the necks of more recent immigrants; and if we do not love the negroes and Indians and the Populists of the South and West, how can we expect the recent importations to develop true "Americanism"? Such requirements, however, may pass beyond the powers of ordinary people, and even stretch those of newspaper and congressional patriots to a painful degree. Before enlarging our borders and taking in a considerable number of people of heterogeneous race, it would be prudent to allow our stock of patriotism to catch up with the demands upon it. When excessive strains are put on love, it is sometimes converted into aversion, and it cannot be denied that a country may become populated with individuals largely of an unlovable description. It is encouraging to find that the vociferous patriots are not having it all their own way in Congress, and that one leader, whose gifts of wit and good sense have made his lack of political courage and foresight a regret to his country, should openly say: "I don't want Cuba and Hawaii. I've got more country now than I can love."

THE MAYORAL CURIOSITY.

We must express our great satisfaction at the performances now going on daily at the city hall. To make Tammany and the Tammany régime thoroughly understood by simple-minded people, especially the people who proposed to "coöperate" with it, we needed just such a Mayor as Robert Van Wyck. No amount of speaking and writing about Tammany would do in ten years, for the elucidation of our situation, what he has done in one month. Ten years ago, when Tammany for the first time elected a real Tammany man—none of your "prominent merchants," or Chamber of Commerce "hypocrites," but a genuine Boy, fresh from the barroom and the race track—we took the liberty of pointing out that the city had entered on a new phase in its downward course, that simply bad and inefficient government had at last ended in an attack on our civilization itself.

The election of Grant, we held, and hold, was the first sign that our rulers were not going any longer to be content with corruption, bad police, and general maladministration, but were about to make an assault on the very foundation of modern American civilization—the necessity of science, education, training, and experience to national progress. The triumph of the theory that ignorant and inexperienced men were fit for the highest offices of state, that character was of no consequence, and that offices were simply "plums," was probably the worst blow that was ever struck at popular government, and it was struck in New York, A. D. 1888. It, however, produced no reaction. Grant was reëlected, and one of his confederates succeeded him through the votes of many decent people. In order to get rid of the Tammany régime, to have the great principles of modern civilization reaffirmed by the second city in the world, we had to have "the carnival of crime" that was exposed by the Lexow committee. In due time, after the effect produced by the "carnival" had worn out, we had Tammany back again, in defiance of press, pulpit, and platform. We found last November that we were dealing with a foe against whom all the instruments of persuasion were powerless.

For these reasons, because writing and talking apparently have no more influence in the city, we are grateful to Robert Van Wyck for giving us an actual demonstration of what Tammany rule, in its full development, means. It chose for its latest Mayor a judge of a minor court of small jurisdiction, more known for his conviviality than for his law or justice, with apparently no knowledge of city affairs, and without even the civility of manner for which Americans of every class are noted. There probably never have been in the civilized world such exhibitions as are going on in the city hall every day. There is probably no mining camp or low lodging-house in which can be witnessed such displays of unprovoked rudeness to any one as Van Wyck displays to high officials who come to see him on business. He is paid $15,000 a year for being what is known and has been known for ages as a "Mayor"—that is, a man who administers a city with a knowledge of its affairs, who represents it with dignity and urbanity to other officials or to visiting strangers, and keeps quiet about things he does not understand, knowing that any exposure of his own ignorance reflects discredit on his constituents. Not one of these obligations, however, does this Van Wyck acknowledge. He never appeared in public during the canvass, for reasons which are now very plain; but in this he was within his right. His seclusion was the affair of those who voted for him. But, once he secured office, he came under the ordinary obligations attaching to his office to keep sober, or else to carry his liquor meekly; to dress decently, to treat every one coming to his office on business with civility; to remember constantly his representative character, that he is not simply an ignorant, unmannerly, and convivial Dutchman, but, by the grace of God, the chief executive officer of no mean city, and therefore responsible for its fair fame among the civilized nations of the earth.

We, for our part, are glad he is disregarding these obligations. He is saving us the trouble of exposing Tammany and denouncing Tammany, work of which we were weary years ago. He is bringing home to the people of the city what Tammany really is, in a way in which no articles, or pamphlets, or indignation meetings could do it. He takes the place of Mugwumps, Garoos, City Clubs, Good Government Clubs, leaflets, sermons, and all the paraphernalia of free, civilized, and Christian government. He stands forth as a real Tammany Mayor, without any ornament or disguise. This is what we have been seeking for years and what both parties have been helping to procure us. No

better illustration of what "the party" lunacy brings a people to, could be devised. We are "the heirs of all the ages, foremost in the files of time," and a nice figure we cut to-day. We have to submit to the vulgar insolence of one of our own officials, who plays the barbarian to us in such fashion that the only thing he could further do to complete our humiliation would be to strip to the waist and sit at his desk in red ochre and feathers.

THE VACATION SCHOOLS FOR FRENCH IN FRANCE AND SWITZERLAND.

YALE UNIVERSITY, January 17, 1898.

Vacation schools for French are of late being founded in considerable number in Europe. They are for the benefit of foreigners, and the natives are debarred from attending them. I had occasion to visit most of these schools the past summer, and printed reports from several have now come in. The courses given are usually divided into two series; as, at Paris, one includes the month of July and the second the month of August, and at Geneva one extends from the 17th of July to the 30th of August, and a shorter one follows from October 1 to the 21st. Each is complete in itself; they mean to cover about the same ground, but at the same time the texts and other matters are not duplicated, so that any one might profitably follow both. I could not help being favorably impressed with the doings at all of these schools alike. Too much should not be expected from so brief a period of study, but all of them present an excellent opportunity to find out what the language is in its real dignity and importance, in its traditions and its literary development, as contrasted with the light smattering—to which no disparagement, as far as it goes—usually got from the ordinary French teacher abroad.

The course at Geneva, founded in 1892, claims priority in date. It was established by Prof. Bouvier of the Faculty of Letters of the University. He had been lecturer in French at the University of Berlin, and while there had seen the demand there was for supplying some such facilities as this, especially to the native instructors. It is now the requirement in the progressive European countries, as it will perhaps become the requirement some time with us, that the instructor in a modern language shall be able to conduct a recitation in that tongue itself. Some of those in attendance at Paris, during the last summer, were Russian and Bulgarian teachers sent at the expense of their own governments. The majority seemed to be connected with education; the college principal from Copenhagen would elbow the English governess from Allahabad; but there were also army officers, doctors, editors, and some business men.

The vacation school at Paris under the auspices of the Alliance Française, though founded only in 1894, has become the most important of all, as is natural enough, considering the advantages of the great metropolis. The Alliance Française is a patriotic association—with many distinguished persons in its management, and branches in all parts of the world—for the propagation of the French language. It seems to be a pretty lively part of that latent "conspiracy" which Brunetière affirms the French writers have entered into, from the beginning of their literature, to make the French language the second mother tongue of all mankind. So, too, Baron de Coubertin, acting upon a like impulse, has established valuable prizes for essays upon French subjects in our leading American universities. There is something rather fine about this plan of spreading the fame of one's country abroad. It seems worth any quantity of the bullying method by "pike and gun," and might give the cheap Jingoes food for reflection.

The exercises were held in the bright new edifice of the École Coloniale, which is on the quiet Avenue de l'Observatoire, close by the Luxembourg gardens. The cheery look of the building was a pleasant augury that was not belied by the event; from the first a very cordial and considerate spirit, which is by no means the invariable rule at Paris, was manifested towards the large group of strangers. There was a desire to entertain as well as instruct. After the speeches at the opening session, on July 1, it was announced that there was going to be, among other things, a shower of theatre tickets. Although this shower never reached such dimensions that it was precisely necessary to put up an umbrella against it, there were in fact a considerable number of theatre tickets distributed. Each nationality chose its own syndic, who dealt with the central authority in this and other matters. The ladies of the student company were received sccially by wives of several cabinet ministers. There were 370 persons in attendance, considerably more than half of them women. The August session drew together 170 more. They represented every sort of nationality: Russians, Danes, Hollanders, Italians, Bulgarians, Czechs, were all there. The bare list shows the cosmopolitan character of the assemblage, and its great possibilities, in consequence, for good. Germans were largely in the majority, as I found to be the case in all these schools. They were 216 out of the 370. There were 54 English and 44 Americans; the Russians followed next in order.

A busy round of lectures began, at the rate of about three a day, with conversation classes by small groups of persons, in the evening, and also (thrown in, during the day) visits, under a competent conductor, to the monuments and other art works of Paris. The French language of the seventeenth century and of the nineteenth were treated of, Gallicisms and popular speech; classic literature, and contemporary literature; Lamartine, by himself; the dramatic theories of Diderot; comedy after Molière; the Romantic drama. There were besides recitations in diction and dramatic reading and in elocution and pronunciation. The series is divided into two courses, elementary and advanced, according to the ability of the student, and there is also a common course, open to all alike, treating of the institutions of France and of art. At the end of the term, examinations were held and diplomas issued. As to the matter of expense, it is moderate: the whole two hundred exercises, of all sorts, can be subscribed for for the sum of 150 francs, or twenty-five tickets can be taken for 25 francs—this is required as a minimum—and, after that, such single tickets as may be desired.

Prof. Brunot of the University, author of an historical grammar of the language, was the lecturer best known among scholars. He is spoken of, too, as the soul of this work, on account of his great interest in it from the first. He gave us his regular product in all the minute details, so that the result was as if one had had a month's section or supply of what he would have taken a year or more to develop at the Sorbonne. René Doumic of the Lycée Stanislas, but also the distinguished literary critic of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, was the most interesting of the lecturers. The amphitheatre was large—for the purpose in view—and the front seats were much in demand, but he was the one who could always be heard without difficulty. It is gratifying to know this, as he is coming here in the spring to lecture at some of our universities, following in the footsteps of Brunetière, last year. He seems to have formed himself upon Brunetière in many ways, but his sentences are much shorter than Brunetière's, and hence easier to follow. He has also much humor. He dwelt on the need of actually being in a foreign country and knowing it, in order to try to understand its literature. All the speakers were not as entertaining as M. Doumic; some of them mumbled under their breath, and some of them were dull. But this was to be said of them all, that it was improving to listen to them, no matter what their material or their delivery, for one does not master talking French by listening to only a single speaker, any more than translating it by reading only a single author.

The conversation classes were really very well done. I could not but admire the polite ingenuity with which the bright young professor, in one of those sections, combated the reluctance (or the native slowness) of some of his auditors in being led into talk. Some of them had had very little previous practice in speaking. "And you, monsieur," he would say, extending a courteously appealing hand towards, for instance, the dark South American, "will you tell us something about the system of suffrage in your country?" "And you, mademoiselle," again, to the blonde Swedish girl, whose pleasant high color at once became more rosy still with a flush of modesty, "have you been to the theatre sometimes in Paris?" The theatre was always a resource; Richepin's play "Le Chemineau" was on at the time, at the Odéon, and nearly everybody had seen it. He would have the plot of it narrated and commented upon. Again, Zola, what with the differing moral ideas from so many parts of the globe, proved a source of such lively discussion that all self-consciousness was, for the time being, thrown off.

The final examinations consisted of the writing of a dissertation, in French, on some subject based upon the work gone over. One of those for the superior course was: "What was the end aimed at by Molière in writing 'Tartuffe'?" One of those for the elementary course: "An interview between the King and a critic belonging to the classic school, who wished him to forbid the representation of Victor Hugo's plays." I note that but one American passed the examination for a diploma, while sixteen diplomas were awarded to the English; but I think this merely shows that the Americans have not yet begun to enter for the examinations; they content themselves, for the present, with the incidental improvement.

The Alliance Française issues a list of boarding-houses for its students. I visited many of these *pensions de famille*, and—perhaps from having formed at an early day

the idea that living abroad should be both cheap and somewhat romantic—I cannot say that I found them attractive. They were not always very cheap, nor cheerful in outlook, nor free from odors as if the drainage had not been properly attended to; and then again it might happen that they would be so full of miscellaneous foreigners, or of other Americans, that very little good French would be heard there. Still, it must be possible to find the right sort of accommodations; I can only say that one will have to use all the ingenuity he is master of in getting himself agreeably placed.

The only other vacation school in France at present, though Grenoble is talking of having one soon, is that at Nancy, belonging also to the Alliance Française. Nancy has 80,000 people, and retains many of the stately features that belonged to it when it was the court-city of the Dukes of Lorraine. One is quite astonished, on alighting there, to see all those palaces, statues, gardens, fountains, triumphal arches, and high gilded gratings. Charles the Bold of Burgundy, that historical bull in a china-shop, was killed under its walls. The vine-clad slopes about it make pleasing scenery, and, so far as surroundings are concerned, I do not see why one could not be quite content to live and study in the quiet town of Nancy. I used to feel all along at Paris that the ideal vacation school should be held where one could combine some of the pleasures of the country with the purpose in hand; indeed, that was the basis of the search on which I set out. The lessons were given at the University. There are but five a week, and, as at Paris, the price comes to a franc a lesson. I found about thirty persons comfortably assembled about a long table, with the professor at one end. There were two English and one American, the latter a young woman from Arkansas. The course was followed by seventy persons in all last year. It is not here merely a vacation course; it runs throughout the year—as the prospectus announces, "même pendant les vacances." The examinations take place in April, July, and October, respectively. The University is open gratis to those who may desire to attend there, the whole certainly making an excellent opportunity. Board and lodging is quoted as from 100 to 150 francs a month.

I have said that at Grenoble they are planning a school of the same kind. They desire to have it throughout the year, as at Nancy. They would be very glad, too, to draw foreign students to their University. This small city, of 60,000 inhabitants, will most likely have a programme of studies arranged for the coming season, and then it should present great advantages. My attention was first called to it by the statement of Michel Bréal, the distinguished philologist of the Collège de France, that, if he had his life to live over again, "he would be a student nowhere but at Grenoble, within sight of the Alps, beside the swift waters of the Isêre." I spent some three weeks there, and came to know it very thoroughly. It is the centre of a variety of charming excursions. You have Chambéry close by, with the house of Madame de Warens and Rousseau; Aix-les-Bains, with its stir of fashion; the Lakes of Laffrey, where Napoleon first fell in with the Royalist troops on his escape from Elba; the springs of Uriage, and the remarkable glaciers of Bourg d'Oisans. I found M. Marcel Reymond (who, with M. Zeller, the very agreeable rector of the University, has this movement especially in charge) living at quite a little earthly paradise, his summer home, up in the village of St.-Ismier, embowered in rose and fruit trees, and looking off to the snow-topped range of the Belledonne. It was thought that students might be placed by twos or threes in private families, at moderate prices. Another idea was that the fine buildings of the Lycée should be used for this purpose during the vacation; they could be free, however, only after the month of July.

Grenoble is fortunate in the fresh, beautiful edifice of its University, uniform in architecture with the Public Library and the Prefecture, around a handsome square. I was there when it was dedicated by the President of France, under the new law which gives each university a separate existence; but lately they were mere "academies" of the central direction at Paris. The professors were very brilliant in their rich gowns—crimson, scarlet, violet, or canary-yellow, according to the faculty, with the *épitoge*, barred in ermine, over the shoulder. They surpassed even the gold-laced generals; learning here does not leave to the less worthy occupations the monopoly of mundane pomp. There are some 600 students; the faculties of law and science are stronger than the others. Grenoble has a Committee of Initiative, charged with advancing the material interests of the place, and a town of our own Far West could scarce be more active in distributing circulars, to draw in new population. What with this, a students' committee for the benefit of strangers, and the hospitable disposition of the professors, an American going there to study would certainly find himself well received, and in such a place he ought to be able to turn his time to very good account, both in the language and in other ways.

From there I went on to Geneva. I found some two hundred and twenty members in the summer course, with every appearance of being actively interested. The greater number were still Germans. There were but two from England—more exactly, Scotland—and none from America, though there have been Americans in former years. The fees are a little lower than in France—that is, forty francs for six weeks, at the rate of eleven lessons a week. Modern French was rather emphasized in the programme. The purpose here seemed to be to devote as much time as possible to the actual spoken language, leaving out the appeal to French pride and patriotism which was a natural part of the proceedings at Paris. But is Geneva French enough? Why, so far as language is concerned, it is a thoroughly French city; it is the birthplace of many great French writers, the source of most excellent French books, and its leading newspaper, the *Journal de Genève*, is among the best in Europe. The University buildings are in a new part of town, well linked in, however, with the older part that contains the Cathedral and the Hôtel de Ville. They look out with a fine stately air on a lovely public garden, made on the site of some old ramparts.

The studious audience in their spacious halls had a rather more hard-working air than that at Paris; there were many elderly persons present—one grave turbaned Oriental among them—and the shirt-waists and sailor hats might have been a trifle less trim than in Paris. The instruction was imparted by groups of not more than fifty, a feature which made it quite personal, easy, and practical. The instructors, chiefly from the government lycées, were young, energetic, and very competent in their subjects. Prof. Bally dealt very clearly with synonyms and with those slight differences of form that so much puzzle the stranger, and often the native, too—as, *en travers de* and *au travers de*, *s'amuser à* and *s'amuser de*. Prof. Thudicum had in connection with his class in Phonetics a successful Section de Chant, in which the popular ballads of Switzerland were sung; singing being an excellent promoter of accurate pronunciation. Prof. Bouvier, the founder and director, was admirable. Still young, of a fine and thoughtful appearance, a man of ideas and an excellent speaker, he had, too, that obligingness of manner, combined with force and efficiency in management, that constitutes the highest type of deportment for the civilized man. His own department was the French literature, with classes in "Analytical Reading" and in "Improvisation and Discussion." He read French poetry beautifully, without any of the cheap artifices of the elocutionist. The members of the school used to hold social reunions among themselves, and at the end there was a banquet, and Labiche's comedy "Les Deux Timides" was played. Saturdays were kept free for excursions, and surely there was no lack of excursions when you could go one day, for instance, to see Voltaire's fine château at Ferney, and another down the lake to Madame de Staël's charming home at Coppet.

Further along on the lake, at Lausanne, housed in the new chemical laboratory of the quaint University, high on the very steep hill, is another of the vacation schools. And still another is at Neuchâtel, on the lake of the same name, the town where Agassiz was once professor. I have no report on the latter, and I fear to transcend due bounds if I add more than a word or two about that of Lausanne. Some 3,000 English people, it is said, live at Lausanne, and by learning to deftly catch the tramways and the cable road down to the shore at Ouchy, have adapted themselves to the back-breaking hill, which, with all its picturesqueness, at first sight seems quite impossible. The courses here were two of three weeks each, but with fifteen hours a week, and the numbers were modest. If ten students make the demand for more than is contained in the programme, a special seminary will be formed for them. The programme, however, covered a pretty wide range—comparative literature, a comparative study of French and German, the movement of ideas in contemporary France, questions of modern history, and the like. The latter, by Prof. Rossier, was made, through discussions, as stimulating as possible to conversation; but considerable tact was sometimes necessary to avoid the rise of unpleasant feelings between rival nationalities.

WILLIAM HENRY BISHOP.

ROSSETTI AND MILLAIS.—II.

LONDON, January 3, 1898.

If Rossetti was the poet of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, sharing with the others his great gift of imagination, Millais was the painter, the perfect craftsman. Of this, you can never have the shadow of a doubt from the moment you look at the surpris-

ing little "Cupid Crowned with Flowers," the most romantic flight of his whole working life perhaps, painted when he was twelve years old (?), until you turn in despair from the popular "Cherry Ripes" and "Bubbles," with which, in his maturity, he stooped to pander to the public taste. Even in the worst of the banalities he produced with so much misdirected ease, you will come upon a beautiful bit of color, a lovely bit of form, a painter-like quality, that makes the foolish Christmas supplement a tragedy to you. So terrible does it seem that the accomplished painter he was should have been willing to prostitute his powers and play down to the populace. The collection displays him in all his strength and his weakness—the strength that lay in his extraordinary talent or genius, the weakness that came largely from his curious want of what I must call, for lack of a better word, pictorial sense. Where Rossetti hesitated and bungled, he triumphed, for in paint he found ever his one and only sympathetic form of expression. But where Rossetti looked out upon the world with the eyes of a poet, Millias saw things just as they are, all plain matter-of-fact prose. When left to himself, his portraits and landscapes were seldom more than exact transcripts of nature, making no demand on the intelligence or the imagination.

In the beginning, he fell under the spell of Rossetti. That he was ready to fall under anybody's spell seems likely. A "Cymon and Iphigeneia" I have now seen for the first time, ascribed to the years 1848-'51, when he was painting the most characteristic of his Pre-Raphaelite pictures, is absurdly like a sham Mulready or Etty, while a little "Conjurer," presumably an early work, though the date is not given, is strongly reminiscent of Bonington and Delacroix. But Rossetti's influence happened to be dominant; it asserts itself in the "Mariana" and "Isabella," in the "Ariel" and the "Ophelia," in the "Blind Girl" and the "Sir Isumbras," while the "Carpenter's Shop" suggests Holman Hunt. But, the subject or motive once found or borrowed, Millais could carry it out with a power and distinction all his own. Rossetti never surpassed the brilliancy of color in the "Mariana," nor the exquisite detail of the embroidery on the table, the jewelled girdle about her waist, the dim lamp before the shrine, the gay flower-garden seen through the window. He never approached the truth of the little hillside village under the vivid rainbow arch that makes a background for the "Blind Girl," or the blossoms and foliage bordering the stream where Ophelia floats, chanting snatches of old tunes. The "Girlhood of Virgin Mary" is not more naïve than the "Carpenter's Shop," nor the "Sir Galahad" more deliberately primitive than the "Isabella." These early Millaises are the masterpieces of Pre-Raphaelitism, and, at the Academy, if they are not hung in chronological order, they are placed so close together that they can be seen almost by turning your head, certainly by walking a few paces: an opportunity for study which will never be offered again, at least to our generation.

But the bewildering thing is that, even at the time Millais was busy painting these great pictures, he was perpetrating such odious sentimental trivialities as the "Order of Release" and the "Rescue" and the "Conclusion of Peace." This last, but little known, luckily, represents a family scene, and reeks with all that is sickliest and most cloying in early Victorian sentiment, so indelicate in its self-conscious delicacy that you hurry away from it with something like a feeling of shame. And when, gradually, he threw off altogether the romance he had borrowed from Rossetti, this sentiment clung to him, asserting itself with more and more force in the many subject pictures that have delighted the English Christmas audience, so that you cannot help asking if, in the "Conclusion of Peace" rather than in the "Mariana" or the "Ophelia," you have not the real Millais.

He had his splendid intervals, when, for instance, he painted his "Stella" and "Vanessa" in 1868, his portrait of Mrs. Bischoffsheim in 1873, of Mrs. Heugh in 1872. In the "Stella" and "Vanessa" he seems to have exulted, like a Veronese, in the gorgeousness of the gowns he was rendering and their rich, extravagant patterns; he seems to have let himself go, to have abandoned himself to the joy of creation, of seeing the lovely, sensuous forms and lines spring into life at his bidding. There is in them all the quality and color of his first pictures, together with a far greater freedom and force. The "Mrs. Bischoffsheim" has much the same luxuriance, the same gorgeousness; but it has also a stateliness and dignity he too seldom, alas! troubled to give to a portrait. The painting of the flesh, too, is admirable, and the modelling of the large, full, firm neck and bust. It is the very pride of life he has seized and fixed for ever upon his canvas. Then, to learn the range of his powers when he chose to exert them, you have only to leave the "Mrs. Bischoffsheim" for the "Mrs. Heugh," the old withered woman, bent and relaxed under the burden of years, her skin like parchment, marked with innumerable lines and wrinkles, her eyes sunken and watery with age: no less a marvel, no less beautiful in its truth and reverence. It is incomprehensible that the same man could have knocked off without a scruple a whole gallery of cheap tawdry Little Miss Muffetts and Cinderellas; of Salisburys and Gladstones and Tennysons, with the eyes of a Landseer dog, crammed, jammed full of sentiment, of plain, insignificant women, the Frenchman's caricature of the English lady —De Maupassant's "Mees Old Maid." There are exceptions. The "Mr. Gladstone" has some good points, and so has the "Cardinal Newman." Nor can one ever forget the little portrait of Mr. Ruskin, standing in the rocks by a waterfall painted with pre-Raphaelitic minuteness, complete and honest, if untrue. But all the exceptions taken together would not fill a small gallery. I admit that many of the people who came to Millais to be painted must have appeared to him discouraging enough; but the really great artist, with respect for his art or his reputation, will find an interest in ugliness, or else not paint it. Rembrandt made a masterpiece of a Jew in rags, Velasquez of an Infanta in crinoline. But Millais did not care, and he was sure the British public neither knew nor cared so long as it saw his signature; and, understanding the tastes of his patrons, he gave them what they wanted.

There are, of course, other pictures not to be overlooked altogether: the "Yeoman of the Guard," now belonging to the National Gallery; the "Eve of St. Agnes," theatrical, but preserving something of the early truth and loveliness of detail; the "Esther," with its marvellous rendering of silks and embroideries. Of his landscapes, famous as several are, I say nothing, for the reason that, to see them now at the Academy, is to acknowledge that Millais was not a landscape painter. There are here and there very charming passages: the hedge in the "Old Garden," the reeds in the "Sir Isumbras," the flowers in the "Ophelia," the rocks in the "Mr. Ruskin," the hillside in the "Blind Girl." But, as a rule, nature provided him merely with subjects of study. He put down what he happened to see, without any effort to select or leave out, without any sense of beautiful line, of decoration, of composition. For effect, he depended on the sword-blade cypresses and pines black against the sky that he and Mr. Leader got from Linnell, and that are supposed somehow to express pathos; or else on the scrawly, wriggly tree-forms that are the backbone of Fred Walker.

The drawings are disappointing. One knows the fine work Millais did as an illustrator, but most of his illustrations were drawn on the wood block and cut to pieces by the engraver. The "Pearl of Great Price" is here; it was redrawn on wood for the Parables, and engraved by Dalziel, and is the only unengraved drawing for this book that I can remember. There is also a "St. Agnes' Eve," another version of the design used in Moxon's Tennyson. And two or three studies and sketches complete the very imperfect display of important drawings.

Finally, I must say a word in praise of the most excellent catalogue published by the Royal Academy. It contains a chronological list of the pictures that, hereafter, all students of Millais will find indispensable.

N. N.

Correspondence.

THE LOUD BILL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a recent issue, you made the following statements in regard to the Loud bill:

"Yet that bill was defeated because powerful private interests were affected by it. These private interests kept a lobby at Washington. They had 'pulls' with Senators and Representatives. The public, who foot these unnecessary bills, do not send anybody to Washington to represent their common interests in a special but only in a general way, and so the abuse which the Loud bill seeks to eradicate goes on, and the parasites who fatten on the postal revenues are undisturbed.

Since these statements are liable to give the public a wrong impression of the merits of the bill, and of the character of those who oppose its passage, I beg of you a small amount of space for reply. If you will kindly refer to reports of the Loud bill hearings before the Senate committee at Washington last winter, you will find that private interests were represented on both sides of this question, and not on one alone. Among other powerful interests which sent able advocates to Washington to work for the bill were press organizations claiming to represent three-fourths of all the daily circulation of newspapers in America, and three-fourths of the circulation of legitimate agricultural papers. On the one side you will find those private interests which seek to secure a mo-

nopoly of low postal rates, and on the other those which, claiming equal rights, object to being discriminated against. You will find favoring the bill, on the ground that it is opposed to those who issue libraries, the —— ——, a paper which gives for 10 cents 9¾ ounces of advertisements and 3¼ ounces of reading matter; and on the other side of the question you will find the publishers of Longfellow's 'Evangeline' in the Riverside Literature Series, which contains 4⅜ ounces of reading matter and no advertisements, with the claim that good literature without advertisements should receive as low postal rates as papers which devote 72 per cent. of their space to advertising matter.

You say that the public do not send any one to Washington to represent their common interests, except in a general way; this is true, and it is to be regretted that our State Superintendents of Public Instruction, our college presidents, and other educators cannot go to Washington and state their views on this important subject. Mr. Booker T. Washington, the representative of the colored people of the United States, says:

"In my opinion the passage of the Loud bill, now before Congress, will prove a great disadvantage to education, especially in the southern part of our country, where our people are now beginning to take advantage of the cheap rate at which literature is now being furnished by the various publishing houses. The passage of the Loud bill would set back the South, in my opinion, in its educational work most effectively, and I very earnestly hope that the said bill will not pass."

A. S. Draper, President of the University of Illinois, says:

"It seems to me there is but one side of the question presented. The postal laws should, so far as practicable, discriminate in favor of standard literature and of reprints of the same, as against matter which is of only passing interest or infinitely worse."

Of ten State superintendents of public instruction who have been heard from, nine have expressed themselves as emphatically opposed to the passage of the bill. W. R. Jackson, the Nebraska State Superintendent of Schools, says:

"As I see the matter now, the enactment of the bill into law will cause a great setback to the diffusion of choice and wholesome literature among the people of this great country."

The educators referred to above represent a very large portion of the population of the United States.

Since I am one of those who have appeared at Washington before the Senate committee in opposition to the Loud bill, and, therefore come under the ban of your criticism, I beg leave to give very briefly my reasons for what I have done. The principal objects of the Loud bill are: (1.) To exclude from the privileges of low postal rates all periodicals "which are merely books or reprints of books, . . . whether they be bound or unbound"; (2) to exclude all sample copies, and (3) to require each periodical to "have a legitimate list of subscribers who voluntarily order and pay for the same." My objection to excluding books and reprints of books is, first, that it was contemplated by the framers of our present law that such material as they contain should receive the highest postal privileges if issued in a periodical form. In the *Congressional Record* of February 3, 1888, may be found a speech of Mr. Cannon, one of the framers of the present law, in which he states that the policy of such legislation is "to encourage the dissemination of sound and desirable reading-matter among the masses of the people of the country at cheap rates, both as to the cost of the books themselves, and as to postage." He goes on to state that under this legislation the best classes of literature, for instance, the Waverley novels, Dickens's works, etc., etc., have been sent out so that they could be sold to the people at 10 cents a volume. Moreover, Judge Devens, when Attorney-General of the United States, decided that the admissibility to pound rates of reprints of books was in accordance with the law.

Since the passage of the present law the taste of our people for good reading-matter has very materially improved, so that to-day there is a large demand for the writings of leading American and English authors in cheap periodical form. In this form will be found the writings of Locke, Pope, Mill, Spencer, Longfellow, Whittier, Emerson, Lowell, Holmes, and many other authors of equal note. Moreover, in periodicals containing reprints there will not be found so large a proportion of trash as is to be found in those papers the contents of which are hastily prepared between two successive issues. Lists of reprints which have been condemned by those who favor the Loud bill have been carefully gone over by one of our prominent librarians, who has found in them a larger percentage of material suitable for permanent library use than would be the case with even the best of our literary magazines. Some of these libraries have become so extensively used by the children of our public schools all over the United States that to exclude them from the privileges of pound rates would be even more detrimental than to exclude the weekly paper or monthly magazine.

Those who oppose the passage of the Loud bill do not wish for any lower rates on second-class matter than the Post-Office Department can afford to give. They are willing that the rates should be doubled or trebled, if necessary, but they are wholly unwilling that material of the sort mentioned above shall be discriminated against, while poorer material, of a more ephemeral nature, or papers consisting almost wholly of advertising sheets, continue to go through the mails at the present low rates.

Other arguments against the passage of the Loud bill have been brought forward, especially in the *Outlook*, pointing out that if the Post-Office Department were to secure the same rates from the railroads as can be obtained by private individuals, the annual deficit would be materially reduced or perhaps entirely eliminated. The argument in favor of the Loud bill appears to be as follows: There is an annual deficit in the Post-Office Department; a deficit is a very bad thing; the Loud bill proposes to do away with this deficit; therefore, we should all favor the Loud bill. The same reasoning would require the amputation of an arm because of a sore finger, but the patient would object, and ask whether there is not some simpler remedy, and that is the question which we who oppose the bill are now asking. We believe that the enforcement of the present law in regard to the exclusion of advertising sheets, coupled with better arrangements with railroads, would more than do away with the present annual deficit. Should this result not be reached, however, we are perfectly willing that the postal rates on second-class matter should be raised as much as may be necessary, our only contention being that the good literature which forms so large a part of so-called libraries, and which is every day increasing in quantity, as compared with poor material, should not be compelled to make way for other material of an inferior quality.

I regret that from lack of space I cannot take up the question of sample copies and other matters in regard to which much might be said.

H. N. Wheeler.

Boston, January 25, 1897.

[As Mr. Wheeler does not ask for lower rates on second-class matter than the Post-Office Department can afford to give, controversy with him is unnecessary. For reasons which need not be recapitulated, the Government has always discriminated in favor of the circulation of bona-fide newspapers and periodicals through the mails, to which policy we infer that Mr. Wheeler makes no objection. With this understanding, all that any reasonable person can ask is the establishment of an equilibrium between post-office receipts and expenditures by an increase of rates on that portion of the service which causes more outgo than income.—Ed. Nation.]

THE ALFRED MEMORIAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In England signs are not lacking of a certain interest in a project for celebrating the thousandth anniversary of the death in 901 A. D. of King Alfred the Great. The hold which Alfred's memory has upon all the English-speaking peoples of the world, and the widely diffused realities of their characteristic life — laws, liberties, commerce on land and sea, the faculty of combination with the least sacrifice of individual initiative, their specific temperament in religion and in art — these are in some sense one and the same thing. That common something which lives in the life of all who use the English mother-tongue to-day is impersonated for all of us most happily and with surprising adequacy in the glorious figure of the ancient Wessex King; in the goodness and greatness, cavilled at by none, of Alfred—the first and ultimate "organizer" of our victories, and the promoter at their earliest outset of our enterprises. But a light radiating far beyond the confines—large though they be—of what we may call "Anglo-Saxondom" centres in Alfred's life. His noble enthusiasm for learning and piety gathered around him many who were not Anglo-Saxons. And his commemoration is one in which Irish-Americans—without whom American participation would be incomplete—may loyally join. Nor should either we or our brother Americans of German and Scandinavian stock forget that Alfred is one of those heroes whose memory associates us as of kindred origin. It is not easy to overestimate the degree in which King Alfred was stimulated in his work of enlightenment by what he saw as a youth when staying at the court of Charles the Great, and it is a manifest token of the real harmony of purpose underlying the successful endeavors of

all the early civilizers of Teutonic stock that Knut, the great Danish successor of Alfred, reënacted solemnly the laws established more than a century before by Alfred, who thus led captive a triumphant foe.

Those who feel that the common ties uniting the scattered sons of Alfred are stronger than the accidents of time and place that have sundered them, must certainly be appealed to by the general drift of Mr. Frederic Harrison's presidential address delivered three months ago at the October meeting of the Birmingham and Midland Institute on "The Millenary of Alfred the Great," though they may very possibly feel misgivings as to the particular form of monumental commemoration—a mausoleum to contain the remains of Alfred, now buried at Winchester, and to be a place like Westminster Abbey for the monumental commemoration of great men. Mr. Harrison's words were certainly well chosen when he said: "On the 26th of October, 1901, a thousand years will have passed by since the death of our greatest King. We are a little overdone with anniversaries, and those not always of the worthiest. But this is no ordinary occasion, for it will be the thousandth anniversary of him to whom England owes an incalculable debt of gratitude." By England is not here meant solely Great Britain and her empire, colonial and other, for we must include all the debtors of Alfred in our accounting; America has hardly a smaller score against her than the mother country where Alfred was King. Nor does Mr. Harrison think otherwise, for he goes on to say:

"Alfred's name is almost the only one in the long roll of our national worthies which awakens no bitter, no jealous thought—which combines the honor of all. Alfred represents at once the ancient monarchy, the army, the navy, the law, the literature, the art, the poetry, the enterprise, the industry, the religion of our race. . . . No difference of church arises to separate any who would join to do Alfred honor. No saint in the calendar was a more loyal and cherished member of the ancient faith; and yet no Protestant can imagine a purer and more simple follower of the Gospel. Alfred was a victorious warrior whose victories have left no curses behind them; a king whom no man ever charged with a harsh act; a scholar who never became a pedant; a saint who knew no superstition; a hero as bold as Launcelot, as spotless as Galahad."

It is not, I think, an accident, but one of the most significant features in the history of our race, which places only one other of our great men on anything like these pinnacles unvisited by the blame or scorn of men, and makes of Washington, the father of our country, the only figure in Anglo-Saxon history who may fitly be enshrined alongside of Alfred, the founder and father of that body, politic and social, from which our country sprang. Who has not felt the need of a type of heroic and national character so fashioned as to mediate between the blameless and generous, but still more or less definitely aristocratic Washington, and Lincoln, who was anything rather than of the aristocratic temperament? Whatever stress we may lay upon points in common shared by our two greatest men, I take it for granted that their divergent temperaments are recognized by all. Alfred's career and character give us something very like the missing link with which to bridge over the distance separating the two, and to frame a just appreciation of their diverse excellence. Indeed, the versatile genius of the great King of Wessex was developed by circumstances and surroundings which we may call American rather than English. By this I mean that Alfred's surroundings had much to remind us of the situation of the early colonists in Virginia and New England —not to speak of the more recent founders of the great West. His vein of "Yankee inventiveness" is well known, as is also his resourcefulness in the face of "irregular" military situations. In this last we can hardly fail to recognize a trait that has characterized the typical American management of the wars by which our national existence has been achieved and assured. There are, then, important aspects of King Alfred's career which Americans as such can understand and appreciate far more completely than Englishmen. Hence, perhaps, it is that no Plutarchian parallel could well be drawn between the two types of American greatness without some reference to the pioneering genius of King Alfred, who forms what we may call a living hyphen between the statelier moods of Washington and the homelier gifts and graces of Lincoln.

These considerations certainly suggest the appropriateness of some American manifestation of interest in the London meeting announced to be held in the course of next March at the Mansion House. Why should not the feelings of Americans in this matter, supposing them to be at all definite, find some sort of expression in time to make themselves known at this meeting? Anything of the kind would certainly be welcomed, since it would serve to make the proposed commemoration more truly an affair of the whole Anglo-Saxon race. The definite suggestion has already been made of a committee to include representatives of public services, universities, municipalities, learned societies, literature, art, and science, without any distinction of church, nationality, race, or party. A suitable representation of the United States would certainly be secured by American expressions of interest, and it has been intimated that persons who desire further information, and who wish to join the movement, are invited to communicate with any of the following: The Mayor, Guildhall, Winchester; the Dean, Deanery Winchester; the Headmaster, Winchester College.—Yours very truly,

LOUIS DYER.

OXFORD, January 18, 1898.

Notes.

Roberts Bros., Boston, will have the American market for the complete illustrated limited edition of Charles Lever's Novels, edited by his daughter, Mrs. Neville. It will be in thirty-seven octavo volumes, and be limited to sixty numbered sets. More than six hundred etchings and drawings from the original plates of "Phiz" and Cruikshank will be inserted, besides the wood engravings of Luke Fildes, M. E. Edwards, and others, and some new illustrations by Gordon Browne, a son of "Phiz." The manufacture will be Messrs. Constable's, and the printing from type.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will shortly have ready the tenth and concluding volume of the late Prof. Child's 'English and Scottish Popular Ballads,' under the supervision of Prof. Kittredge. They announce also the second series of Victor Hugo's Letters, and 'Birds of Village and Field,' by Miss Florence A. Merriam.

Nearly ready are 'H. R. H. the Prince of Wales' and a new and enlarged edition of Edmond Kelly's 'Evolution and Effort,' from the press of D. Appleton & Co.

Fresh announcements by the Macmillan Co. are 'Pasteur: his Life and Work,' by Percy Frankland and Mrs. Frankland; 'France,' by John Edward Courtenay Bodley, a work emulating Bryce's 'American Commonwealth'; 'Southern Soldier Stories,' by George Cary Eggleston; 'The Gospel of Freedom,' by Prof. Robert Herrick of the University of Chicago; 'Sources of Greek History,' by Anna Boynton Thayer; and an English translation, by Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, of Dr. Kronenberg's 'Kant: sein Leben und seine Lehre.'

Charles Scribner's Sons will soon publish 'A National Church,' by the Rev. William R. Huntington, D.D., and 'What is Good Music?' by W. J. Henderson.

M. F. Mansfield issues immediately 'The Story of the Potter,' by Charles F. Binns, of the Royal Worcester Porcelain Works.

A Burton Society is organizing in Denver "to promote the study of Oriental literature by publishing English translations of Oriental classics." It seeks a membership of one thousand, excluding "any person of immature years," in view of the first and perhaps only work to be undertaken, viz., a reprint of the Benares edition of Sir Richard F. Burton's translation of the 'Arabian Nights,' in sixteen volumes, "without omission or alteration." In short, this is a new form of publication by subscription. The society, whose temporary office is at No. 19 Barth Block, Denver, is provided with a President, Secretary, and—attorney.

T. Fisher Unwin, London, is reprinting from *Cosmopolis* the letters of Turgeneff, under the title, 'Turgeneff and his French Circle,' translated by a niece of Matthew Arnold. They range from 1850 to 1877, and are addressed to Flaubert, Daudet, Zola, George Sand, Taine, Renan, and Guy de Maupassant. Mr. Unwin will bring out in the spring 'Through Tibet Unknown,' by Capt. M. S. Welby and Lieut. Malcolm, with illustrations by Mr. McCormick. He has also in hand 'The Gladstone Colony: An Unwritten Chapter of Australian History,' by James Francis Hogan, M.P., and 'My Life in Two Hemispheres,' by Sir Charles Gavan Duffy.

In his preface to the eleventh volume of 'Book-Prices Current' (London: Elliot Stock), Mr. J. H. Slater shows how the exceptional prices fetched at the Ashburnham sale disturbed the lot average for the year (December, 1896—November, 1897). For the five previous years this average ranged from one pound six to one pound thirteen; last year it touched two pounds thirteen. Mr. Slater has given a real distinction to this volume by quoting all the Ashburnham cataloguer's bibliographical and descriptive notes, and has himself added not a few nor brief. The scheme of this useful record is unchanged. The arrangement is by sales; there is a table of subjects and an index of authors. There are 6,218 entries, or nearly 400 less than last year. The publisher still invites subscriptions at a guinea to a proposed general index to the first ten volumes.

Arthur C. Downer's 'Odes of Keats' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde) must be thought rather wooden treatment of so spontaneous a poet. The biographical and bibliographical apparatus is all very well, and makes the book con-

venient for reference. The analyses are deadening, and the beginners for whom they seem intended should be warned against them. The way for such to approach Keats and his verse is through his Letters. From these (Letter to Reynolds, March 25, 1818) the editor might have borrowed the graphic sacrificial scene which foreshadows the action in the "Grecian Urn," and possesses a charm scarcely inferior. There are three portraits of Keats and two views of the Holland House urn.

A most welcome publication is that of 'A Legend of Camelot,' by the late George Du Maurier, not so much for the "legend" itself, an amusing burlesque of the Pre-Raphaelite manner in picture and verse, nor for "The Rise and Fall of the Jack Spratts" and other literary and artistic fragments which the Harpers have been gathering from the pages of *Punch*, as for the inimitable "Vers Nonsensiques," with their equally inimitable illustrations. It must be about twenty years since these rhymes and drawings were first published, and, while they have been lovingly remembered by a few, they will be entirely novel to the many. Du Maurier the society draughtsman has caused Du Maurier the caricaturist to be forgotten, and the delightful grotesqueness and good-natured fun of these sketches will come as a revelation even to many sincere admirers of their author. Of the verses it is hardly too much to say that they are the drollest, tho wittiest, and the best of all the nonsense verse that has been written. Their audience must ever be fit though few, for a pretty thorough knowledge of two languages is as necessary for their comprehension as is a sense of humor; but to those who are capable of appreciating them they are a joy for ever. There are thirty-two of them, and from the "Beau Gendarme" at the beginning to the "Portrait de l'Auteur," who sings tralala and loves his mamma, at the end, there is not one that does not contain some astonishing bi-lingual perversion, some *tour de force* of alliteration, some shrewd thrust at national characteristics, some extravagant jingle or topsy-turvy piece of fantastic foolery.

It is difficult to find a reason for the republication in book form of 'Cartoons by Homer C. Davenport' (De Witt Publishing House). Some of the portraits show a kind of power in the retaining of a likeness in spite of the wildest exaggeration, and doubtless the political cartoons more properly so called served their purpose when published; but the effect of the whole collection gathered together between covers is intensely painful. We have never seen the work of a caricaturist in which ugliness was so overpowering and fun so absent. Many of our would-be comic draughtsmen are apt to mistake mere hideousness for humor, but Mr. Davenport has gone further than any of them on that road, and, if his work is popular, it speaks ill for the public taste. True caricature is an enjoyable art, but it is hardly conceivable what kind of being could enjoy these caricatures of caricature.

Dr. Justin Herold's 'Manual of Legal Medicine' (Lippincott) has unfortunately "been written during brief intervals of leisure." Nevertheless it is a fair working volume, covering toxicological and forensic medicine sufficiently to give the general practitioner reasonable guidance as to his duty in emergencies where the law may ultimately be invoked, until the case falls into the hands of an expert. The most interesting, and potentially the most immediately important, chapter is that discussing electricity in connection with the death penalty. While there is no distinct assertion, doubt is left with the reader as to the actual cause of death following the judicial use of electricity.

'The Origin of Disease,' by Dr. Arthur V. Meigs (Lippincott), is a purely medical work of the higher grade which would better be named '*An* Origin of Disease,' for those affections afflicting man which have an acknowledged external cause are expressly excluded. After much contact with the sick, the author recognized the unsatisfactoriness of the precise classification of diseases in the text-books, and the failure of the teaching faculty to appreciate certain general causes that he believes bind together apparently dissimilar pathological states. He intimates that, even in scientific medicine, as certainly in the popular view, the group of symptoms known as a disease is regarded too nearly as an entity; and he offers here at least one generalization pointing to a kinship among the disabilities of different organs and among diseases that are nominally distinct. This generalization is that fibrosis, which is the growth and increase of fibroid material, and is the essential change incident to age and leads to its necessary consequence, death, is also concerned in earlier years in bringing about a long chain of troubles, variously named, but all tending to premature and fatal decay. The large octavo is copiously and excellently illustrated on steel directly from the author's own specimens. Dr. Meigs would be untrue to his profession did he not add chapters on diagnosis and treatment; and while his colleagues may not accept all his conclusions, they certainly will find many valuable and stimulating suggestions in this thoughtful work.

A valuable contribution to a subject of psychological interest and practical importance is August Löwenstein's 'Aberglaube und Strafrecht' (Berlin: Röde), in which he traces the influence of popular superstition in promoting crime. Germany is especially rich in material of this sort, partly the survivals of paganism and partly the results of Christian teachings concerning demonolatry and witchcraft; and it will be impossible to eradicate this evil so long as the Catholic Church prescribes formulas and performs rites for the exorcism and expulsion of devils. The introduction to the volume is by Prof. Joseph Kohler of Berlin.

'Michael v. Múnkacsy: Erinnerungen—Die Kindheit' (Berlin: Fontane) is the first volume of the distinguished artist's autobiography, in which he describes his childhood. He was by no means one of those precocious infants who begin in the nursery to reveal the talents that make the man illustrious, unless perhaps the distinct recollection of his admiration for the colors on his father's Turkish tobacco-pipe may be accepted as a presage of the painter's career. His earliest bent seems to have been in the direction of "bold emprise"; for one day, when he overturned the inkstand and left its contents on the writing-desk, he ran off into a neighboring forest to join a band of robbers. He was left an orphan at a tender age and came to his uncle, who afterwards apprenticed him to a joiner. This life, as he imagined it, "running through the streets barefoot, with sleeves rolled up and an apron on," struck the boy as most fascinating, but the illusion was soon dispelled by the reality under a rude master. After his apprenticeship was finished, a German painter named Fischer discovered his genius and gave him the first instruction. How the mechanic developed into the masterly painter will be related in a second and concluding volume. The work is written in a simple style that lends additional charm to the narration.

The fourth volume of the 'Bismarck-Jahrbuch,' edited by Dr. Horst Kohl, and just published by Goeschen in Leipzig, is an octavo of 421 pages, and consists of three parts, of which the first contains various documents and letters never before printed. The correspondence between William I. and Bismarck, between Bismarck and Roon and other persons, covers the period from 1864 to 1887, and comprises more than a hundred letters. The second part is composed of speeches, dissertations, and poems, and the third part is a chronicle of events, consisting of telegrams, letters, and newspaper articles, and extending from September 17, 1896, to December 31, 1896. There is no doubt about the value of the material here collected as a source of information for the future historian. The editor, however, laments in his preface the purely "platonic affection" of the German public for his work, and declares that unless there is a great increase in the number of subscribers and purchasers, it will be impossible to continue the publication.

A German 'Poole's Index' makes its appearance with 'Bibliographie der Deutschen Zeitschriften-Litteratur,' Vol. I., being an alphabetical topical index of 8,500 contributions to about 275 (mostly scientific) German periodicals for the year 1896, with author's name, number of pages, and price of volume (or number if to be had separately). Medicine and Technology are excluded. The publishers are F. Andrä's Nachfolger, Leipzig (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), and the price $2.50.

The most notable feature of the *American Historical Review* for January is the Notes of Major William Pierce on the Federal Convention of 1787, to which body he was a delegate from Georgia. These Notes are printed from the lately discovered manuscript, but three-quarters of them have appeared in print, though so long ago and in such a way as to make them now all but inaccessible to students. They do not add much to the familiar reports, and they are wholly occupied with discussions on the form of government. Slavery is not mentioned in them, and there is only a slant at it in a prefatory letter to St. George Tucker, when, apologizing for the absence of a bill of rights, Pierce says: "I believe it would have been difficult in the extreme to have brought the different States to agree in what probably would have been proposed as the very first principle, and that is, 'that all men are born equally free and independent.' Would a Virginian have accepted it in this form?" This shows how far the Declaration of Independence had already been left behind; or, rather, how far it was still in advance—as it is to-day. But much the most interesting and valuable portion of the Notes is the concluding fourth division—"Characters in the Convention," a personal description of each delegate. Here the most striking revelation is the comparative youthfulness of the body, and the large number of men under forty. Pierce exhibits no sectional antipathy whatever, and gives the impression of a fair-minded man.

Field Columbian Museum Publication No. 24 (Chicago) contains the annual report of the Director, who gives an account, with illustrations, of the arrangement of the natural-history collections of the institution and the manner in which they are preserved and exhibited.

A report on 'The Fossils of the Galena-Trenton and Black River Formations of Lake Winnipeg and its Vicinity' in the Museum of the Geological Survey of Canada constitutes part three of the third volume of "Palæozoic Fossils" now in course of publication. The text is by J. F. Whiteaves, and includes descriptions of several new species. The drawings for the illustrations were made from nature by L. M. Lambe.

"The Causes of the Ice Age" is the subject of a paper by Warren Upham of St. Paul, Minnesota, published in the twenty-ninth volume of the Transactions of the Victoria Institute of London. The writer asserts that it is practically demonstrated that the ice age ended not longer than 6,000 or 10,000 years ago. In the discussion of the paper by the Institute, there was read a letter from Sir Joseph Prestwich—interesting as being the last communication received from that eminent geologist—in which he endorsed the views of Mr. Upham as to the end of the ice age, but not as to its cause. The volume also contains a paper, by Mr. T. G. Pinches, on Babylonian inscriptions, and one by Sir J. W. Dawson on an extinct people of the Canaries.

The Royal Academy of Sciences of Bologna has begun the publication of a new series of 'Rendiconti.' The first volume consists of four numbers, and contains an account of the proceedings of the Academy from November, 1896, to June, 1897.

The Zurich Observatory has been enabled, by the bequest of its late director, Prof. Rudolf Wolf, to begin a new series of publications. The first volume contains an account of Prof. A. Wolfer's observations of the surface of the sun during 1887-'89. The observations for the five following years will appear in 1898.

—"The Danger from Experimental Psychology" is a title not likely to attract every reader, but the article in the February *Atlantic* which bears it will be found of more than common interest by all who care about questions connected with the theory of education. Many a well-informed man may not know that the "new" psychology is now taught in "laboratories," the apparatus in which consists of chronoscopes, and chronographs, and kymographs, and sphygmographs, and pneumographs, and myographs, and ergographs. Of these laboratories Harvard possesses one, and Mr. Münsterberg is the director of it; yet out of his psychical pulpit he lifts up a voice of warning, and declares that he feels impelled to say that he has "never measured a psychical fact," and never expects to do such a thing. The new psychologist, it seems, brings his system under the headings, not merely of memory, attention, feeling, emotion, perception, and volition, but of space, time, and energy, and on this new basis he proposes to build up a new system of pedagogics. Mr. Münsterberg has no objection to his measuring as much as he pleases, and is quite ready to measure with him, but warns him against supposing that he is measuring the states of the soul or mind. The headquarters of the pestilent fallacy which is exposed would seem to be Yale, which has produced a book, written by some one who brings in a report of experimental psychology under the titles Space, Time, and Energy, for all the world as he might have brought it in "under the titles Iron, Wood, and Hard Rubber after the different physical instruments we need for the study of psychical facts," "pretending that, therefore, the mental facts themselves are of hard rubber, wood, or iron." The conclusion of the whole matter is, that the laboratory work of the new school is of no use whatever to teachers as such. Mr. T. W. Higginson, in his reminiscences "On the Outskirts of Public Life," brings up the old question whether literary is compatible with oratorical success in the same career. He quotes Wendell Phillips as having decided the question for himself in the negative, but thinks he was wrong. That is, he thinks that Phillips might have been as good a writer as he was an orator, had he so applied himself. But Mr. Higginson's own analysis of the conditions of oratorical as compared with literary success is rather at war with this reminiscential fancy. Mr. Russell Sturgis has a readable article on Architecture. He thinks, among other things, that if architects knew more about building, they would be better architects. We have heard many householders express the same opinion.

—*Scribner's* opens with an illustrated article by Mr. Avery D. Andrews, on the "Police Control of a Great Election"—*i. e.*, the election of the present Mayor of New York. Mr. Andrews, having been Police Commissioner under Mayor Strong, is thoroughly familiar with the subject, and imparts a good deal of curious information. One fact which should not be overlooked is, that it is only in the last three years that the thousands of election officers (in 1897 there were 12,196) have had to pass any proper examination as to fitness. The introduction of this reform in 1895 so disgusted many candidates that one out of every ten declined to qualify, while a still larger proportion either failed to pass or were removed for cause. Capt. Mahan has a valuable illustrated article on the naval campaign of 1776 on Lake Champlain, to the delay caused by which he attributes the capture of Burgoyne and his army at Saratoga in 1777. The precise difference between Benedict Arnold's galleys and gondolas the author says he has been unable to ascertain, but he thinks that the former were probably keeled. Helen Watterson Moody, in her fourth paper on "The Unquiet Sex," considers the "case of Maria," who, it seems, was discharged from domestic service for insisting on playing the banjo. We must protest against the treatment of this as presenting a "problem." Maria had to be discharged, though she was a good servant, because the principle of equality, or, as it is sometimes called, justice, must be applied in the kitchen as in the drawing-room. If Maria the maid plays the banjo, it is impossible to deny Bridget the cook the right to play the violin, Mary the laundress the tambourine, and Sam the "useful man" the bones. But the noise and discomfort produced by this equality of opportunity would obviously impair the domestic peace of the rest of the household, and, therefore, as we say, Maria really has no case at all. Family magazines like *Scribner's* ought not to promote domestic disorder in this way. It is only fair to add, however, that Maria is brought in to serve as an illustration for an argument in which she is irrelevant. The drift of the argument itself is to show that servants, in order to lead full and free lives, ought to go out of the house and be masters of their own time as soon as their work is done. There is nothing that we know of in the way of such an arrangement in either laws or Constitution, provided an agreement is made to that effect; but in actual life there are many difficulties in the way which do not appear to have been fully considered by the writer.

—In *Harper's* "An Incident," by Sarah Barnwell Elliott, is sure to be read by everybody, for it is an inherently interesting and well-told story. Students of "realism" will notice that it has none of the usual machinery; the locality is vague, and there are no bright red sounds, nor low murmuring neutral colors, nor violent blackguardism to make us say how true, how exactly like life! What makes the story real is what, as Shakspere noticed, makes a play real—the behavior and speech of the characters, and the self-effacement of the story-teller. Her only intrusion is in the last four lines—lines which, to our mind, impair a climax already perfect in its simplicity. A most entertaining bit of critical writing is Du Maurier's lecture, now published for the first time, on "Social Pictorial Satire." It is the first of a series, and deals with Leech, being illustrated by some of his best caricatures. Du Maurier (who was Leech's successor) ingeniously contrives to give, not merely his view of Leech, but a sketch (through the medium of a contrast between English society and life as drawn by himself and his predecessor) of the social changes which have come over England in the last fifty years. He makes Leech the caricaturist of the world of which Thackeray was the satirist, and which has been almost suddenly superseded under our eyes by a world new in aims and theories, and fashions, and morality, and society, and belles and beaux, and even snobs. Times change, and we and the comic papers with them, but it is seldom that the slides for the show are prepared for our entertainment successively by two such masters of the craft. The Hon. David Turpie furnishes the inevitable article on the "Isthmian Canal," for which we sincerely trust that readers may be found. "Some Americans from Oversea," by Kirk Munroe (illustated), ought to encourage those who are trembling for fear lest America should be spoiled by immigration.

—The success of the "Workers" brought out by one magazine will not let editors of the others sleep; hence, perhaps, we have in the *Century* the adventures of H. Phelps Whitmarsh as a gentleman steerage-passenger. His "Steerage of To-day," illustrated by some clever pictures by A. Castaigne, belongs to the same family with the "Workers," and derives, as the lawyers say, directly from our old friend the "Casual" of a quarter of a century since. We doubt very much whether the multiplication of such studies will add to their interest, partly because few writers have the art to make us believe in the reality of the tale; and this we say without the slightest desire to impugn the veracity of any one. We have no doubt that Mr. H. Phelps Whitmarsh has really crossed in the steerage, but it is only too evident that it was a case of a good man gone wrong. We resent the idea of any one who so clearly belongs in the first cabin un-

dertaking to interpret the steerage to us, on the strength of a masquerade trial of it for six or seven days. In nine cases out of ten what will impress him, and consequently his readers, is the very disagreeable nature of the trip undertaken under such circumstances; while, to the ordinary steerage passenger, the voyage is very often a rather enjoyable holiday in a life of toil. Mr. Jacob A. Riis's "Heroes Who Fight Fire," with pictures by Jay Hambidge, is a very interesting account of wonderful feats in saving life performed by firemen in the ordinary course of duty. No one who has seen even an ordinary rescue with scaling ladders will doubt the stories told; they come from eye-witnesses. What is most remarkable about it, perhaps, is the fact that these feats should have become so much a part of the routine of a fireman's life that they attract no attention, and are taken as a matter of course—and this in a city in which two generations ago firemen were "toughs," who fought each other at fires, and were sometimes suspected of setting them. Tweed, if we remember right, was a graduate of the old fire service. Mr. Riis notices that one trait of the most daring and heroic life-savers is their modesty. They do not boast or bluster or rant about exploits which require the nerve, strength, and skill of an acrobat and the contempt for death of a martyr.

— The second volume of the second series of the great 'Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A.' contains the letter B. As was observable in its predecessor, there has been no relaxation in procuring the earliest medical works. Johannes Bavarius's 'Consilia' (1489) is at the head of these, so far as we have detected. There is a noticeable cluster of ancients under Bloodletting, though one and a half pages of periodical references show that neither the practice nor the discussion is extinct. Among the fuller sections are Bacillus and Bacteria (35 pages), and Bibliography (11 pages). Bible medicine has a page, Beer one and a half pages. Bicycles, a rubric unknown to Volume 2 of the first series (1881), now exacts a page. New, also, is Baseball (with its baseball-pitcher's arm), and no doubt Football is lying in wait for the cataloguer to assert its rights. Beri-beri would appear to be on the increase, or attracting more attention, since 1880, when a page was enough for it in Volume 1 of the first series; now four are needed for this disease. Hardly any title surprises us in the present collection, where Baby-jumpers, Baking-powders, Bread, Bees and Wasps, and Botacudos (of Brazil) jostle each other. Even "Betrayed by his Thumb," a newspaper clipping, is given its line or two. Sir Thomas Browne's 'Religio Medici' (1682) is not out of place; nor S. Smith's 'Lecture delivered over the remains of Jeremy Bentham' (1832); nor John Bartram's 'Observations' of travel in this country, beside his 'Descriptions' of certain American plants for their medicinal uses. Less to be expected is Ely Bates's 'Rural Philosophy; or Reflections on knowledge, virtue, and happiness, chiefly in reference to a life of retirement in the country' (1807). Retirement is the word for Alexander Graham Bell's pamphlet 'Upon the electrical experiments to determine the location of the bullet in the body of the late President Garfield,' in view of the searching applications of the X-rays. History and philology and criminology go hand in hand in the case of Burking, with its eight entries (1828-1831). It should be noted that in many if not the majority of cases the publisher's name, as well as the place of publication, is affixed to book-titles—a concession not common in catalogues.

—'Celebrated Trials,' by Henry Lauren Clinton (Harpers), contains much matter that was, some that still is, of thrilling interest, but smothered with an intolerable deal of padding. In many of these cases Mr. Clinton simply gives his own addresses to the jury, from which, of course, no one would think of drawing an inference as to the facts or the merits. Thus, of the case of the People against Richard Croker, for murder, the public would probably just now like to know something, but Mr. Clinton merely gives his own summing up. He assured the jury that his effort was entirely a work of supererogation; that all the evidence was conclusive on the side of the defence. But as the jury were out twenty-four hours without being able to agree, nearly half of them holding out for conviction, the reader naturally suspects that there may have been more in the case than Mr. Clinton admits. Half the book is given up to the Burdell murder case, of which a moderately condensed account would still arouse interest, but the pages of tedious and diffuse stuff that Mr. Clinton prints are largely unreadable. More tolerable is the account of some of the legal proceedings following the downfall of Tweed; but as the criterion of celebrity in this book is Mr. Clinton's participation in a case, we get rather one-sided views. He informs us that during the first twenty years of his practice he defended about a hundred murder cases and succeeded in them all; but if he would arouse the interest of the public, he should tell it how many of these defendants really deserved to be hanged.

THE BATTLE OF FRANKLIN.

The Battle of Franklin, Tennessee, November 30, 1864. A Monograph. By Jacob D. Cox, late Major-General Commanding Twenty-third Army Corps. With maps. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897.

The dramatic quality of Sherman's great progress through Georgia, opposed but not interrupted by Wheeler's ill-disciplined troopers and by occasional armed but inefficient forces, has left upon the popular imagination the impression that it was the natural reward of the serious campaign that culminated at Atlanta. Hood had been defeated, the strategic objective had been occupied, there was no great army to oppose the Union columns that might at will move upon Selma or Mobile, upon Charleston or Savannah, reasonably free from anxiety until the new goal should come in view. In fact, the March to the Sea was in the nature of a military picnic until the defences of Savannah were reached, and Hazen's assault of Fort McAllister on the lower Ogeechee was practically the only fighting required to establish a base on salt water. It was all the fruit of the strategy and the hard knocks that pushed first Johnston and then Hood out of the way. But the intelligent soldier and the historical student know that that was not the whole story. The equation was one of two unknown quantities. Sherman disposed of one, but the very troublesome other one he left behind him. Thomas and Nashville, with many anxious warring preliminary days under sombre skies, were as necessary to the solution as were the confident and well-organized columns that swung out gayly on their famous tramp.

Hood had been outgeneralled and outfought, but his army was not destroyed. Atlanta had been evacuated, not surrendered, and the aggressive Confederate had led thirty thousand men against Sherman's line of supply. When he had been driven off, he moved, with the consent of President Davis and under the supervision of Gen. Beauregard, into northern Alabama, and announced with some bravado that Sherman's departure into the interior was to the military advantage of the South. In one sense it might be. At least it divided the Union forces and left Hood free to attempt, what the Confederate President asserted would be done, to carry the war again toward Kentucky. To capture Nashville, and to approach if not pass the Ohio, was the ambitious but not impossible task he had set himself. Joined by Forrest with more than ten thousand cavalry (or, properly, mounted infantry), he had forty-two or forty-three thousand men present for duty. This was a command that some one must put out of action beyond any recuperation, and the march to the sea must be justified on the watersheds of the Tennessee and the Cumberland.

Hood's delay at Tuscumbia and Florence until late in November enabled Gen. Thomas, from his headquarters at Nashville, to concentrate at Pulaski, seventy-five miles south, a considerable force under Gen. Schofield. His general instructions were to retard the rebel advance as much as possible, without running too great risk of sacrificing his smaller army as it retired on Nashville. Strictly complying with those injunctions, which were reiterated at every point of contact, Schofield carried out a vigorous defensive in his retrogression, and by a brilliant march, which our limits forbid discussing, moved his command into Franklin on the south bank of the Harpeth, twenty miles from Nashville, in the morning of November 30, 1864.

The troops immediately under Schofield were two divisions of his own corps (Twenty-third), three divisions of the Fourth Corps under Major-Gen. Stanley, and Wilson's cavalry division. But the cavalry had lost touch since the previous morning. There had been a sharp engagement at Spring Hill, twelve miles south, and it was imperative to break the immediate contact of the enemy and to hold the crossing of the Harpeth for the passage of trains. It was hoped that the fight, if Hood forced it, would be with the river in front; but there must be a strong defence south of the river, to gain time for the passage of the impedimenta. Brigadier-Gen. Cox, commanding the leading division (Third Division, Twenty-third Corps), accompanied by Gen. Schofield, reached the outskirts of Franklin about two hours before daylight, and halted his troops on both sides of the main road. After personal observation of the defective bridges and imperfect ford, Schofield determined to give his personal attention to their repair, and gave Cox temporary command of both divisions of the Twenty-third Corps and ordered him to hold the enemy at all hazards. The Twenty-third Corps artillery was sent to the north bank, with the promise (which was redeemed) of replacing it by the Fourth Corps batteries as they came up. A fair natural line of defence was selected, and, with the skill

and energy developed by the perpetual fighting of the previous six months, a rough but effective infantry parapet, without revetment but with a ditch on both sides the greater part of its length, was promptly thrown up. Stations for the guns were prepared, and as the turnpike must be left unobstructed for the incoming trains and troops, a short second line crossed it about seventy yards to the rear. Later, this retrenchment was prolonged somewhat to the right by voluntary labor. In rear of much, but not all, of the main line was a reserve. Wood's division of the Fourth Corps passed the river, and was posted with the Twenty-third Corps artillery to protect the final crossing, or to move by either flank should the enemy make his way to that bank above or below the town. Kimball's division of the Fourth Corps had already been ordered to report to Gen. Cox for position on the line, and had been placed in echelon to the right and rear of the right division of the Twenty-third Corps (Ruger's), thus interruptedly connecting the right flank with the river just at the edge of the town. Two brigades of Wagner's division of the Fourth Corps were detained by Gen. Schofield's order about half a mile outside the line to delay Hood, but Opdycke's brigade of the same division came within the works as a reserve and as such did splendid service. It was contemplated that the remaining brigades should also form a reserve within the lines when their temporary duty was completed.

The hastily constructed defences, reasonably strong in some parts, necessarily weak in others, proved the salvation of the defenders. They were the military precautions a soldier would take, in this instance had taken admirably; but it could not be anticipated that Hood would actually assault when he found the lines were manned. As long as his forces crowded upon the immediate trail of the wagons, he would naturally seek their capture. But the superb rear-guard work of Wagner's division had brought in all the transportation and all the stragglers, and not only had the trains entered the defences, but nearly all of them had crossed the river before Hood's columns came within striking distance. With his overwhelming cavalry, and with fords available above and below the town, Hood might cross the river at will, and again, as at Pulaski, at Columbia, at Spring Hill itself, get upon the flank of the retiring army. But he assaulted. The fighting was terrific, the slaughter frightful, and the result to the Union was a victory whose full fruit was gathered a fortnight later at Nashville, when Sherman's audacity was vindicated by the moral courage and the splendid generalship of Thomas, before which the Confederate army of the Tennessee melted away.

While the responsibility for a lost battle is frequently the subject of controversy and crimination among many and for years, the pæans of victory are rarely marred by the discord of complaint. But Franklin is an exception. First, it has been charged repeatedly that Schofield's conduct of the campaign was bad, that more than once he barely escaped defeat because of too persistent lingering in the presence of a superior foe, that he neither planned the defence nor commanded on the field at Franklin, and that the battle fought itself so far as he was concerned. Secondly, it has been claimed for Gen. Wagner that his rash challenge of the whole Confederate army was devoted heroism in compliance with direct orders, and that whatever happened in connection with his division followed distinct obedience to and not disregard of the commands he had received. And, thirdly, a bitter discussion has arisen in regard to Gen. Stanley's share in the engagement, and, depending thereon, as to Gen. Cox's authority at the time and the credit due him.

To take the second point first: Gen. Wagner, whose division had been an admirable rear-guard, held with two of his brigades a position a half or a third of a mile south of the main body, under orders to keep certain heights "until dark, unless too severely pressed." By any ordinary interpretation this would mean that, if too severely pressed, he was to fall back in an orderly manner upon the main body. It is perfectly conceivable that, by making the old rear-guard an outpost, Gen. Schofield intended to give the rebel line something to play against, while he used it as eyes for his defensive front (in addition to Wilson, who was again in touch on the flanks) to observe whether Hood, encamped in line of battle, would cross the river above, or, most unlikely, would assault directly. When he saw that the enemy would certainly advance in great force, it was Wagner's duty to withdraw, for the pressure upon which his retiring was contingent could as well be moral as physical. Moreover, he had been reminded by his superiors and was warned by his subordinates to fall back. But the fury of fight replaced his judgment, and he attempted to hold his two brigades behind the slenderest extemporized shelter, against numbers so overwhelming that they disdained to halt and return his fire, but swept away the outpost by their sheer momentum and poured around both sides of the arrow-head it had formed. Wagner's brigades retired when too late, in confusion, with the enemy swarming among their ranks, and the heterogeneous crowd rushed pell-mell over the centre, whose fire was masked by the retreating Unionists. The enemy effected a lodgment within the lines, while the troops, displaced by the shock of the onset, scattered to the rear. The right and left stood firm. Opdycke was equal to the occasion; and, after an heroic conflict, the enemy was finally driven back over the parapet, to whose outer slope then he clung, where successive reinforcing waves broke in vain. It was the narrowest of rescues, a hairbreadth escape.

Wagner's obstinacy imperilled Schofield's army, whose defeat would seriously have compromised the campaign. Hood's success, even in part, would by that much have meant Sherman's discomfiture. Wagner's fault was not only a lack of judgment, but a violation of instructions equivalent to a disobedience of orders. Nor can there be any doubt that the retrograde movement into which his men were forced became a rout. Yet such is the leniency which victory inspires that grave errors may be glossed over, and Gen. Cox, in a preliminary report, dated two days later (December 2), says that Wagner's two brigades, "in accordance with orders, fell leisurely back within our lines" (p. 218 Off. Rec. xlv., pt. 1, p. 349). This friendly acceptance of Gen. Wagner's own version is contradicted by an entry in Gen. Cox's journal, under date of December 1, " . . . in Wagner's division, which was driven in from the front, in confusion . . . ," and in his more formal report six weeks later, where he says of the two brigades that "before an order [to retire] could reach them, they were so hotly engaged that they could not be withdrawn in order," and, "after a short and brave though useless struggle, [they] broke to the rear in confusion."

Of Schofield's generalship at Franklin we shall say no more than that after crossing the river in the manner and for the purpose already described, he established his own headquarters on an eminence overlooking the entire field, whence he controlled the troops on both sides of the stream. There can be no doubt that Schofield carefully confirmed and accepted every defensive arrangement that Cox as his lieutenant had made, just as he sent to him portions of the other corps, and that through his staff he was in direct communication with his entire army. It has never been doubted that Hood actually commanded the Confederates, although for a good part of the engagement the combatant lines were out of his sight. Schofield commanded with his divisions before his eyes, and, when the enemy had been repulsed, he withdrew his forces according to a carefully prearranged plan. There can be no question that, as the culmination of an important movement, Franklin was Schofield's battle, nor that his commission as a brigadier-general in the regular army was appropriate reward for the high service he rendered there and previously.

Thirdly: What were the respective functions of Generals Cox and Stanley at Franklin? Gen. Cox was a brigadier-general and division commander, to whom, very early in the morning, Gen. Schofield transferred temporarily the immediate command of his own corps (Twenty-third), and intrusted the erection of certain field-works, with which and with the forces under him to hold back Hood at all hazards until the trains were safely out of the way. There is nothing to show that at the beginning it was contemplated that he should have more infantry than the Twenty-third Corps. Gen. Stanley, who reached the field later in the morning, was a major-general in permanent command of a corps (Fourth). Both corps commanders were under the immediate command of a superior, Gen. Schofield, who was present. The two divisions of the Twenty-third Corps had been in advance and the three divisions of the Fourth Corps followed and covered the rear, while the consolidated trains of both corps were escorted between them. Ruger's division (Twenty-third Corps) arrived about seven A. M., and was placed on the right of Cox's own; but, as it could not extend the defensive line to the river, Gen. Cox called Gen. Schofield's attention to the deficiency, and the latter ordered Kimball's division (Fourth Corps) to report to Cox "for position." Kimball was placed by Cox on the extreme right to fill the gap. By three o'clock nearly all of the transportation was out of Franklin. As they arrived, the Fourth Corps batteries reported by Gen. Schofield's order to Gen. Cox, and were assigned by him to firing positions. Two brigades of Gen. Wagner's division (Fourth Corps) remained (by Gen. Schofield's order, conveyed through Gen. Stanley) without the lines for a temporary purpose, and Opdycke's brigade of the same division was in reserve within the works behind the centre. Gen. Schofield notified Gen. Cox that when Wagner's other brigades came in they also were to act as "a general reserve." Gen. Stanley

was at Gen. Schofield's headquarters within the lines in the morning, but, except at 11:30 A. M., by Gen. Schofield's direction to Wagner yet without the line, he does not appear to have issued any order, nor was there occasion. About two o'clock in the afternoon Gen. Stanley accompanied Gen. Schofield to the north bank, and, while there, gave commands for the movement and the escort of the Fourth Corps trains. When warned by the unexpected severity of the firing that Hood was making a serious attack, he rode rapidly to the front, reached Opdycke just as he was charging, and a few minutes later was severely wounded. The wrangle is over two points: Was Cox in sole immediate command along the whole defensive line; and, if not, what was Stanley's rôle?

In a volume on the same subject ('The March to the Sea, Franklin and Nashville'), published in 1882, Gen. Cox, narrating events before action was joined, several times referred to himself at a certain stage of the defence as "the commandant on the line" (pp. 85-87). To this Gen. Stanley took urgent public exception. Nevertheless it appears to be strictly appropriate as a paraphrase of the historian to avoid directly naming himself. As soon as Stanley is present, Cox refers to them both as "the commandants of the two corps." An article in the *Century* war papers by Col. Stone, asserting that all the troops in the works were ordered to report to Gen. Cox, assigned to command the defences, was the occasion of a further protest by Gen. Stanley, who made a positive claim for the active command of the Fourth Corps present, on the ground that, had such troops been detached, it would have removed him from the command of his corps. That is untenable. It is within the province of a superior to detach companies, regiments, brigades, what he will, from one organized command, and attach them to another for a special purpose and during a certain period. The real question is, were the parts of the Fourth Corps behind the defences of Franklin under Gen. Cox's orders, and did Gen. Stanley's presence change their status in that respect? Or, to put it in another way, what position, if any, did Stanley fill as a general during the battle?

Both Cox and Stanley have changed the expression of their views within the thirty-three years that have elapsed since they scorned the hostile bullets together. In two reports of this battle, made December 2 and January 10, Gen. Cox states that Gen. Stanley assumed command of the troops of the Fourth Corps at a certain time, after which he disclaims authority over them, Opdycke's brigade excepted. Again, in 1881, when Gen. Cox was preparing his earlier book on Franklin, he had an amicable correspondence with Gen. Stanley, who assented to certain premises as exactly correct. These included a statement that Opdycke was Cox's reserve, that Wagner was to come in for the same purpose, and that Opdycke and the artillery acted under Gen. Cox's orders until midnight, but that orders to the rest of Wagner's division and to Kimball went from Stanley's headquarters. But in the present volume it is Gen. Cox's contention that all the troops within the defensive line were under his command, and his alone, that his authority was recognized at the time by all the officers ordered to report to him in the presence of Hood's formidable array, and that Stanley's presence, whether for a shorter or longer period, did not affect this relation. He explains the discrepancy between this position and that taken previously by stating that, sympathizing with an officer wounded doing a gallant act, but in no official position, he understated his own authority, and attributed to the other a command which he did not exercise (p. 300). Gen. Stanley's views also underwent a change. In his report of February 25 he speaks of going towards Cox's position as though it were an independent one, after the line had been restored, and he refers to Gen. Cox as his neighbor who had gallantly helped him. In other words, he assumes as a matter of course his active and important command over the parts of the Fourth Corps present, and only casually refers to the Twenty-third Corps and its position. But in 1881 he acknowledged that Opdycke, who made the fiercest fighting, and the batteries were under Cox, which is relinquishing the underlying principle of his original report; and subsequently he reverted to his original view and denied that Cox commanded more than the Twenty-third Corps troops.

The facts are these: The Fourth Corps batteries had been substituted for those of the Twenty-third Corps, and thus became integral parts of its divisions, from which they could be relieved only by the army commander. Kimball's division (Fourth Corps) had reported by Gen. Schofield's order to Gen. Cox "for position on the line." The phraseology is the same as that used for the batteries and for Ruger's division of the Twenty-third Corps. Although Gen. Cox, in his official report, disclaimed the authority, nevertheless, while the fighting was heavy, he actually exercised it by calling for a regiment from Kimball to reinforce Ruger, which was sent without demur. Gen. Cox, not Gen. Stanley, was notified that Wagner's division would be assigned as a general reserve, and Opdycke's brigade was so placed. Opdycke in like manner responded to Cox's call of warning when the danger became imminent, but went into action before Cox's order to attack reached him and without an order from Stanley. To Wagner's disorganized brigades Cox issued no order except a request that they would not block the bridges against teams, which was complied with. But, while they were yet in advance, he warned Wagner with authority not to tarry too long without the line. He specially commended Opdycke because of his services while he, Cox, had commanded the line. His facts are therefore at variance with his original theory. He was a *de facto* commander without doubt, although he appeared at the time to recognize that Stanley had a *de jure* control over the parts of his own corps, notwithstanding that, as already shown, of his own motion he transferred a regiment from a Fourth to a Twenty-third Corps division after Stanley reached the field.

If Gen. Stanley's contention is correct, that Kimball's relation to Cox ceased when once placed upon the line, as it would have been had he reported to an engineer charged with the arrangement of troops for defence, then necessarily he remained under Gen. Stanley's orders. He must have been under some one, for no division would lie contiguous to a corps without superior direction when two corps and an army commander were accessible. But there can be no reasonable doubt that Gen. Schofield meant Gen. Cox to have the immediate command of the defences he had laid out, and that he did have such command, nor that everything within that line properly belonged to him. The selection may not have been, and probably was not, made deliberately as against Gen. Stanley, but it was made. Cox was put in immediate command because he was there, and he, not any one else, was ordered to hold the line at all hazards. When the later assignment was made, there were the confusion and pressure incident to a running fight in temporary abeyance. Chalmers's cavalry was already in sight on the right, and Schofield, harassed to make safe the crossing, ordered Kimball to Cox "for position." Had he intended him to be independent of Cox he would have ordered Stanley to assign him to a place, or would have specified it himself. Under the order, Cox might have placed Kimball anywhere and have moved into the gap brigades already placed. So Wagner was ordered to form a general reserve when he came within the line, and Cox was notified to that effect. A general reserve could only mean one assignable at the will of the commander of the defences. There can be no question that the Fourth Corps batteries were incorporated within the Twenty-third Corps so intimately that they could not be displaced by Gen. Stanley, any more than Gen. Cox could have recalled the Twenty-third Corps guns for which they had been exchanged.

It might, nevertheless, be contended that Kimball and Wagner remained administrative units under the commanding officer of the Fourth Corps, subject to the limitations of specific positions designated by the Twenty-third Corps commander. In other words, it is conceivable that a corps commander might personally "fight his divisions" when under the direction of another general, although he himself had not been required to report to him. But it is hardly conceivable that he could be required to, or that he voluntarily would, fight under a general of inferior grade, and under either condition he certainly would be powerless to divert those troops from the duties to which they had been assigned by the army commander. It is the duty of every officer not otherwise engaged, irrespective of rank, to rally troops broken on the field, and it may be the duty of any officer to encourage by speech and to stimulate by example troops in a place of peril. But that does not imply the assumption of command. It was most laudable, as well as natural, that Gen. Stanley should desire to show himself to his own men about to make a countercharge, but in the nature of the case he could not of his own motion supersede the general on the spot. The question that he has raised is, after all, academical rather than practical. No one denies that Cox commanded before Stanley came on the field; Stanley himself says he gave Opdycke no order, whatever the reason; Cox exercised active command over Kimball in the transfer of one of his regiments to another point of combat; and there is no evidence that Stanley found any occasion to give any order to any one, however he might suppose himself authorized. Many of Wagner's routed men attached themselves to other organized commands and fought admirably, but the broken organizations themselves clung to the village whence no one brought them back.

The importance of the battle and the very curious technical complications that have

entangled its history, have carried us beyond all ordinary limits, and we can transcribe no part of the voluminous official records to support our view. But it seems perfectly clear that at the time both Cox and Stanley were actuated by the most patriotic motives and were filled with military *esprit*. Cox showed foresight, intelligence, courage, and perseverance; Stanley exhibited dash and valor and a challenge to danger so that he barely escaped death. He left the active front very soon after he was wounded, although there was severe fighting much later. Cox believes that he crossed the river immediately. Stanley asserts that, after leaving the centre, he rode first to the bridge and then to Kimball before going to the north side, and that is probably the fact. Gen. Cox's position in the unfortunate controversy has been maintained with dignity, and it is cause for great regret that Gen. Stanley has so violently resented Gen. Cox's original moderate statement of the case, and has gone beyond the matter in discussion to assail, as it seems ungenerously, this officer's record in other particulars. The reports do not show it, but it is probable that there was a rivalry closely approximating jealousy between the two corps, and that a consciousness of Stanley's actually superior rank to Schofield as well as to Cox required much diplomacy in administration. The unhappy outbreak we have had to notice may illustrate a lack of poise that Gen. Thomas may have had in mind when, reporting to Gen. Halleck that he had accorded Schofield rank over Stanley because he was a department commander, explained further that he was "much the more reliable commander of the two."

This Country of Ours. By Benjamin Harrison, ex-President of the United States. Scribners. 1897.

Mr. Harrison has written an informing and entertaining book. Without attempting to provide either a school manual on American government or an elementary treatise on constitutional law, he discourses pleasantly and instructively about the various departments of national administration, treating with particular fulness, as would naturally be expected, of the executive department, as the one with which he is most familiar. Of the twenty-one chapters, seven are devoted to the President and eight to the executive departments, while Congress and the judicial system are dismissed with but two chapters each. Of course this is all out of proportion, so far as an all-round treatment of the subject goes, and gives the impression that Mr. Harrison regards the executive part of the government as four times more important than all the others combined; still, the executive side of affairs has thus far received rather scanty treatment in the books, and what Mr. Harrison has to say, if not very profound, is at least readable and entertaining. The substance of the volume appeared originally as a series of articles in the *Ladies' Home Journal;* in its present form it gives a better idea of the daily life of a President than any recent book which has come to our notice.

So far as the solid part of the matter is concerned, it may be said at once, though without reproach, that the volume contains nothing new; the facts are the same that have been presented again and again in works of similar size, and the outline, at best, is slender. But one does not, as a rule, turn to books by men in Mr. Harrison's position so much for new facts as for interesting points of view and indications of the author's personality. Books on public affairs by those who only yesterday were leading participants, are interesting partly from what they include, partly from what they omit; and this is quite true of Mr. Harrison's volume. A careful reading of 'This Country of Ours' shows no changes of importance in the political notions of the author, which four years of Presidential service and frequent public utterance have made tolerably familiar. There is the same vague comment on the currency situation and the same commendation of the civil-service law. A curious endorsement of the diplomatic service as, on the whole, a somewhat important part of the national machinery, and worthy of respectable maintenance, together with a plea for reform in the consular service, go hand in hand with a condemnation of political speech-making by our foreign ministers; the reference here to Mr. Bayard being so thinly disguised that the Ambassador himself might as well have been named. We ought to push on our coast defences as rapidly as possible as a good means of giving international arbitration a lift; while the new navy is our pet and pride, and ought to be in every way encouraged. "There are two views of the pension question," Mr. Harrison tells us (p. 285); "one from the 'Little Round Top' at Gettysburg, looking out over a field sown thickly with the dead and around upon bloody, blackened, and maimed men cheering the shot-torn banner of their country; the other from an office-desk on a busy street, or from an endowed chair in a university, looking only upon a statistical table." We are not, to be sure, quite clear as to what this means, but Mr. Harrison leaves us in no doubt as to the point of view he would have us take.

It is interesting to find the author endorsing Speaker Reed's action in counting a quorum, and favoring the adoption of some form of closure in the Senate, as it is to find him protesting, with evident sincerity, against the time-consuming applications for office, and the inability of the President to secure even a small measure of privacy. Very straightforward, too, is his approval of the use of the army in suppressing domestic disorder. The reference to the office of the Supervising Architect of the Treasury Department as a place wherein may be found "some sketches and models that are at least suggestive of art," is grimly humorous. But what does Mr. Harrison mean (p. 277) when, after explaining the steps by which a State is admitted to the Union, and pointing out that from "this habit of dealing with the public domain has come the common thought that all territory that we acquire must, when sufficiently populous, be erected into States," he adds, "But why may we not take account of the quality of the people as well as of their numbers, if future acquisitions should make it proper to do so?" Is Mr. Harrison "hedging" in regard to Hawaii, or fixing the status of Cuba in advance?

We remarked that the book, like others of its kind, derives some interest from what it fails to say. We miss a discussion of several matters on which the author could, without doubt, throw a good deal of light. If we read the introduction aright, the volume is intended not so much to impart knowledge as to kindle patriotism. Now there are a number of things about the conduct of our national affairs that many fervent patriots would like to know. They would like to know, for example, about the composition and methods of the lobby at Washington. They would like to know how appropriation bills, and especially tariff bills, are made up. They would like to know why the House of Representatives allows itself to be stripped of its legislative functions and made to register the decrees of one of its members. They would like to know some of the causes of the degeneracy of the Senate. Very many would like to have explained to them, in a popular and intelligible fashion, the subjects of national expenditure; surely an ex-President could unfold, with telling effect, the real significance of the appropriations for rivers and harbors, for naval vessels, or for pensions. It will be matter of regret to many that Mr. Harrison has refrained from a discussion of any of these things.

As was said at the beginning, Mr. Harrison's book is chiefly important for the information it furnishes about the life and duties of the President and the department of the government with whose oversight he is particularly charged. The reader will find here a hundred details of official life—the dull and exhausting routine of daily work, the conduct of cabinet meetings, the preparation of official papers, departmental red-tape, and the like—set forth amiably and instructively. To any one, young or old, who cherishes the notion that the time of the Chief Magistrate of this republic is mainly occupied with the study of great public questions and the formulation of great national policies, we recommend a perusal of 'This Country of Ours.'

Haliburton: A Centenary Chaplet. Toronto: William Briggs. 1897.

This book resembles the World's Fair in that it lags a year behind the date which it celebrates. It is no great matter, however, that circumstances should have delayed the publication beyond December of 1896, when its appearance was due. Windsor, Nova Scotia, the place of Haliburton's birth, is also the seat of King's College, the oldest institution of its kind in the Colonies, and in 1884 the affectionate remembrance of Sam Slick's words and characters led to the founding there of a Haliburton Club. This society now publishes, under the title we have mentioned, three sketches, biographical and critical, of its patron saint. The authors are well qualified for their work, one, Mr. R. G. Haliburton, being a member of the family; another, Mr. H. P. Scott, the first President of the Haliburton Club, and the third, Mr. F. Blake Crofton, Provincial Librarian of Nova Scotia. They have evidently prepared their essays in complete independence of each other—so much so that we can point to a case where division between them relates not to opinion alone, but to a matter of fact. Mr. Haliburton, referring to Sam Slick's jokes (p. 30), says: "In all he has written there is not the slightest trace of impropriety, even by the most remote implication." Later on (p. 62), Mr. Crofton, who calls Judge Haliburton "an Epicurean philosopher, modified a little for the better by Christianity, and for the worse by practical politics," states that "his keen relish for the ludicrous has sometimes made him stoop to unmistakable *double entendres*. In palliation of some of

these, at least, it may be urged that their wit preponderates over their grossness." Are we to praise this candor, or hint that there has been some looseness of editing?

One point which these three tributes have in common is insistence upon Haliburton's imperial views and propaganda. One seldom sees a motto on the cover of a book. In this instance the following sentiment is put forward with all the emphasis that a prominent place can give: "It shouldn't be England and her Colonies, but they should be integral parts of one great whole, . . . one vast home market from Hong-Kong to Labrador." Mr. R. G. Haliburton lashes the "Disintegrationists" who gave the tone to colonial policy when the Judge was member for Launceston in the British House of Commons. He flings first at Gladstone, "who has retired from public life, leaving behind him the fragments, not of a great Empire, but of a shattered party." We expect this kind of language from men of Mr. Haliburton's school, but he proves his freedom from party bias by quoting a snub Disraeli gave to Imperialism in 1852: "These wretched Colonies will all be independent in a few years, and are a millstone around our neck." Had Sam Slick's convictions on the subject of a close bond between the islands holding British allegiance been less strong, we might accuse his centenary admirers of connecting his name with a movement which happens to be popular. As it is, they may claim for him what credit may accrue from a forecast of the policy pursued by the Colonial Office under Chamberlain's guidance. Our own opinion is that the rôle of political prophet hardly comports with Haliburton so well as that of literary artist. His long experience on circuit and on the bench showed him human nature, and especially that part to which "soft sawder" appeals. His discourses and descriptions are often tedious. It is in dialogue where common sense, humor, and observation can be made to blend, that he excels. Sam Slick is an undoubted creation, and Artemus Ward called its author the father of American humor. The cleverest Canadians come from the Maritime Provinces, and that part of the Dominion can number among its representatives few so able and none so witty as Haliburton.

Some Unrecognized Laws of Nature: An Inquiry into the Causes of Physical Phenomena, with Special Reference to Gravitation. By Ignatius Singer and Lewis H. Berens. D. Appleton & Co. 1897. 8vo, pp. 511.

The purpose of this work is to revolutionize physics by showing that the cause of forces is a tendency to equalization, an action of which viscosity is a familiar example. Viscosity equalizes the velocity of the different layers of a stream. Now this, as is well known, is not a *conservative* force—that is, neglecting effects of heat, it appears to violate the law of energy; so that to make an action like viscosity the fundamental cause of all forces is to set up a theory in opposition to the doctrine of the conservation of energy. The principle of equalization is represented as one of four—persistence, unequal resistance, reciprocity, and equalization—from which the whole play of nature may be deduced. This formula was first remarked by the authors as governing the growth and development of animals and plants, and is now extended to pure physics.

All this might have been maintained, one would suppose, without calling in question the majority of the great discoveries, or propositions accepted as discoveries, which during the last three centuries have been so laboriously, and, as it would seem, so successfully, elaborated by physicists. But, as the discussion is conducted in this volume, substantially the entire body of established dynamics and physics is proposed to be swept away as worthless. Comprehending these circumstances, no person of good sense will undertake to read this book, unless as a study in psychology, without being thoroughly versed, at least, in every branch of mathematical physics; and those persons who really are competent to discuss questions of this kind will soon discover that neither Mr. Singer nor Mr. Berens is among their number.

What, for instance, is to be thought of authors who calmly remark that "not sufficient notice has been taken by physicists" of the law of action and reaction? That law, as everybody knows, is insured of thoroughgoing application by the aid of the conception of Mass. But these authors are capable of saying, "Whether a pendulum set swinging *in vacuo* and having no friction would actually keep on swinging for ever, . . . the matter of doubt in our mind is whether the downward pull of gravitation would not have to be regarded as another retarding element, besides friction and the resistance of the air." This betrays utter want of grasp of the principle of the pendulum, connected with a failure to distinguish between mass and weight. And, accordingly, we are informed that *mass*, in its last analysis, is nothing but *gravity*. Now this is not so. There might be no such force as gravitation, proportional to mass, and yet the action of bodies under magnetical and electrical forces, and under impact, would still proclaim the reality of mass so long as the law of action and reaction continued to operate.

We meet with equally gross misunderstandings when we pass to thermotics. For instance, we are told (pp. 24, 93) that the doctrine of the absolute zero rests upon nothing except "on the theory that at that temperature a body would be practically annihilated"; that is, the authors suppose the air or hydrogen thermometer is its only basis. One would find it hard to invent a remark which should more manifestly betray total ignorance of the theory of heat. Yet the following beats it: "The late Professor Tyndall held that heat was 'a mode of motion.' It is not quite clear whether the phrase is to be understood," etc. A man who does not know what the kinetical theory of heat is, and supposes Tyndall the author of it because of his popular book, and who nevertheless presumes to speak of the greatest physical speculator of our time except Helmholtz thus: "Thomson's error consisted in confounding the common or industrial meaning of the term 'work' with its philosophical meaning," cannot expect to make a favorable impression upon the scientific world. The book is simply chock-full of blunders quite as bad as the above few specimens.

The work is not entirely one of ratiocination. Various experimental results are announced which are supposed to support the theory. These are, for the most part, old mare's-nests which have already been sufficiently investigated. Some of them might be worth reëxamination with all our modern appliances of precision, but none of the experiments herein described appears to have been conducted with any extraordinary refinements. A few of them are rather curious, though probably not important.

The first words of the preface are these: "At last, after years of patient plodding in dim regions where the footprints are few and the pitfalls many, the time has arrived when we are enabled to place before the world of science the first-fruits of our explorations." No doubt a great part of two men's lives has gone into this enterprise, and it is tragic to see that the result is good only to fill a page in some supplement to the 'Budget of Paradoxes.'

The New Africa: A Journey up the Chobe and down the Okovanga Rivers. A Record of Exploration and Sport by Aurel Schulz, M.D., and August Hammar, C.E. With a map and seventy illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897. Pp. xii, 406, 8vo.

The delay in the publication of this interesting account of a journey made in 1884 is the less to be regretted since a large part of the country traversed is still comparatively unknown. The object of Dr. Schulz and his companion was to explore the Chobe, a branch of the Zambesi, to its source, and from thence to eross to the west coast. They were able to trace this river for only some two hundred miles from its outlet near the Victoria Falls, the hostility of the natives preventing their further progress. Turning southward, they crossed a succession of sandbelts, and, after much suffering from hunger and thirst, succeeded in reaching the Okovanga. This stream, which is also called the Cubango, they were compelled to follow to Lake Ngami, in order to clear themselves before the King of the Baros and his council from the suspicion of having Matabele spies among their followers. After a most interesting trial, marked by dramatic incidents and indicating an unusual intelligence and sense of justice in the King and his chiefs, their innocence was established, and, after a long delay, they were permitted to return to Natal.

A considerable part of the volume is taken up with an account of the hunting adventures, which were numerous and exciting. It would be difficult to find in all the annals of African travel a more thrilling story than that which Jan Veyers told of his encounter with a lioness. Their "bag" included nearly all the large game of Central Africa, with the exception of the elephant, though the slaying was almost always for the sake of meat and not simply for sport. There are many interesting observations on the appearance and habits of the fauna of this region, as well as useful hints to travellers and sportsmen. The theory, for instance, that the aasvogel, or vulture, finds its prey by sight and not by scent, is supported by some convincing facts from the authors' own experience. On the Chobe the party shot the "mysterious situtunga," a water-buck whose feet "are abnormally long and slightly webbed at the base of the toes." This adapts it for swimming and for walking on the dense masses of tangled reeds that float over the deep water, but gives it a clumsy, waddling gait on land. Like the hippopotamus, it stays long under water, and

it also appears to live in perfect amity with the crocodiles which swarm in that part of the river in which it is found.

Of the people who inhabit these regions Dr. Schulz says little that is especially noteworthy. The raids of the Matabele had made the natives suspicious of strangers, and it was difficult to enter into friendly relations with them. The tribes living along the Chobe had been driven to the inaccessible swamps and islands, but the Baros of the lake region had just succeeded in repelling an invasion. Very striking was the contrast presented between the timidity, craftiness, and degradation of the former, and the self-reliance, intelligence, and comparative prosperity of the latter. We regret that our author has not given some information as to the recent history of the young King Moreni and his brave followers. His country is described as containing marvellously fertile districts, adapted for the cultivation of corn and of cotton, which grows wild, as easily irrigated, and as having a dry and healthy climate.

Dr. Schulz appears to have been a typical explorer. He had great powers of endurance, with perfect health, and he showed much tact and forbearance in dealing with the natives. Though often placed in circumstances extremely provocative of violence, there is no instance of his having injured any native, while his services as a doctor were in constant demand. The attachment which some of his followers felt for him is pleasantly shown in the account of their parting:

"Chiki held my hand long in his, and a tear rolled down his cheek as he said: 'Kolwani, I am only a black man, but my heart has grown white towards you. When you come to Panda Matenga again, shout out my name, "Chiki," and the trees and the birds will tell me you are there, and I, Chiki, will come to you, without stopping to eat on the road until I have seen your face.' 'And I also, and I also,' came from all the boys in chorus. Then some seized hold of both of Hammar's hands, and others of mine, and they danced around us, singing the farewell-song of their nation; then, as it came to an end, they seized their packs and hurried off at a run, never turning round, as if not trusting themselves to take a last look at us."

The volume is very attractive in its appearance, with excellent illustrations and a map drawn from observations by Mr. Hammar, but it unfortunately lacks an index.

Gleanings in Buddha-Fields. By Lafcadio Hearn. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

Mr. Hearn, who has left the interior of the Princess Country for the capital, is now lecturer on English literature in the Imperial University in Tokyo. He has gathered in a fresh volume his "studies of hand and soul" in the Far East. "A Living God" is the title of a chapter which tells of what is daily seen in front of a Shinto shrine. Two other papers worthily preserve a number of specimens of those brief stanzas of song which have for over a thousand years been popular favorites. The street songs are as short and evanescent as flowers, but are also as entrancing. The more permanent folk-songs are rich in allusions to the Buddhist traditions and dogmas which underlie the popular faith. Mr. Hearn shows his keen sensitiveness and amazing power of discrimination and appreciation in catching and analyzing these fugitive, yet ever-reappearing, "swallow-flights of song." Kyoto and Osaka are brilliantly described in the author's characteristic style and with his own peculiar power of insight.

Probably the chapter that will excite the most interest and challenge opposition and provoke unbelief is that "About Faces in Japanese Art." To the average Westerner, "Japanese art is utterly wanting in facial expression." Even art critics who have lived awhile in "what to them is the country of topsy-turvydom" believe that the native artists' treatment of faces is fantastic and unnatural. Mr. Hearn, on the contrary, stoutly upholds and commends the Japanese limner. He beholds in the actual life around him "every normal type of face to be found in a Japanese picture-book." We agree with Mr. Hearn. To appreciate thoroughly, or even to qualify one's self to understand, Japanese art, one must have lived entirely away from European people and things. He must have looked long and impartially upon art and life in Japan in order to interpret these; and this, we may say, Mr. Hearn has done. So long as a drawing or other reproduction of the Japanese hand and soul is something other than a photograph, so long as the brain and culture of a Japanese are what they are, the artists of Nippon had better make haste slowly in imitating their foreign teachers.

Several other chapters treat of Buddhism, but here we confess that Mr. Hearn is less edifying and illuminating. Having read most if not all of this brilliant author's writings, we are impressed more with his dislike to missionaries and his devout adherence to Mr. Herbert Spencer's philosophy than with his grasp upon science, or philosophy, or original Buddhism. Here he displays or unskilfully conceals his animus. Surely no "hired converter" in all the empire is so persistently zealous in propagating his cult and dogmas as is the lecturer on English literature in preaching at all possible seasons the doctrine of the "Unknowable Reality." Apart from this tendency to polemic which vitiates his conclusions, and constantly compels question of the sanity of his judgments, one may enjoy Mr. Hearn's consummate literary art and exquisite gloss of style, while heartily grateful for the work of so subtle an interpreter of the most promising people in Asia.

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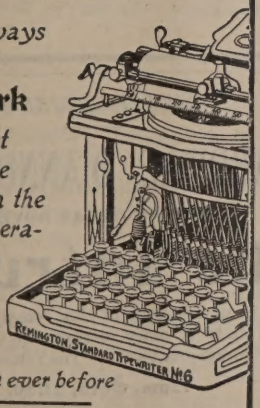

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 10, 1898.

The Week.

Mr. Dingley, leader of the House, is a quite different gentleman from Mr. Dingley, author of the law to prevent a deficit (his own deficit to date being more than $52,000,000), and issuer of bulletins to show that we shall soon be just wallowing in surplus revenue. All the dispatches agree that the programme of severe economy in the House is exciting vast indignation among the rank and file who so dearly love to go in for the old flag and an appropriation. The big spending bills are to be cut to the quick. No river and harbor bill is so much as to be thought of, and public buildings are to be kept down in most miserly fashion. Why is this? The answer given the angry private members, with their beautiful private bills up their sleeves, is that Chairman Dingley says the state of the revenue is such that not a dollar can be spared which is not strictly necessary. Thus does Dingley the chairman act as if he did not believe a word that Dingley the statistician and prophet says. Certainly the raging Congressmen, robbed of their appropriations, cannot be blamed for asking what kind of surplus revenue it is that cannot be drawn upon. They are a little slow, but in time they will understand that the surplus revenue which Mr. Dingley sees pouring in upon him is for oratorical and electoral purposes only; when it comes to actually counting the money and voting it away, the creator of the deficit is as painfully conscious of the work of his own hands as any other man.

The attempt to make annexation a Republican party measure has failed, because the last national platform expressly avoided the recommendation of that policy, declaring only that "the Hawaiian Islands should be *controlled* by the United States, and no foreign Power should be permitted to interfere with them." Such "control" is entirely practicable and is consistent with our policy for many years. The Senate four years ago adopted a resolution which well represented the feeling of the nation on this question:

> "Resolved, That of right it belongs wholly to the people of the Hawaiian Islands to establish and maintain their own form of government and domestic polity; that the United States ought in no wise to interfere therewith, and that any intervention in the present affairs of these islands by any other government will be regarded as an act unfriendly to the United States."

This resolution was reported on the 31st of May, 1894, from the committee on foreign relations by a unanimous vote, and was immediately adopted by 55 yeas to no nays. Senator White of California has now brought this proposition forward as a joint resolution, and although the annexationists in the Senate may lay it on the table, its introduction is a good thing as showing the right policy for our Government to pursue in the matter.

Naturally the Chinese situation connects itself with the Hawaiian situation. In a remote contingency we might find it necessary to fight for the rights secured to us by treaty in Chinese ports. In that event, would the possession of Hawaii be of service to us or not? We answer this question in the negative. Without Hawaii, all our naval force in the Pacific may be employed in attacks upon the enemy or in defending our own coast. With it, we must expend some part, and probably a large part, in defending the islands. But, say the annexationists, we shall be much nearer to the objective point—the coast of China. Not much nearer. The islands are as far out of our course for operations in Chinese waters as the Azores would be for operations in the Baltic. Moreover, we have treaty rights in the islands now giving us all the naval advantages we could acquire by owning the islands. We are in the lucky position now that we are not bound to defend Pearl Harbor, but we can use it to any extent we choose.

Nobody is surprised to find many of the Republican politicians in Congress shrinking from the proposition to make an issue of a definite currency-reform policy. Senator Frye of Maine says that "it was all right for Secretary Gage to submit his scheme of finance, but it was hardly politic to be so specific about the single gold standard." Senator Aldrich of Rhode Island says of the President's recent declarations in favor of positive action, that "they are good principles, but bad politics." The proceedings in the House when the Teller resolution was voted down have been called "the slaughter of the innocents," because so many of the Western members fear that their votes will be counted against them at the next election, from thirty to fifty sharing this apprehension, and the personal influence of Speaker Reed had to be used in order to keep several men "in line." All such Representatives and Senators are, of course, strongly opposed to going a step further, on the ground that it would be "bad politics," or, at the very least, "hardly politic."

The action of the Chamber of Commerce on Thursday on the report of its delegates to the Indianapolis convention was most gratifying. Without a dissenting voice it ratified the report of the Monetary Commission, both in general and in particular—the gold standard, the gradual retirement of the gold obligations of the Government, and such changes in the banking laws as shall conduce to the good of all business interests, and which the experience of our own and other countries has proved to be efficient and secure. Condensed in the fewest words, the Chamber of Commerce has declared its platform to be the gold standard and banknote issues on banking assets. These were the conclusions reached by the Monetary Commission, and now they have received the endorsement of the most conservative body of business men in the country. An issue is thus made up which must engage the largest share of public attention until the momentous questions involved in it are decided. In ordinary circumstances this ought not to be a political issue, but it has been made such by the action of one of the great political parties of the nation, and the other party cannot avoid it. All the property interests of the country are involved in it. Every man and every woman is vitally concerned in the decision of it. They may have mistaken views in reference to it, but nobody who is sane can be indifferent to it.

President McKinley has just given a fresh illustration of his disregard for all other considerations when a Senator insists upon the nomination of one of his henchmen to an office, by sending in the name of George M. Bowers of West Virginia as Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries. He had already shown, notably in the case of the swindling State Senator of Pennsylvania, whom he made Consul at Matanzas, Cuba, upon the demand of Senator Quay, that objections on moral grounds counted for nothing. He has now demonstrated that statutory obstacles to a nomination are no more effectual than those based on the moral law. A provision of the Revised Statutes calls for the appointment as Fish Commissioner of " a person of scientific and practical acquaintance with fish and fisheries," the object being to insure the selection of fit successors to Prof. Baird and Prof. Goode. Instead of picking out such a man, Mr. McKinley has nominated (upon the demand of Steve Elkins) a politician who never paid any attention to fish or fisheries, until he decided, a few months ago, that he wanted the $5,000 salary attached to this commissionership, and for whom the most that can be said by his friends is that he "is a smart man and catches on soon."

The nomination of Edward B. Thomas

as United States Judge for the Eastern District of New York is a happy end of a struggle which had become very discreditable. The death of Judge Tenney was no sooner announced than a number of lawyers who were prominent in the Republican "organization," but nowhere else, began to work for the place thus made vacant. Congressman Fischer "set the pace," the first step in his campaign being to seek the endorsement of the members of the Republican executive committee of Brooklyn, in which he was extremely successful. But his opponents ruined his chances by pointing out that his appointment to the bench would involve a special election for Congressman, and that his management of "the organization" in the district had been so bad that "no Republican nominated by Fischer could win, and Fischer would not allow a nomination by anybody else." One candidate after another of the Fischer type was put forward by either the local or the State organization, only to have his unfitness demonstrated when any inquiry was made as to his judicial qualities. President McKinley at last became thoroughly disgusted, and assumed the executive prerogative, which he has so generally surrendered, of making the choice himself and requiring the machine to accept it. Mr. Thomas is a lawyer of high character and excellent standing, who has the making of a good judge in him, and his appointment is especially grateful because it involves no subserviency to the machine.

The most encouraging demonstration against boss rule which has been seen anywhere in this country for a long time was made in Philadelphia on Wednesday of last week, when about 400 leading Republicans from almost every county in Pennsylvania organized a movement to end the sway of Matthew S. Quay over their party. Never before has the tyranny which bossism involves been so clearly pointed out; and as a study in modern politics, the picture drawn of government in a great State during the closing years of the nineteenth century under the domination of one man deserves the attention of everybody who is interested in the development of democratic institutions. The spirit which animated the conference was that of men who had been slaves, and who had at last revolted against a servitude which had become intolerable. The character of this domination was set forth with the utmost clearness in the resolutions which were adopted. The first of these portrays the disgraceful methods by which Quay has made himself absolute ruler of the Republican party. Proceeding from generals to particulars, the resolutions declare that "a large majority of the members of the General Assembly of 1897 were nominated and elected by questionable methods, the chief end in view being the election of United States Senator in accord with the dominating influence in State politics; but the corrupt bargain carried with it the absolute control of legislation for all purposes." Attention is called to the extraordinary fact that "it was not an unusual thing, during the session of last year, for the citizens of this commonwealth to witness the humiliating spectacle of their representatives wasting days and weeks neglecting public business, because of the delays of their chief in giving them instructions as to what he wished them to do."

Responsibility for what the last Legislature did and failed to do being thus fixed upon the boss, the resolutions summarize its record. In the organization of both branches no member was allowed a place upon any important committee who differed from the machine regarding the United States Senatorship. So many places were promised for the support of the machine candidate that the pay-roll was padded with so-called officials without authority of law, and appropriations for payment of such officials failed of becoming law only by the interposition of the executive veto. Attempts were made to take from the public Treasury thousands of dollars for pretended expenses and for junketing trips of the members, which also failed only by reason of the Governor's veto. In order to create new offices and extend the power of patronage, the "mercantile-tax bill" was passed, imposing burdens upon and crippling almost every business interest in the commonwealth, already overtaxed, and this bill would have become a law but for the executive veto. In order to punish the Mayor of Philadelphia, whom the machine could not control, a bill was passed which, had it been suffered to become a law, would have destroyed many of the most important features of the city charter, and which was universally disapproved by the people to be affected. Finally, "numerous bills were introduced for the mere purpose of extorting large sums of money from the corporate and other interests of the State as the price of preventing their passage."

The opinion of the Corporation Counsel that the new charter, rather than the Black starchless law, fixes the civil-service regulations for this city, has sent deep gloom through the Tammany ranks. The view is general there that the Mayor has made a mistake in his choice of a Corporation Counsel, since this is clearly not a Tammany "opinion," and what is the use of a Tammany Corporation Counsel if he cannot furnish Tammany law when it is wanted? The holders of this view do not reason so far as to perceive that if an opinion had been supplied which would not have been sustained by the courts, whither the Civil-Service-Reform Association had declared its intention of carrying the matter in case it had been contrary to what it is, the outcome would have been disastrous to the Corporation Counsel. There seems to be no way in which the "places" in the city service which are now held by the hated reformers can be captured except through the passage of the Grady bill making the Black law applicable to the city, and there is little hope of this. Possibly the new Municipal Civil-Service Commission may formulate new regulations which will help matters somewhat, but even they cannot remove incumbents from office without danger of getting into trouble. A curious fact about this commission is that it has succeeded in getting from the Board of Estimate and Apportionment an appropriation more than double the size of that which the late reform commission required. The latter body did its work for about $30,000 a year, whereas Mayor Van Wyck's commission has asked for and obtained $86,000. Its work has been increased somewhat, it is true, but the additional expenditures entailed by that increase could be covered easily with from $5,000 to $10,000.

The suit for libel which ex-Mayor Oakey Hall brought in the English courts against James Bryce because of the latter's allusions to him in a chapter of the 'American Commonwealth' on the Tammany Ring, has been dismissed because of the failure of Mr. Hall to prosecute it. The dismissal was accompanied with an order upon Mr. Hall to pay the costs, but as he has left England, there is no means by which Mr. Bryce can recover the heavy expenses to which the suit subjected him in preparing his defence. As we pointed out recently, the English law of libel, while permitting the levying of heavy costs upon the unsuccessful party to a suit, makes no provision for the collection of costs from bankrupts, and other impecunious persons, who institute frivolous suits which they either do not press to a verdict or lose when they do so press them. An amendment is pending before Parliament in which it is provided that the court may, when it is satisfied that the plaintiff is a bankrupt, or will be unable to pay costs in case of losing his suit, issue an order staying all proceedings unless within a specified time the plaintiff can give satisfactory security for such costs. In this country the costs are not heavy, unless the court grants to the successful party what is known as an "extra allowance"; but a provision like that proposed in the English amendment would be very valuable here, for it often happens, after an impecunious plaintiff has forced the defendant to carry through one or more courts a case which never ought to have

been in any court at all, that extra allowance is granted only to be found worthless because of inability to collect it. If every bankrupt and political or other dead-beat who is now induced by a speculative lawyer to sue a newspaper for libel "on shares" in the possible result, were compelled to give security for costs in advance, a great deal of frivolous litigation would be prevented.

The time of the English courts continues to be occupied largely with what the Lord Chief Justice calls "trumpery libel suits." Two decidedly amusing suits were dismissed without much ceremony recently, one by the Lord Chief Justice and the other by Justice Hawkins. In one instance, in an account of a proceeding in court, the word "defendant" had been printed in place of "plaintiff," with the result of making a lawyer in his address charge his own client with being an "extortioner." The client had sued the paper for damages as the result of this blunder, but when the Lord Chief Justice heard the facts in the case, he at once said he doubted if there was any cause for action, since any one reading the account would see that it was a mistake of the reporter or printer. Furthermore, a correction had been made by the newspaper, but of this it was complained that it was "not prominent," and was not accompanied by an apology. The Lord Chief Justice held that no reader of intelligence could fail to see that a mistake had been made, and when counsel for the aggrieved person urged that there "might be careless or foolish people who would receive a different impression," he declared: "But legislation and law are not intended for foolish people"—a view which precipitated the collapse of the case. In the other instance a lawyer brought suit against two newspapers for conspiracy and libel in habitually leaving his name out of their reports of court cases in which he appeared as counsel. Justice Hawkins made short work of this, saying to counsel for the plaintiff, who wished to cite decisions in favor of his novel plea: "If you want anything to put a final extinguisher upon you, that will do it," and adding, when counsel said in defence of the claim for damages that all persons engaged in any way in public had occasionally to complain that what they said was not reported, "What a godsend it is to the public that they are not always reported!"

The speech of Sir Richard Webster, Attorney-General in Lord Salisbury's cabinet, on the Chinese trouble, in which he said that it would be better for Great Britain to fight and lose now than to perish of slow starvation by the loss of trade, is in harmony with the recent declaration of Sir Michael Hicks-Beach on the same subject. It shows that whether there has been a backdown or not in reference to the port of Talienwan, the main purpose of Great Britain has not been abandoned. The world is still in ignorance of the terms of the secret treaty by which the port of Talienwan was ceded to Russia at the end of the war between Japan and China, when Russia intervened in behalf of the latter, and prevented Japan from getting a foothold on the continent. Why Russia wanted that port or some other on the Liau-Tong peninsula it is easy to see. She is building the great Siberian railway, and must have a port that is not ice-bound several months in each year. She has no such port of her own. She must seek it in Chinese territory. The war between Japan and China and the discomfiture of the latter gave her the chance to secure this desideratum. Her claims on the port may be such that it is not worth while to have a war over them. There is plenty of territory left to negotiate for, or even to fight for, after conceding Talienwan to Russia to do what she pleases with. It is desirable, in the interest of civilization and progress, that the great Siberian railway should be finished, and that it should have an outlet in open waters, even though its terminus be not strictly a free port. It is not desirable or even tolerable that the whole northern Chinese frontier should be shut up by land-grabbers, whether Russian or German or other, or that treaties now existing should be set aside to the detriment of third parties merely because two or three German missionaries have been murdered or because a German sailor has lost his life in a street riot.

Secrecy, mystery, alarm, vague insinuations, desperate attempts to stifle inquiry and suppress facts have marked the official conduct of the Dreyfus affair from its inception to the present trial of Zola. One guarded statement after another has been given out, only to be disproved. Dreyfus had confessed his guilt, it was boldly said in order to stop the clamor. But instantly evidence was made public that he had never confessed, but was stoutly protesting his innocence. Well, there was the famous *bordereau*, in his own handwriting, offering to sell the secrets of national defence. But once the *bordereau* was published in facsimile, as many experts decided against the Dreyfus origin as in favor of it. Mr. David Christie Murray, who, with the zeal of a fellow-novelist, or a fellow-advertiser, has taken up the cudgels for Zola in England, sets forth no less than twenty particulars in which the incriminating document differs from the confessed handwriting of Dreyfus. This looks bad for the evidence on the strength of which, and on the sole strength of which, according to Gen. Mercier, Dreyfus was condemned. "Oh, but there was other evidence," now say the French generals and ministers. "Very well," replies Zola, "come into court and tell us what it was. Come and testify in secret, if necessary." The answer to this is an order of the Council of Ministers forbidding any testimony to be given! It is not strange that Zola and his counsel cry out upon such a travesty of justice.

Among the recent consular reports is one from our consul at Mainz, Germany, on the subject of the exports of German wines to the United States and, strange to relate, the import of American wines to Germany. In the year 1895 the latter amounted to 24,494 cwt. Exportation of German wines to the United States for the same year was 118,604 cwt., but the German wine-growers are becoming nervous and are beginning to demand protection. Accordingly, says our consul: "In order to commend themselves to the wine-growers of the western and southern parts of Germany, those members of the Reichstag who are the champions of the agrarian cause are beginning to agitate a campaign against the importation into Germany of American wines by advocating a higher import duty on them." It is interesting to know that a part of our wines come back to us after undergoing manipulation and mixing in the cellars of the Rhine country. Thus to German industry they stand in the relation of a raw material. A California wine which has been subjected to a protective tariff at Cologne and again at New York ought to be considered a very patriotic drink.

Late advices from both Costa Rica and Nicaragua indicate that there is a revolution in progress in each, and that the canal-surveying party from the United States will not be able to go on with its work until the country is pacified. One report says that the gunboat Newport may be obliged to land a body of marines to protect the surveyors. It may become necessary for us to invade the country or both countries and restore order before we can get a thoroughly reliable survey. This shows how much better it would have been to follow the lead of Morgan of Alabama and pass the canal bill of last year without any survey and in the face of the protest of the Government of Nicaragua, because in that event we should have had a *casus belli* at once. We could have prevented the present revolution, with its tedious and exasperating delays, by simply landing a sufficient number of marines at both ends of the line to maintain order and enable our surveyors to finish their work in peace. If there should be a simultaneous demand for ships and crews in Cuba or Hawaii, Morgan would undoubtedly be prepared to meet both emergencies.

RETALIATION IN TARIFFS.

The news that Prussia has excluded all American fresh fruits from her markets, on the ground that they are infested with insects which make them dangerous to German orchards, is irritating, of course; and as it comes at a time when Germany is suspected of hostile designs against our commerce in China, it may lead to new legislation at Washington, although that which we now have would seem to be ample for all purposes. The law of August 30, 1890, is applicable to such emergencies:

"Section 5. That whenever the President shall be satisfied that unjust discriminations are made by or under the authority of any foreign state against the importation to or sale in such foreign state of any product of the United States, he may direct that such products of such foreign states discriminating against any product of the United States as he may deem proper shall be excluded from importation to the United States; in such cases he shall make proclamation of his direction in the premises, and therein name the time when such direction against importation shall take effect, and after such date the importation of the articles named in such proclamation shall be unlawful. The President may at any time revoke, modify, terminate, or renew any such direction as in his opinion the public interests may require."

Under this section the President can, if he chooses to do so, exclude all imports from Germany. Suggestions have already been made that he exclude German wines on the ground of their unhealthfulness, or German sugar on the ground of adulteration, or German woollens on the ground of shoddy, etc., etc.

There is one general objection to this kind of retaliation, namely, that it is a weak imitation of the very thing that we complain of. We contend that our fruit is not buggy, just as we contended that our pork was not wormy. We say that this exclusion is for the protection of the apple-growers of Prussia; that it is a concession to the demands of the Agrarians, who complain that American farm and orchard products are an injury to them. We cannot very consistently say that we have just discovered that German wines are unwholesome, after drinking them for a century or more without any deleterious consequences. To exclude them would be a loss to Germany's vine-dressers, but it would be a gain to her wine-drinkers. It would deprive the former of one of their markets, and would thus lessen the price of wine, but that would be an advantage to the buyers of wine in Germany and England and elsewhere. The effect in our own country would be to punish the consumers of German wines, who are not sinners above other people in the premises. Thus all such schemes of trade-exclusion rob Peter to punish Paul, not to pay him. To exclude German sugar would put an additional tax on our own consumers of sugar, who are practically the whole people, and would give an advantage to the producers of cane sugar in the West India Islands. To exclude German woollens would help the English manufacturers, and so on.

The more we examine the details of retaliation by tariff, the less we shall be enamoured of them. What have we to say about the policy on broader grounds? Germany has a moral right to exclude our products, or any of them, from her ports. Except as restrained by treaty, she is not bound to give any reason for excluding them. Every country has the right to regulate trade within her own limits. We exercise that right with the utmost freedom. We adopt prohibitory tariffs in order to give American producers a monopoly of the market. We have prohibited the importation of several kinds of foreign fruit—oranges for example. We have done this by means of a tariff. All right. Germany proposes to do the same thing by means of a health decree. There is not a pin to choose between the two methods. We may say that her grounds for excluding our fruit are false. So too are our grounds for excluding Italian oranges. We say that our laborers must be protected against the pauper labor of Italy, whereas the California orange-growers notoriously cultivate their fruit with Chinese labor, than which there is no cheaper labor known. Exclusion by tariff, whether put upon the ground of protection to labor or of protection to health, is a mess of lies. If it was not so in the beginning, it has come to be so now, and our lies are no better than German ones. Before we extract the mote from our brother's eye, we had best cast out the beam from our own eye.

We are not sorry, however, that this question has come up, since it may serve to open the eyes of our Dingleyites to the humors of the situation. We begin by putting prohibitory duties on various articles of Germany's industry. She retaliates by excluding our pork and our apples. We say, "Don't do that unless you exclude French and Austrian and Russian pork and apples. We have no objection to the policy of exclusion, provided you treat all nations alike." Germany may reply either that she does treat all alike, in that she excludes wormy pork and buggy apples from all countries, or that she has reasons of her own (commercial treaties, for example) for admitting the French, Austrian, and Russian products, and excluding ours. If she is determined to retaliate on us for the Dingley tariff, she will not lack reasons for doing so, and they will be reasons that we cannot easily controvert. We may have a moral conviction that the bugginess of our apples is not the real reason why they are excluded, but the trouble is that we have to prove that fact before the very tribunal that has pronounced the decree of exclusion. We must convince the judge who has already decided the case against us.

It is said that we have a treaty with Prussia which contains the "most-favored-nation clause." The world has outgrown such treaties. It has supplanted them with maximum and minimum tariffs, and with treaties of reciprocity. There is any number of ways to get around the most-favored-nation clause, but all that Prussia need do in the present case is to find a bug in a consignment of American apples, and not find any among French, Austrian, or Russian apples. The task is not a difficult one, but the attempt to prove that the insect was not there—

"Hic labor, hoc opus est."

The real bug is the Dingley tariff.

UNION FOR HONEST MEN AND HONEST MONEY.

The vote of Senator Murphy in favor of free silver, as represented by the Teller resolution, has had an electrifying effect upon the members of both political parties in this State. It has, in the first place, aroused the National or sound-money section of the Democratic party to renewed life and activity, convincing its members that a return to harmonious relations with the regular organization of the party which supported Bryan in 1896, is impossible. It has, in the second place, given new life and hope to the Platt Republicans, inducing in them a belief that, by raising again the issue of Bryanism, they can turn the attention of the people away from the canal scandal and all other shortcomings of the Platt-Black administration, and save themselves from destruction by rallying to their support all believers in sound money. This view was put forth exultingly by the Platt leader in the debate on the canal inquiry in the Assembly at Albany on Thursday, when he declared that he and his associates were no longer afraid of the canal issue, since the vote of Senator Murphy had raised a greater issue upon which the fall campaign would be conducted.

There is little doubt that the money question will be the leading issue in the next State contest, but there is a good deal of doubt whether Platt will be able to convince the voters of the State that, in order to save the country from the peril of Bryanism, it will be necessary to put him in possession of the State government more completely than ever for two years more. It is doubtful if he will be able to convince the members of his own party who are in organized revolt against him that, in view of the peril, it will be necessary for them to surrender to his bossism once more. The chances are, in fact, very strong in favor of a continued division in the Republican party, in spite of the money issue. As for the Democratic party, Senator Murphy's vote seems to widen the breach which was showing signs of closing before he took that action. It is impossible for the National Democrats

to sustain that vote, or to sustain the regular wing of their party in case it shall uphold the Senator in his course and advocate his reëlection. There is no doubt that the regular wing, which is in control of the Democratic organization in the State, is as strong for free silver as it was when it committed the party to Bryan in 1896. There is little or no likelihood that its leaders will permit the adoption of a party platform this year which will either repudiate or modify materially the silver platform of 1896. They may attempt to ignore the issue, as they did in the municipal campaign of last year, but they will not allow a gold platform to be adopted. A divided Democratic party seems, therefore, to be as well assured as a divided Republican party is.

With four distinct party organizations or factions in the field, a great opportunity is presented for the honest men in both the great parties to come together for the double purpose of ridding the State of Bryanism and bossism at a single stroke. Why should not honest Republicans and honest Democrats unite for this most beneficent work? The people of the State would hail such a union with joy. They are as weary of bossism as they are of Bryanism. They would rejoice at an opportunity to crush all bosses at once, to rid the State not merely of Croker and Murphy, but of Platt and Black and Payn. It would be a desirable thing to "down Bryanism" and get an honest-money Senator in place of Murphy, but it would be only half a victory if the new Senator were a Platt man and the price of his election were the return of Black or some other Platt dummy to the Governor's chair, together with another personally owned Platt Legislature. Why should that price be paid? Everybody knows that a great number of voters in both parties are sick of bosses, and would welcome an opportunity to vote against them and in favor of free men in the executive and legislative offices of the State. There is also, outside the parties, a great body of independent voters, ranging from 100,000 to 200,000, who would join eagerly in the same crusade. In fact, there is no State in the Union so ripe for a movement of this kind as New York is to-day. There has been, furthermore, no more opportune moment for such a departure than is presented this year. The people perceive, as they have never perceived before, that the bosses of opposing parties play into one another's hands whenever it is necessary to do so in order to save their corrupt system of government from destruction. The various offices to be filled cover all the issues which a union of honest men would raise. The election of a United States Senator forces the money issue, and the election of a Governor and Legislature forces the issue of bossism.

The anti-Platt Republicans and the National Democrats are really separated only by party names. They have precisely the same views and convictions, both on the national and the State questions which will be involved in the election. If, under "harmony" pressure, each faction of them shall consent to return to old party affiliations, what will be accomplished? Absolutely nothing. Either Platt or Murphy and Croker will triumph. If, however, they refuse all offers of conciliation, and unite on the simple issues of honest money and honest men, they will stand an excellent chance of commanding such popular support as will carry them to success, thus not only warding off the peril of Bryanism, but redeeming the State from the accursed blight of bossism. The effect of such a triumph upon the rest of the country would be most beneficent, doing more than any other conceivable thing to lay forever the spectre of Bryanism.

THE CHARTER BLUNDER.

Our new city charter has been in operation only one full month, but that brief time has been sufficient to give us an accurate idea of how it is going to work. The first demonstration that it has made is that the new form of government is an enormously expensive one. So many new offices have been created, so many large salaries have been authorized, such large forces of subordinates are required to carry the borough and other systems into effect, that the Mayor has felt compelled, in order to keep the budget within anything like reasonable bounds, to declare that many of the charter's provisions will be nullified by refusal of the appropriations which are necessary for their execution. It is said, for example, that the demand for engineers, to fill the places in the subordinate borough bureaus, is so large as to more than exhaust the supply which the city affords. In nearly or quite every instance, the cost of running a consolidated department in the new city is several thousands of dollars greater than was the combined cost of running the several departments of the old cities and towns which now constitute it. This is due mainly to the multiplication of places. Each borough has its President, with a salary of $5,000 in Manhattan, Bronx, and Brooklyn, and of $3,000 in Richmond and Queens. One of these officials has found that he has so little to do that he thinks of resigning. He charges the responsibility for his lack of occupation upon the Mayor, who refuses to allow sufficient appropriations to put the full machinery of the boroughs in motion; but this is not the real cause. The trouble lies in the charter, which has created a useless office for no other apparent reason than to give five men handsome salaries.

Then there is the Municipal Assembly, with its two houses and eighty-nine members, and a salary list of $113,000. So little business has been found for this body to transact that its sessions are given over to the granting of permits for parades, to silly resolutions about matters not within its jurisdiction, and to formal requests upon the Legislature to interfere with the local affairs of the city. While created professedly to give us a "larger measure of home rule," this cumbersome local legislature is occupied chiefly in showing that it has no home-rule powers worth possessing. It will shortly be called upon to pass the budget which is finally agreed upon by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, and the extent of its powers in this direction will then be revealed. It will have power, by a majority vote of all its eighty-nine members, to reduce any item, except such as have their amounts fixed by law, and such as are in payment of State taxes, and of interest and principal of the city debt, but it can neither increase an item nor insert a new one. In case action reducing an item is vetoed by the Mayor, a five-sixths vote will be necessary to override the veto. There is a field for "strikes" in these provisions, for a combination might be made among the thrifty members of the Assembly to reduce an item as a means for bringing the head of a department to terms. This would be of doubtful outcome, however, for it would be cheaper to satisfy the claims of the necessary sixth and one other than those of the striking majority, or five-sixths. It really does not look as if there was much of value for either the taxpayers or the legislators in these provisions.

Illuminating as these local developments are as to the nature of the charter, those which are made at Albany are even more so. Something like 75 or 100 bills have been introduced in the State Legislature, either in direct amendment of the charter or authorizing some kind of interference with our local affairs. It is very evident from this unparalleled flood that the State legislators do not regard the charter as a "larger measure of home rule." They are more than ever of the opinion that the seat of municipal government is at Albany, and that instead of reforming the old order of things, the new charter has merely aggravated it by increasing the opportunity for meddling and muddling. Appeal is still made to Albany to know whether or not we can give away coal to the poor, or can display the Irish flag from the top of the city hall, or can spend our money in building bridges over the North and East Rivers, or can have honest and capable city magistrates instead of corrupt and ignorant police justices, or, in fact, whether there is anything that belongs exclusively to ourselves and concerns our individual interests.

What we are learning from the opera-

tion of the new charter is simply what was inevitable as the consequences of the policy pursued by the Charter Commission. The members of that body shut their eyes to the teachings of experience in municipal government the world over for the past half-century, and took the position that the mere act of consolidation was so to transform human nature that what had failed utterly in the past would succeed here in the future. The teachings of experience all pointed to simplicity as the fundamental principle of municipal government. The members of the commission made complexity their fundamental principle. The teachings of experience demonstrated the utter uselessness and even positive harm of municipal legislation with two branches. The Commissioners gave us one of the largest bodies of that kind we or any other city ever had. The teachings of experience showed that there could be no real home rule in municipal affairs by means of a charter subject at all times to amendment by the State Legislature, and that the only method by which home rule could be secured was through general provisions embedded in the Constitution itself, safely removed for all time from legislative interference. The Commissioners gave us a charter to which the Legislature has already offered seventy-five or more amendments, any or all of which can be adopted provided a majority can be secured for them.

It is proposed by some well-meaning persons to have a great public celebration on the first anniversary of this charter's adoption, and a member of the Legislature has introduced a bill providing for a world's fair in commemoration of the same event. A far better use of the anniversary would be to start upon that day a movement to supplant the charter with a really enlightened scheme of municipal government, conceived and formulated in accordance with human experience. That would give us something to be thankful for; a condition of affairs which does not exist at present.

REPLYING TO CRITICISM.

Brunetière's account of the famous trial in which he, as editor of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, was sued for refusing an outraged playright his legal "right of response" to criticism, is not without touches of that humor which is one of the signs of his mental sanity. Most amusing is his version of the terrific address of the opposing counsel, Maître Gondinet. "Who are you, to pretend to deny us the right to speak?" This after the man had roared away for three hours! "By what right do you condemn us to silence?" The windows were rattling at that moment with his bellowing. "Is this France? Is this the end of the nineteenth century? Was it our grandfathers who razed the Bastille?" We all know these Gondinets.

It is, however, the state of the French press law which Brunetière most concerns himself about, and which he thinks unsatisfactory, however luckily he escaped under the ingenious rulings of the court. But one cannot read such discussions of the right to reply to a critic without wondering why an author or an artist should so greatly value the right and so valiantly contend for it, legal or not. There are, to be sure, some temperaments hard to restrain. They burn to confute hostile criticism, or at least to flay the hostile critic. Artistic sentitiveness of a certain order seems necessarily to carry this writhing under criticism along with it. Tennyson had it, as we now know, in an extreme degree. It was all very well for him to profess the belief that,

> "Surely, after all,
> The noblest answer unto such
> Is perfect stillness when they brawl,"

but he was not a perfect example of perfect stillness. At times he rivalled Maître Gondinet. Even Thackeray had an immense capacity for suffering under criticism, and tried, on one occasion at least, to out-roar the Thunderer.

Then there are, of course, the complacent creatures who love to display their hurts in public, and to insist on being written down asses in the largest capitals. Of these are they who write indignantly to the editor: "You say that my book is silly and that I am a foolish fellow. I should like to see you prove that. Now, if you are man enough to print this letter, your readers will be enabled to judge between us," etc. And the weary editor does print it, as the short and easy way of proving that all he had said about the writer was true; while the writer—why, the proud man puffs out his chest and makes his cane ring more smartly on the flagging as he tells his friends how he has taught one impudent editor a lesson!

But apart from these unrestrainables, it does not appear why writers and other public performers subject to public criticism should care so much about the right or privilege of rejoinder. The critic himself is only another public performer. He is as dutifully trying to earn his daily bread as, say, the singer who hysterically accuses him of trying to deprive her of hers. He is just as truly entitled to fall back on the defence that he "must live" as the author who offers that excuse for selling poor work to a gullible public. In fact, a little imagination applied to the critic's case would make him out a deserving object of sympathy if not of charity. Think of his difficulties—the despairing hunt for a new adjective, the pathetic hope that his one quotation from Aristotle will bear another application; think of his having to go regularly to the theatre and take a hopeful view of the drama, of his being expected to read a dozen popular novels and then write a sprightly review of them! Surely his very "victims," as they think themselves, would have tears for his sad lot if they but knew it in all its bitterness, and would set about founding Homes for Convalescent Critics and Retreats for Incurable Reviewers.

Seriously, there is something to be said for criticism of the kind that ought not to be, that cannot be successfully, replied to. There should be authorities in criticism of such weight, of such honesty, of such a sense of responsibility that, when they have spoken, it should be as if Rome had spoken and the cause were for ever decided. Brunetière says truly that all modern literatures, unless it be that of France, suffer from the absence of criticism of this high, impartial, and conclusive sort. Of course, such criticism must be something more than the record of personal likes and dislikes. It cannot get on with mere phrases — "unmatched virility," "unequalled pathos," "a delicate sense of style." We must have the examples along with the definitions, as Sainte-Beuve insisted. Show us the virility, make us feel the pathos, exhibit the style. When this is done, when criticism becomes by its skill and candor worthy to rank among the expert professions, the desire to reply to it, to set up rival opinions against it, disappears. Authoritative criticism can have no rival.

But are not the critics divided among themselves? Is it not possible to answer one critic with another? Brunetière admits this possibility, and says that the setting up of critic against critic is the only real response an author can make, is the only thing which makes criticism tremble for a moment for the certainty of its own decisions. But this, of course, relates, not to the ideal state, but to the present hurly-burly of criticism, and even there has its plausibility only through indiscriminate lumping of critics together. They must be weighed, not counted. Will a writer say, Dowden and Traill and Watts-Dunton are against me, but Smith and Brown and Jones and Robinson are on my side, and I therefore have a clear majority of one? Practically that thing is done. Majorities are the big battalions in politics, but in art and letters we have to believe with Aristotle (here is *our* one quotation from him) that the final word is with "the judicious" (we stand ready to give the Greek on demand). A poet cannot check off the review of the Eatanswill *Gazette* against that of the *Athenæum*. Even in these days of every man his own critic there are certain critical authorities who have not defiled their garments, and who are not replied to because to their mature judgment no reply is possible.

SUDERMANN'S "JOHN THE BAPTIST."

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., February 3, 1898.

The cable has informed us that Sudermann's "Johannes," on its first production, on January 16, in the Deutsches Theater of Berlin, in spite of the elaborate stage setting, and in spite of the superb acting of Josef Kainz and Agnes Sorma, was at least a partial failure. If this be true, one cannot help thinking that the failure was due chiefly to the fact that the audience, through the attempted prohibition of the performance by the police, had been led to expect something like a Biblical extravaganza, and was naturally loath to be put off with a religious drama of deep poetic feeling. The lover of literature, and the lover of German literature in particular, will judge this play differently; he will carry away from its reading a sense of profound gratitude to Sudermann for having once more (and this time more emphatically than ever) stepped forward as a leader in the upward idealistic movement which, in various ways, had made itself felt for some time past until last year it broke forth with an overpowering wealth of poetry in Hauptmann's "The Sunken Bell."

Sudermann's John the Baptist is indeed a counterpart to Hauptmann's Henry, the bell-founder. The fate of both is genuinely tragic. The mediæval mystic succumbs in striving for an artistic ideal too grand and too shadowy for human imagination. The Jewish prophet succumbs in striving for a moral ideal too visionary and too austere for human happiness. Both lose faith in themselves and in their mission, and both rise through their very failure to the height of true humanity. Nothing is more impressive in Sudermann's drama than the way in which this disenchantment of the prophet with himself, this gradual awakening to the sense of his fundamental error, and the final bursting forth of the true light from doubt and despair, are brought before us.

In the beginning we see the preacher in the wilderness. He has gathered about himself the laden and the lowly. With burning words he speaks to them of the woe of the time, of the misery of the people trodden into the dust both by the foreign conqueror and by its own rulers, tormented by its traditional obedience to a heartless, inexorable law. And he holds out to them the vision of the deliverer and avenger that is to come: the Messiah, clad in splendor, like the King of the heavenly host, the cherubim around him on armored steeds and with flaming swords, ready to crush and to slaughter. Yet, irresistible and intoxicating as his harangues are, an occasional look, an occasional word betrays even here that his faith is not born of a free and joyous surrender to the divine, but of a dark, brooding fanaticism, and we feel instinctively that it will not stand the test of self-scrutiny.

Next he appears in the streets of Jerusalem, inciting the populace to revolt against Herod and his lustful house, especially against the scandalous marriage into which the tetrarch has just entered with Herodias, the divorced wife of his own brother, and which he wishes to have sanctioned by the synagogue. But here again it is the blind fanatic rather than the inspired leader whom we hear in John's language. Having led the infuriated mob to the King's palace, he is at a loss what to do, he feels lonely in the midst of the surging crowd, he longs for his rocks in the wilderness; and when the Pharisees take this opportunity to embarrass him by mocking questions about the new Law the advent of which he has been holding out to his hearers, he has no answer. Just then there is heard out of the midst of the populace the voice of a Galilean pilgrim: "Higher than Law and Sacrifice is Love!" It is the message of him whose coming John has been preaching without divining his true call. This word strikes deep into his soul. For the first time he doubts his own mission, for the first time there looms up before him the dim vision of something more exalted than his own dream of the Messiah.

Again he rises to his full power as a hero of asceticism in his interview with Herodias and her wanton daughter Salome. Salome has been fascinated by the weird, fantastic appearance of this man with the lion's mane and the far-away look in his eyes; she wishes to flirt with him, to tame him, to possess him. When he enters the palace, she receives him with a shower of roses and the voluptuous songs of her maidens. But he remains unmoved. "Gird thy loins," he says to her, "and turn away from me in sackcloth and ashes. For I have been sent as a wrath over thee and as a curse to destroy thee." And he does not seem to notice that this very curse affects the infatuated girl like a magic love potion. Herodias, too, wishes to win him—she wishes to make him a tool of her political designs, to stifle through him the popular opposition to the clerical sanction of her marriage; and she attempts to bribe him by offering him the charms of her daughter. But again his only answer is: "Adulteress!" And yet even this victory over sensual temptation leaves a sting in his soul; for again he hears that mysterious word, Love, and he must remain silent when Herodias calls out to him: "What right have you to judge the guilty, you who flee from human life into the loneliness of the desert? What do you know of those who live and die for love's sake?"

And now he comes to see that he does not understand even those nearest to him. The wife of his favorite disciple comes to him and beseeches him to give back to her the heart of her husband; for since he has joined the band of the Baptist's followers he has forsaken his home and forgotten his kindred. And John never knew anything of this man's inner life, he knew nothing of the love that he is accused of having stifled! Who, then, is he to teach others—he who is constantly confronted with his own limitations, who must confess to himself that he is without a guiding principle of his own conduct! Where is there an outlook for him? Where is the path toward his salvation? Is it this Love that is thrust upon him from all sides? No, no; it cannot be. Love is littleness, is weakness, is selfishness, is sin! No, the only salvation lies in the Messiah, in him who is to come in heavenly splendor, surrounded by the rainbow, the King of Kings, the great fulfiller and judge! Thus he tries to assure himself, thus he strains every nerve to maintain his tottering belief in his mission, to keep awake the hope of his poor downtrodden people. And from this very people, from the mouth of an old wretched beggar-woman, he now hears for the first time the full, the cruel truth: "We do not want your Messiah! We do not want your King! Kings come only to kings; they have nothing in common with us, the poor. Go away; let us alone, you false prophet!"

Immediately after this scene the climax is reached. Ever since the Baptist for the first time heard that mysterious message of Love, he has been endeavoring to discover whence it came. In a vague manner he has associated it with the noble youth whom years ago he baptized in the Jordan, and from whom he has in some way hoped for the fulfilment of his Messianic dreams. Now he learns from some Galilean fishermen that this Jesus of Nazareth has indeed brought a new gospel—not the gospel of a superhuman Messiah, but of human brotherhood and kindliness, of the love of one's enemies, the very gospel of which John, through the bitter disenchantment, has gradually become the worthiest prophet. Just after this meeting with the Galileans he is drawn into the surging throng of the populace, who have streamed together to make a forcible attack upon Herod and his wife as they, in solemn procession, repair to the temple. Torn with conflicting feelings as he is, unable to collect his thoughts, he is pushed along to the steps of the temple. A stone is forced into his hand: he is to execute the judgment of the people against the vicious King himself. Mechanically he lifts the stone; he calls out to Herod: "In the name of him who—"; but the stone glides from his hand, and he stammers—"of him who bade me love you!"

The rest of the drama brings little new of inner experience. Once more John rises to the full grandeur of the Old Testament prophet. Imprisoned, and led before the love-infatuated Salome, he once more defies her raging passion. He dies with words of peace and hope upon his lips. Immediately after his execution there is heard from the street the hosannah of the jubilant masses greeting the entry of Jesus into Jerusalem.

It may be that here and there in this drama there is an overdose of staginess; staginess is undoubtedly the danger of Sudermann's talent. It may be that the realistic touches are here and there a little forced, and seem like effects borrowed from the religious paintings of Munkacsy. It may be that the talk of the Roman soldiery smacks a little too much of the jargon of the Prussian officers of the guard. And there can be no doubt that the figure of Salome, this self-conscious, calculating Berlin coquette, falls far behind that ravishing creation of Heine's fancy after which she has been modelled:

> "In den Händen trägt sie immer
> Jene Schüssel mit dem Haupte
> Des Johannes, und sie küsst es,
> Ja sie küsst das Haupt mit Inbrunst.
>
> "War vielleicht ein Bischen böse
> Auf den Liebsten, liess ihn köpfen;
> Aber als sie auf der Schüssel
> Das geliebte Haupt erblickte,
>
> "Weinte sie und ward verrückt,
> Und sie starb in Liebeswahnsinn.
> (Liebeswahnsinn! Pleonasmus!
> Liebe ist ja schon ein Wahnsinn!)"

But what does all this mean beside the fact that in the Baptist himself Sudermann has created a character worthy of Schiller's genius; a character which arouses in us emotions such as our forefathers must have felt when they saw the first performance of a "Jungfrau von Orleans" or a "Wilhelm Tell"; a character which, we may confidently hope, will be a source of inspiration and delight to our children and our children's children.

KUNO FRANCKE.

THE PAINTINGS AT CHANTILLY.—III.

PARIS, January 27, 1898.

Greuze may be said to have introduced in the French school of the eighteenth century the bourgeois form of art—the representation of every-day life. He is a realist, but his realism preserves a touch of poetry; he likes to choose his models (especially his female models) from the most refined beauties he can find. It is evident that his mind was pervaded by his literary theories. His domestic dramas are an illustration of life such as it was understood by the philosophical school; the "Paternal Malediction," the "Punished Son," the "Village Bride" made his reputation. The galleries of Chantilly show us a head of a girl which is a charming portrait, and a study which was used for the "Village Bride." Tradition will have it that it is the head of Georgette, a daughter of Greuze's porter. "If Greuze," says M. Gruyer, "found this charming child in his lodge, he was quite right to take her as a model." Greuze painted this Georgette at the period, for which he had an evident preference, when her sex is no longer quite a child, and not yet quite a girl; his heads, of which there is a profusion (many are copies which were made when Greuze became the fashion and the rage), always have this character. Their naïveté is suggestive, their innocence is a veil. Greuze knew, however, how to go a step further, and in the picture at Chantilly which goes under the name of "Tender Desire," we see a woman who seems to have nothing more to desire. In Smith's catalogue of the works of Greuze this picture is marked as "Young Woman, with a languishing expression, looking up." Georgette's brother, a robust and healthy boy, figures at Chantilly near his sister. It is an admirable portrait, more vigorous than most of the pictures by Greuze; it bears the impression of life.

I have spoken already of the portrait of Marie Antoinette, as Dauphiness, made by Drouais; it is one of the ornaments of the great gallery of Chantilly. A portrait of Madame de Pompadour, representing her powdered and rouged, with white lace thrown over her head, working at embroidery, has been attributed to Drouais: Madame de Pompadour is no longer very young: she is about forty years old.

Fragonard (born in 1732, died in 1806) painted for the Princes of Condé a series of forty-two small oval portraits of the Princes and Princesses of Bourbon. It is difficult to recognize his very characteristic manner in this series, which is of no great value. More value, in an historic sense, is attachable to a portrait of the Prince of Condé, the commander of Condé's army, which is found at Chantilly. This full-size portrait represents the Prince at the age of sixty-five, when he was in England; he wears the costume of general of the army of Condé. It was painted by a certain Madame de Tott, and engraved by Bartolozzi in 1802. Who Madame de Tott was, it is impossible to say. Madame Vigée-Lebrun is well known; she lived as long as eighty-seven years, and died in Paris in 1842. She left a most interesting body of works; the collection of her portraits is of immense interest. Chantilly has a portrait of Maria Theresa of Austria, which cannot have been made from life, and consequently is of secondary value; a portrait of Queen Caroline of Naples, already old; a portrait of Marie Louise Joséphine, Queen of Etruria (who died at Lucca in 1824), the best of the three.

Danloux (born in 1745, died in 1809) lived ten years in England, where he established himself at the beginning of the French Revolution. He imbibed somewhat of the rare faculties of Gainsborough, Reynolds, and Lawrence; he made portraits in England of Admiral Duncan, Lord Adam Gordon; he made a portrait of the Count d'Artois, in the costume of colonel-general of the Swiss—a good picture, which is now at Chantilly—as well as an excellent portrait of Louis Henri Joseph de Bourbon, the last Prince of Condé, in the costume of the army of Condé. This last portrait was given by the Prince to a Mr. Crawford, who had received him in England, and it was bought by the Duke d'Aumale from one of the descendants of Mr. Crawford.

The Vernets form a dynasty of painters, the most illustrious of whom was Horace Vernet, well known to all the visitors at the château of Versailles. Carle Vernet (born in 1758, died in 1836) is represented at Chantilly by a very interesting hunting picture; the two personages in hunting costume and on horseback are the Duke d'Orléans, the father of Louis Philippe, and Louis Philippe himself, who was called the Duke de Chartres in the lifetime of his father. Many people on horseback are seen in the background, in the landscape. The two princes have evidently sat for their portrait. The Duke d'Orléans has the same features, the same complexion, as in the magnificent portrait by Sir Joshua Reynolds at Windsor. (There is at Chantilly a reduction of this last portrait made by Reynolds himself.) This hunting picture, too, has its history; it was given to the city of Pesth by a Prince Esterhazy, who probably had received it as a present from the Duke d'Orléans. It entered the galleries of Chantilly by virtue of an exchange which had the approbation of the Hungarian Chamber.

Prudhon (born in 1758, died in 1823) is a sort of connecting link between the French school of the eighteenth century and the classic school of David; he combined a certain classic purity with all the grace of the eighteenth century. Prudhon is very personal, and it is impossible not to recognize him at once. He is very pure and Greek in his "Psyche aspiring to Heaven," a nude but chaste figure, which is full of poetry. The same qualities are found, in a minor degree, in two small pictures, "Homage to Beauty" and "The Sleep of Psyche." The Duke d'Aumale was fortunate enough to find a great number of Prudhon's original drawings; they are all framed, and form a most valuable exhibition by themselves.

Among the jewels of Chantilly we must place in the forefront the portrait of Bonaparte as First Consul, by Gérard (born in 1770, died in 1837). Many engravings have been made of this magnificent portrait, which shows Bonaparte at his best age, and gives the completest idea of the power of this extraordinary genius. Gérard, who was an excellent portrait painter, cannot be admired in his great classic compositions, such as the "Three Ages," which are seen at Chantilly. Titian treated the same subject, but with a difference. Gérard's composition was, however, the great success of the Salon in 1808. We do not view it with the same eyes as the contemporaries of Madame de Staël.

Gros (born in 1771, died in 1835) is famous for his picture of Napoleon among the men stricken with the plague at Jaffa. This picture is now in the museum of the Louvre; Chantilly possesses a reduction of it, or rather the first study made by Gros for the great picture. It is interesting as such.

A great place is occupied by the pictures of Ingres (born in 1780, died in 1867), who was long considered the greatest master of the modern French school. We find an admirable portrait of himself, at the age of twenty-four, when he was a pensioner of the French School at Rome, full of vigor and quite alive. Another portrait, made at Rome, of a French lady called Madame Devaucay, is comparable for its qualities with the best portraits of the great masters, from the quattrocentisti to Holbein (such, at least, is the opinion of M. Gruyer, who is an enthusiastic admirer of Ingres). The picture, which goes under the name of "Stratonice," and which has been made popular by engraving, may be said to have been the starting-point of the neo-Greek school, which has in our day its best adept in Alma-Tadema. It was made for the Duke d'Orléans, in 1834. A "Venus Anadyomene," with cupids at her feet, on the waves; a small "Francesca da Rimini," with Paolo Malatesta at her feet, are also to be mentioned.

Horace Vernet, the favorite painter of Louis Philippe, made the name of Vernet even more illustrious. We see from his hand at Chantilly a portrait of the Duke d'Orléans (Louis Philippe), at the age of forty-five, in the painter's first manner; "Arab Chiefs in Council," in his second and final manner—a charming picture (the Arab chiefs are holding their council in a beautiful landscape, painted from nature); King Louis Philippe, on horseback, attended by all his sons on horseback, and coming out of the court of the château of Versailles. The King is in the uniform of a lieutenant-general, the Duke d'Orléans of a division general as is also the Duke de Nemours; the Prince de Joinville in the uniform of a captain of the navy, the Duke d'Aumale of a colonel of infantry, the Duke de Montpensier of a captain of artillery. Of all these, only one remains at this hour, the Prince de Joinville.

Ary Scheffer was one of the favorite painters of the house of Orléans; he had become personally intimate with most of its members, having given drawing lessons to them. He was much liked by Queen Marie Amélie, and made several portraits of her; one of them, taken when she was already a widow, is seen at Chantilly. We notice also a fine portrait of Prince Talleyrand by Scheffer, which was left to the Duke d'Aumale by his friend Lord Henry Holland. In this portrait Scheffer revealed some of the qualities of the Dutch masters, being himself a Dutchman. He is also represented by a fine portrait of the Duke d'Orléans, the eldest son of Louis Philippe, at the age of twenty, in the costume of a colonel of hussars.

Paul Delaroche made for the Duke d'Orléans, who had become Prince Royal, a picture representing the assassination of the Duke de Guise at Blois. The Duke ordered this picture at the same time as the "Stratonice" of Ingres. Both are now at Chantilly. The "Assassination" is probably the best painting by Delaroche; it has become very popular through a fine engraving. When we have cited the "Two Foscari" of Delacroix, we have nearly exhausted what belongs to the generation of painters of the period of 1830. M. Gruyer will complete his magnifi-

cent work by a fourth volume. We cannot finish this account without saying that the Duke d'Aumale was the happy possessor of several Decamps; but Decamps belongs already to a period posterior to that of Ingres, Delaroche, and Delacroix.

Correspondence.

THE FOLLY OF IT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is impossible for me to read the *Nation* without either agreeing with it or disagreeing with it very positively. On this occasion I most heartily agree with it. You never put a thing better than when you recently said that the annexation of Hawaii involved our maintaining two fleets, one to defend the islands and the other to defend our own coast when deserted by our present fleet for the protection of the islands. Living on the Pacific Coast myself, I may be able to offer you the reflections of sensible men here on this subject.

The truth is, all this talk about the military necessity of our having these islands is nonsense. We don't need them at all. Let us reason a little. If we require them, it must be for purposes either offensive or defensive. Now, offensive arguments nobody will tolerate. Well, then, we may need them for defence, or rather (for this is practically the only excuse) we ought to have them ourselves in order that others may not use them against us. Against us how? As a coaling and supply-station? Grant that. Then how many home ports of ours can they menace? Does nobody in the East know that on the whole Pacific Coast of this country there are only three vulnerable points? Nature has not opened this coast with harbors and rivers as she has the other. There neither are nor can be here that number of opulent maritime cities which, on the Atlantic Coast, from Maine to Louisiana, may tempt the avarice or the revenge of a foreign enemy. From Southern California to Cape Flattery there are only the harbors of San Diego, San Francisco, and Puget Sound. Now, if we cannot defend these three ports by fortifications and by our present squadrons without going two thousand miles and more into the Pacific to get an expensive outpost—to get an outpost that itself must be defended by ships, to get an outpost so far from our own coast that an enemy in possession of it, to use it for supplies and repairs, would have to operate by intermittent war, rather than continuous attack—then in all reason we had better give up our policy of minding our own business, and adopt one of laying about us on all sides and mauling mankind. It would be just as cheap in the long run to do one as the other. Let us, then, go on. Let us take Hawaii, squander millions on Hawaii, build a navy for Hawaii, and then fortify the Aleutians to protect the approaches to Hawaii. Throw away your Mercator's projection; look at the globe. The Aleutians are not so distant from Hawaii. Let us, accordingly, fortify the Aleutians and build there a dry-dock, too, for a reserve station for our squadron of Hawaii.

The degree of ignorance on this subject is something astonishing. That ignorance is found even in the official departments, where we pay men to know better. Let me give you an instance. Last summer, when some madman or schemer spread a rumor that the Japanese were fools enough to think of wasting on Hawaii ammunition and ships which they manifestly needed against powerful neighbors at home, the battle-ship *Oregon* was lying near Seattle in the waters of Puget Sound. Forthwith the Navy Department ordered her to San Francisco. Why? Not because that city or any other American city was in the remotest danger—that, nobody claimed. It was for offensive purposes, admittedly, that she was sent there. She must be in readiness to depart at once for Hawaii. San Francisco is eight hundred miles south of Puget Sound, and Hawaii ever so much further south than that, so, of course, the *Oregon* would be so much nearer the islands. Would she? Every officer, even the tars, aboard her must have grinned at the conclusion. Though the islands are very far south of San Francisco, they are, by reason of the spherical shape of the earth, almost as near to Seattle. The difference is not above two hundred miles. Thus the ship was sent eight hundred miles to gain two hundred. But this is not all. She was to sail from San Francisco harbor. Now this involved two things—her being able to get into that harbor and her being able to get out of it. In quiet seas either is easy. In rough weather the deep keel of this ponderous machine has not margin enough at the Golden Gate for absolute safety, so at such times she has always to remain a prisoner. A fine scheme of offence this. But, worse still, the only dock on this coast large enough to hold her was the very one she had left behind on Puget Sound. Moreover, if a change of plan should require her dispatch to Japan itself, then San Francisco would be several hundred miles further away.

The only Power in whose hands islands so distant from our coast could ever be a danger to us, is England. But what would England want with them? That country has here, on Vancouver Island, within a stone's throw of our Puget Sound Coast, a complete naval station, a dry-dock, fortifications, abundance of coal, besides telegraphic and railway connection. The last country that will ever want the Hawaiian Islands for naval purposes is England. They are too far from Asia, they are too far from America, and she already has her ample stations on each of those continents.

FREDERICK BAUSMAN.

SEATTLE, WASH., January 31, 1898.

PORCHER'S MARCUS AURELIUS ANTONINUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of January 20 is "An Inquiry," by Mr. Thomas M. Johnson, relative to the 'Meditations of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus,' the text of which was issued, and edited, by C. L. Porcher, London, 1863. I am pleased to give a little information here which, although brief, represents a year's time and much searching and correspondence.

"C. L. Porcher" was one of the pseudonyms of an erratic genius whose true name was Capel Lofft (the younger). A full account of his life and writings will be found in Macmillan's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (vol. xxxiv., pp. 71-2), from which I extract briefly. He was born February 19, 1806, in Suffolk, England; was a Fellow of King's College, Cambridge, 1829, and took his M.A. in 1832. He studied law, but did not practise, preferring literature and a roving life. He had high honors at college, and his several works received great praise, but his political theories were considered wild and his criticisms unsound. "Lofft was in America during the civil war, and, while living in the wilds of Minnesota," prepared the text of the 'Meditations.' This explains the allusion to Minnesota in the note referred to by Mr. Johnson. Besides the pseudonym of "C. L. Porcher," Lofft also used others, as "Stoic," "Kingsman," "C. Lawford," "R. E. Storer" ("Restorer"), etc.

Mr. Johnson's copy might be termed the first English edition, being printed in London; but the true first edition ever issued was printed in New York, 1861, by J. F. Trow, of Directory fame. The book *never was published*, as shown by the copy in the Astor Library, which is a presentation copy from Lofft, bearing several inscriptions in his writing, among them, "Not published." The title has "Porcher" lined out, followed by "=Stoic." Capel Lofft died in Milmead, Va., October 1, 1873.

I think Mr. Johnson is certainly in error in ascribing anti-slavery opinions to Lofft, for the legend on the title of the 1863 edition, viz.: "N. Eboraci, U. S., 1863. A. Liberatæ Reip. I.," is also on the title of the first edition, with date 1861; so he could not have had in mind, as his epoch-maker, the emancipation proclamation of January 1, 1863. It seems to me a more plausible theory that he was of strong Southern sympathies, if not actually pro-slavery, as shown by his living (and dying) South, and by his using the name "Porcher," an essentially Southern family; and that by "Year of Liberty I." he referred originally to 1861, to what he hoped would be the *first* year of the Southern republic.

I was much puzzled at my first sight of this work, and attempted to trace it through the name "Porcher." The genealogies and cyclopædias indicated only the Southern family, the most famous member of which was Dr. Francis Peyre Porcher of Charleston, S. C. Correspondence with the family did not aid me, but seemed to show that the author was not of their line. Finally, I was put on the right track by Prof. Gerald Henry Rendall, of University College, Liverpool, who is preparing a new translation of the famous 'Meditations.' My belief is that Lofft, while living South, became attached to some member of the Porcher family, and hence adopted the name, prefixing it with his own full initials, "C. L." If not this, then "Porcher" is some faint play upon the word "Loft."

The book is rare in any form, but exists in three or four states; first, the 1861 issue, which has an "Addenda," the whole being printed on a *pinkish* paper; next, the author had an "Ensuper Addenda," printed by Parker, of Oxford, on a *yellowish* paper, and bound in with some copies of the 1861 issue; finally, he reissued the work in 1863, in England, as described. The British Museum (see their Catalogue of Printed Books, London, 1881, Aur-Azz, page 5), has *eight* copies of this work, more or less perfect, and filled with emendations by Lofft, sheets of his manuscript, letters, bills, etc.—in fact, the entire private collection of this extraordinary man. The two copies I have are among the treasures of my collection of nearly 200 editions of the 'Meditations.' The fact that the "Porcher" edition is the *only* one of the

text printed in the United States, lends interest and is my apology for this letter.

WALTER LEE BROWN.

EVANSTON, Ill., January 31, 1898.

A FALSE REPORT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Some time in December I noticed, either in the *Nation* or in some equally prominent place, a short paragraph copied from a French paper, warning travellers that the Hermitage at St. Petersburg was undergoing extensive repairs, and that the pictures of the gallery would be closed to visitors for at least a year. I immediately gave up the idea of visiting Russia in the Christmas holidays, for St. Petersburg without the Hermitage would be like the play with *Hamlet* in the asylum. But I later decided to be sure, and received the following letter from M. Somof, who has charge of the picture gallery. The letter may be of interest to some of your readers who might be deterred by the notice I refer to from visiting St. Petersburg.

ERMITAGE IMPÉRIAL,
ST.-PÉTERSBOURG, le 20-8 décembre, 1897.

MONSIEUR: En réponse à votre lettre du 16 décembre, j'ai l'honneur de vous informer que vos informations ne sont pas exactes, et que le Musée de l'Ermitage Impérial est ouvert et restera ouvert pour tout le monde malgré la translation des tableaux russes de la collection de l'Ermitage au nouveau Musée National, dont je m'occupe en ce moment.

Agréez, monsieur, l'assurance de ma considération très distinguée.

A. SOMOF,
Conservateur en chef de la galerie de l'Ermitage.

Instead of all the Hermitage being closed to the public, it is only two rooms containing Russian pictures that are not to be seen. As one can see the very large Trétiakoff collection of Russian paintings in Moscow, there is no reason why any one should postpone a visit to Russia on account of the current notices of closure.

I may perhaps warn travellers that all collections, both in St. Petersburg and in Moscow, are closed from December 23 to January 6 (old style), inclusive, with the exception of one day. So visitors who wish to see both the Hermitage and the Russian Christmas should plan to visit the gallery before the holidays begin, or after they are over.—Yours truly,

WILLIAM FENWICK HARRIS.

BERLIN, January 12, 1898.

A FIELD FOR CLASSICAL SCHOLARSHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me to call the attention of competent persons to a field in classical studies at present largely unoccupied. While so much good work has been done, and is being done, particularly in Germany, in determining the correct text of ancient authors, there exists of many writers no complete modern edition containing notes explanatory of obscurities and difficulties in that text. There are no annotated editions of the complete works of Seneca, Suetonius, Pliny the Naturalist, and others, which are not at present entirely out of print. Such old editions as the Delphin and Lemaire, besides being antiquated, can now be obtained, if at all, only with considerable trouble and no little expense. There are few, even among professed classical scholars, who would not be assisted by the collected researches of ages upon these writers. Who, for instance, can pretend to fully understand Pliny the Naturalist without some such help? For the general reader of the classics, of whom there are not a few, such aids are imperative.

Very respectfully, C. R. BLACK, Ph.D.

BALTIMORE, February 6, 1898.

Notes.

'Facts about Bookworms, their History in Literature and Work in Libraries,' is the title of a work, both literary and scientific (microscope in hand), by the Rev. J. F. O'Conor, S. J., former librarian of Georgetown College, in the press of Francis P. Harper. The edition will be limited to 750 copies.

D. Appleton & Co. will shortly publish 'The Broom of the War God,' by H. N. Brailsford, a volunteer in the Foreign Legion in the late war between Greece and Turkey; 'Eastern Journeys: Some Notes of Travel in Russia, in the Caucasus, and to Jerusalem,' by the late Charles A. Dana; 'Bimetallism,' by Major Leonard Darwin; 'Astronomy,' by Agnes M. Clerke, A. Fowler, and J. Ellard Gore; 'Points in Minor Tactics,' by Capt. Charles A. Smylie; and 'A Voyage of Consolation,' by Mrs. E. C. Cotes.

With Dr. George Adam Smith's volume on the 'Minor Prophets,' A. C. Armstrong & Son will complete the forty-nine volumes of the "Expositor's Bible." They announce also an 'Introduction to the Study of Sociology,' by J. H. Stuckenberg, D.D.

Charles Scribner's Sons will publish 'Emerson, and Other Essays,' by John Jay Chapman.

Frederick A. Stokes Co. will have ready in the spring 'Northward,' by Lieut. R. E. Peary, a narrative of his Greenland explorations in 1886 and 1891-'97, with nearly 900 illustrations; and 'Andrée's Balloon Expedition,' by MM. Lachambre and Machuron, his balloon-builders.

'Marching with Gomez,' by Grover Flint, with an introduction by the author's father-in-law, John Fiske, is promised by Lamson, Wolffe & Co.

Doubleday & McClure Co. have nearly ready 'The Science of Political Economy,' Henry George's posthumous work. They have also undertaken, in connection with this writer's family, a memorial edition of his works limited to 1,000 copies, and printed at the De Vinne Press. New photogravure portraits, and a biography by Henry George the younger, will enhance the value of this edition.

The Peter Paul Book Co., Buffalo, announce the publication at an early date of 'Daydreams of a Doctor,' by Dr. C. Barlow of Robinson, Illinois.

About the middle of the month the second volume of the 'Review of Historical Publications' relating to Canada, edited by Prof. George M. Wrong and Mr. H. H. Langton, librarian, of the University of Toronto, will be published in that city by William Briggs. Only 500 copies will be for sale.

The forthcoming Poe-Patterson correspondence, with introduction by Eugene Field and facsimile of one of Poe's letters, is, we are informed, not new material, having been published in the Chicago weekly *America* of April 11, 1889.

We have received from Messrs. Scribner two volumes in each of the uniform series of reprints of James Whitcomb Riley's and Richard Harding Davis's works: Riley's 'Afterwhiles' and 'Sketches in Prose,' and Davis's 'Cinderella, and Other Stories' and 'Gallegher, and Other Stories.' The "Homestead Edition" of the Western writer is the more elegant of the two, but not too much so for even the dialect verse of 'Afterwhiles,' in which the combination of elevated and of serio-comic poetry recalls the author of the 'Biglow Papers.'

No one will grudge, either, a new and handsome dress to Mr. Frank Dempster Sherman's 'Little-Folk Lyrics' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), among the best of their kind. The illustrations which frame a certain number of the songs are by Maude and Genevieve Cowles, and are much above the average in fancy and in draughtsmanship.

The appearance of a Life of Christina Rossetti and the Rossetti exhibition in London make it natural for Roberts Bros. to bring out a popular edition of T. Hall Caine's 'Recollections of Dante Gabriel Rossetti,' now some fifteen years old. Meanwhile, Mr. Caine has become a considerable literary personage, and it should be remembered that there is not a little of himself in this book about a friend.

It speaks well for his denomination that Dr. McConnell's 'History of the American Episcopal Church' has reached a seventh edition (Thomas Whittaker). Its independence and candor have not proved an obstacle to its reception, and it is now extended from the close of the civil war to date. The work has a good index.

'Afloat on the Ohio' is the title of a well-made, readable book by R. G. Thwaites (Chicago: Way & Williams), giving an account of a voyage in a skiff down the river from Redstone to Cairo, a distance of about 1,000 miles. Excepting the visit in Louisville, where Mr. Thwaites's party were the guests of Col. R. T. Durrett, the eminent Kentucky historian and President of the Filson Club, the outing was uneventful; but the little incidents of the trip are pleasantly told, the various places of interest are duly dwelt upon in succession, and the monotony of the narrative is evaded by frequent historical reminiscences. Such is particularly the case along the upper reaches of the river, where a good many places one now hears little and cares less about were once important points. The book is thus well balanced and ballasted, and the cargo it brings is no inconsiderable one. The most important matters it contains are the two Appendixes, one giving an historical outline of Ohio Valley settlement, and the other a selected list of journals of previous travellers down the river, forming quite a bibliography of the subject. The voyage having been undertaken, we are informed, to gather "local color" for work in Western history, the present volume is no doubt to be regarded as opening the way to a more serious undertaking.

Mr. W. M. Griswold of Cambridge, Mass., with that untiring diligence which characterizes the veteran index-maker, has now issued 'The Novels of 1897,' a two-column authors' list filling twelve pages, with references to notices and date of notice in six literary journals; and a complementary classified subject-list, with the references carefully repeated. Africa, Asia, England, Kentucky and Tennessee, Eccentric, Fanciful, Humorous, Ideas (with nine subdivisions), Occupations, Juvenile, are some of the head-

ings. Besides the references to criticisms, the judgment is often summarized, as "clever," "loathsome," "forced," "impossible," "praised," etc. There is no excuse for going astray here. Libraries and their frequenters must "come to this."

A distinctly good piece of work in its kind is the dissertation, by Pauline G. Wiggin, entitled 'An Inquiry into the Authorship of the Middleton-Rowley Plays,' which, as we are informed by the title-page, was "prepared under the direction" of Prof. George P. Baker of Harvard, and which appears as No. 9 of the Radcliffe College Monographs (Boston: Ginn & Co.). In method this essay bears some resemblance to the valuable study of the joint work of Beaumont and Fletcher by Mr. G. C. Macaulay; but Miss Wiggin's work seems to us superior in closeness of reasoning, carefulness of argument, and general intelligence and soundness of literary criticism. It certainly is to be commended for its cautious use of the somewhat overworked and deceptive "metrical test." Miss Wiggin comes to the conclusion that Rowley "wrote the first scene and the underplot of 'A Fair Quarrel,' the first part of 'A World Tost at Tennis,' the second act of 'The Spanish Gypsy,' and the first and last scenes, as well as the underplot, of 'The Changeling.'" But while thus agreeing in the main with the opinions of critics like Fleay, Bullen, and Swinburne, she yet vindicates for Rowley, in an interesting concluding chapter, a higher place and a more important part in this literary partnership than previous critics have thought fit to assign him.

All the articles contained in the sixth volume of "Papers of the American School of Classical Studies" have been published in the *American Journal of Archæology*, some of them years ago. In the course of this period, the *Journal* changed editors, place of publication, and the firms which electrotyped the articles. The articles have been reprinted from the old plates, and consequently the volume exhibits a variety of typography and spelling. The committee on publications announces that this volume is to conclude the series of Papers of the School, and that future papers will be published in independent form by the American Institute of Archæology. A special volume will be devoted to the papers relating to the excavations at the Heræum of Argos. The School has nothing to be ashamed of in these papers, for they speak in thankworthy wise of progress made by the School, in the matter both of the activity and of the scholarship of its members. But the wisdom of republishing them may be doubted. The money thus expended might have been used to greater advantage, for instance, in excavations. Then, since the papers are of interest only to the select few who already possess them in the *American Journal of Archæology*, it seems a pity to force writers on archæological matters to multiply references. Again, the papers are not of such epoch-making importance as to create an imperative demand for their republication. The only reason for the existence of the volume is that it may serve as an advertisement of the School. But it will probably fail to attain that end, since it will reach none but those who are already deeply interested in the School, and are more or less conversant with what concerns its welfare.

Mayor Quincy is to be praised for having newly founded an "official gazette of the executive departments of the city of Boston," called the *City Record*. Its aim is to supply first the departments themselves, and afterwards the public at a moderate subscription price, or per single copy. Mayor Quincy courts criticism and publicity, and wishes writers on municipal matters in the press to be well informed. Such a gazette is published by the city of Vienna, as the present editor shows in No. 1. The *City Record* can be recommended to the attention of reformers in all our large cities.

Significant articles in the *Architectural Record* for January are "The Problem of the Leaning Tower of Pisa," by William H. Goodyear, and "The New Library of Congress," by Russell Sturgis, the latter quite the most detailed and well illustrated professional description we have seen. Mr. Goodyear attacks a theme of perennial interest, and brings the leaning tower into his particular realm of structural curvature. The tower is, in his view, a *tour de force*, in which the bend reverts towards the perpendicular; and he supports his opinion with numerous examples (one the neighboring leaning Baptistery, whose deliberate cant he demonstrates by measurement of the base courses), including bulging or impending façades. His photographic illustrations are very convincing.

Of the three articles on Socialism by leading representatives of that faith, in *Cosmopolis* for January, the one by H. M. Hyndman is the most logical and unimaginative. M. Jaurès is diffuse in his language and, as might be expected, most radical in his views. Liebknecht treats of Socialism as an outgrowth of the conditions of human society in the past, and fails in his effort to avoid fanciful representations of the future. Each of the articles shows distinctly the mark of the writer's nationality, but the firm belief in an early triumph of the cause is a characteristic common to all three. The same number of the magazine contains the first of a series of letters on modern Rome by D. P. Fischer, favorably known by his 'Betrachtungen eines in Deutschland reisenden Deutschen.'

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for January opens with an account, by Lieut.-Col. Wells, of an exploring expedition in northern Persia, in which the neglected condition of a naturally rich country is emphasized. This is followed by the papers read at the Toronto meeting of the British Association by F. H. Newell on the hydrography of the United States, and by Prof. W. M. Davis on geography as a university subject. Mr. G. F. Scott Elliot treats instructively of the factors which determine the possibility of the successful cultivation of economic plants in the tropics.

Two recent lion-hunting expeditions in British Somaliland are described in the January *Geographical Journal*, though much more attention is given to an account of the country and its inhabitants than to sport. The ruins of a Galla city of unknown antiquity was found in the centre of the waterless Haud desert, containing fragments of glass, pottery, Oriental china, iron, silver, and bronze rings. It is noteworthy that "the country not only pays for its government, but there is always a small surplus," and "it is one of the few remaining places where, in a healthy and bracing climate, our young men may learn to face their lion and obtain that coolness of judgment only to be acquired in the chase of big game." Among the other contents of this number is an interesting address on the field of geography, by Sir C. Markham, and a review of geographical research in the United States by M. Baker.

The principal articles in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number twelve, are on the specific gravity of the water of the Northern Pacific in connection with the temperature and the currents, by A. Lindenkohl, and the conclusion of R. Oberhummer's narrative of his recent journey in Asia Minor. There is also the usual classified index of the geographical literature for the year 1897, from which it appears that the number of works important enough to be noticed is 736, or 65 less than in 1896, and 134 less than in 1895. There are 191 works on Europe, 21 on the United States. A supplemental number (123) is concerned with the determination of the geographical position of places without the aid of astronomical instruments, as set forth by Dr. Paul Harzer.

A correspondent of the London *Times*, in describing a journey from Massowah to Kassala, gives an unexpectedly favorable account of the Italian province of Eritrea. The port, "undoubtedly the pleasantest place on the Red Sea," has broad quays, handsome barracks, hospitals, and other public buildings, together with numerous large warehouses belonging to Italian, Greek, Arab, and Indian merchants. A railroad has been built seventeen miles into the interior, and from its terminus there is an excellent cart-road nearly to the western frontier. The military stations and settlements consist of substantial stone or brick houses, with tiled roofs, and canteens where the traveller found comfortable lodging and a good meal. Beyond the barren coast-plains is a fertile country in which were large fields of barley and great numbers of well-favored cattle, camels, and goats. Of Kassala, once a prosperous city of 40,000 inhabitants, the dervishes have left "only ruined walls and deserted jungle-overgrown streets, which are still strewn with the bones of the massacred citizens and garrison." Singularly, the only building of consequence remaining whole is a cotton factory erected at the time of the Egyptian occupation. A new town of straw huts and a few brick warehouses has sprung up around the fort. The surrounding plain is exceedingly fertile and shows abundant signs, in irrigating dams miles in length and countless wells, of former careful cultivation. Once secured from dervish raids, it will doubtless again produce large crops of cotton, sugar, tobacco, coffee, and dhurra.

The January Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund contains a suggestive paper, by Dr. C. Schick, on the position of the "nameless city," or Ramah, the home of the prophet Samuel. Contrary to the opinion of most authorities, who have placed it upon one of the heights a few miles to the north of Jerusalem, he believes that a hill between Bethlehem and Hebron corresponds better to the obscure indications of the Bible narrative. Among the other contents are an article by Prof. Clermont-Ganneau on the taking of Jerusalem by the Persians, A. D. 614, and notes upon recently found inscriptions.

In the Consular Reports for January it is said that an average of about 3,000 men are employed on the Panama Canal, which is practically "finished from Colon to Bujeo, fourteen miles," "the least expensive part

of the canal." The return of more than 500 laborers to the Congo was not preparatory to an abandonment of the work; the fact is, that they were found to be unsuitable. Progress in China is indicated by an account of the establishment of an electric-light plant in the capital of Hunan, "the most exclusive and hostile province in China, where, a few years since, the people refused to allow telegraph poles to be erected, and where the missionaries have always met with ill treatment."

—A correspondent writes:

"It seems strange—as I must conclude from your remark on page 74—that Jan ten Brink's masterly sketches of Dutch Indian life have remained unknown in this country. It would be hard to find in the whole range of modern literature anything to compare in vividness of portraiture with his 'Oost-Indische Dames en Heeren'—a few *praktische Menschen* with millions of oppressed natives behind them and the rich tropical nature as a background; a young man or a governess from the mother country stranded on Java's shores and pitted against purse-proud coffee barons and sugar lords who pretend to despise them, yet are willing to marry their daughters and sons to them as if conscious of their own inferiority. But the true champion of the natives was Edward Dekker (pseudonym, Multatuli), whose novel 'Max Havelaar' was translated into English a long time ago."

—The editor of the Jesuit Relations (Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Co.) shows a wish of overtaking that part of his scheme which secures to subscribers their stated instalments, by issuing volumes xi. and xii. at the same time. This practically completes the quota due for the first thirteen months, and offers a favorable contrast to the remissness often shown by the publishers of long series; *e. g.*, Mr. Grosart and his Shaksperian reprints. There is a fitness in the simultaneous issue of these parts, arising from the fact that together they make up one distinct portion of the annual report for 1637. In volume xi. two short and somewhat perfunctory letters of Brébeuf to Vitelleschi, the general of the order, are followed by the beginning of Le Jeune's budget for the year. The connection between the eastern and western centres of the mission field is becoming closer and closer; the route no longer leads through a *terra incognita;* and the establishment of a Huron Seminary at Quebec shows that the savages are beginning to give some pledge of their conversion. One passes rapidly over the compliments paid to Montmagny, Champlain's successor, the thanks returned for aid and prayers of friends at home, and all the little flourishes which may be considered as modest advertisements. Neither is there much in the doings of the French colonists to detain one, apart from a great celebration of St. Joseph's Day, when a quantity of fireworks were sent off in honor of the "Father, Patron, and Protector of New France." Turning to the savages, we find that the sorcerers keep a strong hold upon Le Jeune's interest, although he has written a good deal about them before. Of far greater moment, in view of Jesuit methods and success in teaching, is the account given of the way in which the little Montagnais and Algonquins are taken in hand. In the chapel, boys are placed on one side and girls on the other. French children are interspersed with the young savages, that the latter may learn proper behavior from them. Small presents are added, and it is found that the barbarians, if caught in time, are not above being captured by the novelty of their employments. The girls are "sans comparison plus faciles de retenir que les petits garçons."

—Volume xii. continues this same subject of education into a higher grade. At the instance of the Provincial, Le Jeune had founded a seminary, and Brébeuf was instructed to find raw material among the Hurons. A dozen fine lads were selected and prepared to send down the river in charge of Father Antoine Daniel. Unfortunately, at the moment of parting, the strain upon affection was too great, and eleven of them deserted, leaving only a devotee, Satouta, who professed a willingness to follow the black gown even if it led him to France. However, when the fur fleet reached Three Rivers, the Hurons were so convinced of the advantages offered that half-a-dozen children were forthcoming, and in the end the missionaries found in their charge all they could feed. Moreover, they had to furnish complete outfits of new clothes, as the parents expected to take back with them the garments which had been worn by their sons on the way down. Calamities followed. One boy became homesick and insisted on returning; another, after engaging in a boxing bout with one of the French, died, rather from over-eating, it is explained, than from any blows he received. Worse still, Satouta, a model of humility and patience, was seized with a slow fever. "On le fait purger et seigner, on apporte toute sorte de diligence pour luy sauuer la vie; mais nostre Seigneur leur voulant avoir, on lui confera le Sainct Baptesme, qui lui donna bien tost l'entree dedans le ciel." Poor boy, the least they could do after such treatment was to assoil him! In a word, the mortality was such that Le Jeune's only consolation was the docility of the remainder. What pleased him most was their own desire to clear some land, sow it, and build a hut for themselves, after the fashion they had learned in their own country. The most exciting incident of the year was the appearance on August 6 of an Iroquois band before Three Rivers. They were after the Hurons, and on learning that Montmagny had sent to Quebec for reinforcements, they retired; but for the moment we may well believe Le Jeune's protestation: "Vous pouuez bien penser que nous faisions bon guet."

—One of the most satisfactory of recent books is Mr. Thomas Hutchinson's reprint of Wordsworth's 'Poems in Two Volumes' (London: David Nutt). The reprint follows the original edition of 1807 page for page, and line for line, and appears to be as near perfection, in both accuracy and good looks, as can be expected of finite printers and proof-readers. The editing is simply admirable. Mr. Hutchinson, probably the best Wordsworthian alive, has contributed an elaborate introduction, which is both learned and readable, a brief essay on Wordsworth's sonnets, especially from the technical point of view, and a valuable body of notes. In the introduction and notes, Mr. Hutchinson lays particular stress on Wordsworth's constant alterations in his verses, and discusses, with keen discrimination, the significance of these changes, as well as their felicity. The reaction in the poet's style from the excessive and studied simplicity in which he sought to exemplify the canons of his famous "Preface," to conventionality and occasional grandiloquence, is well brought out in Mr. Hutchinson's remarks. He also traces, in an illuminating way, the gradual and by no means uniform success of the poet in restoring his lines, thus tampered with, to strength and vigor. One proposition the editor maintains with triumphant cogency: however distasteful adverse criticism was to Wordsworth, he gave careful heed to it, and showed the same disposition to profit by its strictures which afterwards distinguished Tennyson. We do not see, however, that this demonstration entirely overthrows the truth of Hazlitt's well-known remark, which Mr. Hutchinson, with an intemperance of phrase which is almost the only fault we have observed in his work, calls "an idle and outrageous slander." It is one thing to profit by minute and even carping criticism, another thing to accept it with equanimity. In closing, we may point out two matters of detail—the misprint *Schiffer* for *Schipper* at p. xxxvii, which is amusingly confirmatory of Mr. Hutchinson's declaration that he owes nothing to the 'Grundriss der Englischen Metrik'; and the hazardous conjecture about *Binnorie* (i. 174-5).

—One of the members of the late Royal Commission on the Depression of Agriculture, Mr. Francis Allston Channing, has been moved to publish his views of the evidence taken before the commission, which differ from those of the majority of its members, under the title 'The Truth about Agricultural Depression' (Longmans, Green & Co.). Speaking broadly, we may say that the increase in British manufactures and the growth of population created a demand for food, half a century ago, which resulted in high rents. The development of transportation after a time made available very extensive new sources of food, which therefore became cheaper in England, and for the last twenty years rents have fallen. The process has been a painful one. Theoretically, it should have been painful only to landlords, the tenant securing the ordinary profit and rendering the surplus as rent. Practically, while the process has been grievous for landlords, it has been perhaps still more so for tenants. Owing partly to their stupidity, partly to that of their landlords, Mr. Channing contends that reductions in rent have been made too late and have not gone far enough. In his view, the farming lands of England are rack-rented just as they used to be in Ireland, and land courts should be established for the purpose of securing the value of his improvements to the outgoing tenant. The impression made upon us by a cursory examination of the testimony cited by Mr. Channing is that the relations of landlord and tenant will adjust themselves without legislative interference; but he has made an interesting argument, and his facts throw much light on the causes which have made English farmers at once so progressive and so backward.

—Prof. Jules Nicole of the University of Geneva has had the good luck lately to detect in a fragmentary papyrus about 100 lines of one of Menander's plays, the "Georgos," or Farmer. He has edited and interpreted this fragment in a pamphlet entitled 'Le Laboureur de Ménandre' (Geneva: Georg & Cie.). The papyrus professes to come from Abydos—a profession which means very little—and the handwriting dates from about the second century A. D. There

is no doubt at all that the lines belong to the play above named, because, by a singular accident, they exhibit two passages already known and quoted by Stobæus and Zonaras. Meagre as these fragments are, and tantalizing as are the lacunæ, M. Nicole congratulates himself on offering a larger specimen, by sixty lines, than any we possess of the hundred plays or more written by that elegant fop and man of pleasure, who died at Shakspere's age and was the precursor in wit and genius of Molière. Several of the plays of Terence, of course, give us some idea, under a Latin veil, of what these qualities were; but from this fragment we can even catch some slight whiff of his dramatic flavor and his vivacity, better than from the many isolated maxims and epigrams that have been handed down to us. Just at a critical point in the dialogue, the text offers an unlucky gap of a few lines which must contain the *nodus* of the plot; but, in spite of this, M. Nicole has been able to name the chief characters, and to work out a plausible reconstruction of the plot, by the help of one of the so-called "Rustic Letters" of Aelian.

—It is, as usual, a love intrigue. The farmer's son, aided by his mother, and favored by his father's illness and absence in the country, substitutes the girl of his choice for the bride *Chresippus* had designed for him. The way for a reconciliation is paved by the filial care which *Cleænetus* had bestowed on his purblind father, after an accident he had sustained in cultivating his vineyard. The line which describes the farmer's mishap had already been divined by Kock with more daring than exactness from a passage in one of Aelian's letters. Apropos of this conjecture, M. Nicole calls attention to the fact that we cannot depend on rhetoricians like Alciphron and Aristænetus for the *ipsissima verba* of the authors from whom they served up their literary ragouts. He detects also an interesting divergence between the papyrus and the Florilegium in the wording of the following characteristic passage. The slave *Davus*, who belongs to the under plot, exclaims ironically as he appears laden with flowers and plants from his master's "pious" farm, to serve for the wedding, "You can't find a more pious and righteous piece of land. It bears all the plants which the gods love—myrtle, laurel, and all these flowers here [a left-handed compliment], and it gives you back exactly what you plant in it —not a grain more"—an idea which became proverbial, and which Menander himself borrowed from the 'Cyropædia.' It is clear from the discussion that he varied this expression, perhaps in a second edition, and that the papyrus offers the earlier form of Menander's borrowed thought.

THE ART OF WILLIAM MORRIS.

The Art of William Morris: A Record. By Aymer Vallance. With reproductions from Designs and Fabrics printed in the colours of the originals; examples of the Type and Ornaments used at the Kelmscott Press, and many other illustrations; also, a classified Bibliography by Temple Scott. London: Printed at the Chiswick Press and published by George Bell & Sons; New York: Scribners.

This is a folio with pages eleven by fifteen inches, printed throughout in a very beautiful full-face letter, not wholly unlike the "Golden" type designed by William Morris for the publications of the Kelmscott Press and first used in 'The Golden Legend,' issued in 1892. The printed page, with its broad margin unbroken by running-title or other invading line of type, and the page number put at the foot of the page and close to the solid matter, has a singularly rich and decorative look. The cover is of white and blue linen, of an aspect not unfamiliar to those who have handled the publications of the Kelmscott Press in their covers of white and blue paper. The title-page is printed solid and without display or supposed picturesque arrangement, but is much diversified by the use of red and black ink. The illustrations are numerous and important. There is a photogravure portrait of William Morris, mounted by the corners and accompanied by a facsimile of his signature, thus serving as a frontispiece. There are six full-page reproductions in black and white of decorative windows designed by Burne-Jones, Rossetti, and Morris himself, executed by the firm of Morris & Company; and also two or three black-and-white reproductions of cartoons. A great number of woodcuts are in the text, from drawings by H. P. Clifford, R. J. Williams, C. M. Gere, and E. H. New. There are, also, in chapter viii., ten illustrations produced by printing directly from the blocks made for books issued by the Kelmscott Press. These are title-pages, as for Morris's 'Poems by the Way,' 'Godefrey of Boloyne,' and others, two pages of the great 'Chaucer,' chosen for their elaborate borders, their title-pages and initials and press-marks. At the close of the book are forty full-page prints in color, reproducing wall-papers, silks, carpets, tapestries, and tiles, nearly always the designs of Morris himself. The whole book, except the colored plates, is printed on hand-made paper, thick, and resembling nothing so much as Whatman drawing-paper of the good old kind. Every sheet is of the full size of the book, so as to have a natural deckle edge.

We insist upon the splendor and richness of aspect of this volume because Morris himself had so strong a feeling for the beauty of the printed book; he desired so strenuously the making of books beautiful to see and pleasant to hold, and worked so energetically to bring that result about. The volume before us has its illustrations where they are required, and of set purpose has no illustrations at all in a chapter that needs none, and a crowd of them where the text requires their presence. The irritating system of adorning a book for the popular eye by scattering its illustrations through it, and leaving the reader to undertake a chase for the one the text requires him to consult, is a thing that neither Morris nor the biographer of his art, Mr. Vallance, would endure for a moment.

Continuing, however, this discussion of the decorative character of the book, the question arises at once as to the merit of the designs. The woodcuts, which have been already named as being from drawings by Mr. Clifford and Mr. Williams, are in the spirit of that work which Morris most admired; that is to say, they are conceived in the spirit of fifteenth-century wood-engraving. Mr. Clifford's sense of landscape is very refined; there is something remarkably delicate in his tree-drawing. Mr. Williams seems to have enjoyed himself most in the drawings of the attics of Kelmscott Manor, on page 118; but it is noticeable that most of the architectural drawings have been intrusted to him. Another artist, Mr. E. H. New, has furnished the drawing on page 114, showing Kelmscott Manor from the meadow at the back, and C. M. Gere drew that picture of the front of Kelmscott Manor which was used as a frontispiece to 'News from Nowhere,' and which is reprinted here on page 111. It is difficult to explain the extreme dissatisfaction which one feels with these cuts, so well intended to be artistic in their signification and so unsuccessful in effect. They are not lovely to look at; they do not explain what they are intended to set forth; their only excellence (and we admit the importance of this) is in their fitting the printed page well and combining perfectly with the letter-press. Let full credit be given them for that virtue, for they have no other deserving much comment, and in this they are in a sense expressive of all the display of William Morris's art made by this splendid book, and, moreover, of all of his art which comes in the way of persons who, without being in his immediate circle of admirers, yet watch for the finer developments of modern English design. It is all so full of energy, enthusiasm, and high thoughts; and it is all so unsatisfactory! Is there one page in all the long array of Kelmscott books —is there a single page which satisfies the eye of the book-lover as does one page of even an inferior Book of Hours? Is there one border which is really well designed for its place? Is there one initial letter which the skilled designer could not improve? Is there a woodcut anywhere which can bear comparison for artistic merit with the Italian broad-lined wood-engravings published just before and soon after the year 1500? Unquestionably the books are attractive to persons who have to handle the ordinary modern book, even in its less offensive forms; but, considering their very high cost and the elaborate thought and care which went to their preparation, is there one which is not a great disappointment? Can there be found anything which is less worthy its immense cost than the great 'Chaucer' of 1896—that magnificent book in which it is deliberately undertaken to set forth in a worthy form a perfectly well edited edition of the great poet's works? That splendid volume, printed entirely in the larger of Morris's two mediæval fonts of type, "the Chaucer type," with many woodcuts from drawings by Burne-Jones and with elaborate initials and borders designed by Morris himself, was intended, as it seems, to be the culminating volume, and to show well what the Kelmscott Press could do. Yet, even to those who felt less than perfect satisfaction with the smaller books issued by the Kelmscott Press, it must have been a shock to find that the large folio was in no way better or more beautiful than the books which are of small octavo size, though really quartos. The great 'Chaucer' was in every way less satisfactory than they, apparently because there was more room in which to show the essentially inartistic character of the guiding intelligence. Good design is a thing apart; artistic ability is a thing apart. Each of them is as different as possible from the ambition to produce artistic work, the love of it and the desire to make it more abundant and accessible.

The reader must understand that the respect which the thoughtful man must feel

for Morris's devotion, his single-mindedness, and his prodigious energy is in no way diminished by the limited admiration which should be given to his designs. There was nothing in his surroundings, either considered as an Englishman or as a man of the nineteenth century, to make him a master of decorative design. There were no traditions existing in which he could grow up; he was compelled to create them for himself by deliberate transference of himself in spirit to another age. It is not safe to assert that a very able designer—a man who was, as such a designer must be, an artist—would have been unable thus to transfer himself into a previous epoch and to devote his life to the reconstitution of a bygone time; but it is probable that a natural designer would have acted along the lines of least resistance, and would have used less of his precious vital energy in discovering how men thought and designed in the fifteenth century. Granted, as it must be granted, that the spirit of decorative art had gone out of the world, and that Morris was impatient to revive it, it is the act of the theorist, and not of the artist, to set himself to an intellectual reconstitution of the art of another time. The artist takes, rather, the artistic thought of his own time, and modifies it insensibly. If such an artist feels strongly the desire for decoration, as decoration was understood in the fifteenth century, he tries to bend in that direction the modern ways of drawing and of composition in color and in form. He fails, of course, in much that he undertakes; but so does Morris fail. The only question is how far the striving and the failure of each contribute to the hoped-for recurrence of the time in which decorative design may be easy and natural once more. For this we cannot but think that the production of the best art is the best thing; and assuredly a life of such devotion and such tireless energy as that of Morris, spent upon the production of noble designs without much thought about the difficulties which surround the designer in the nineteenth century, would have produced a greater body of good art than that which Morris has left.

The marvel is, indeed, that anybody who loves early books should care much for the Kelmscott books. When one opens a simple volume of prose, like the very first issue of the Kelmscott Press, 'The Story of the Glittering Plain,' and looks at two open pages without any initial or border whatever, he finds what is certainly a comely piece of printing; and the rough, unpressed paper and broad and well-proportioned margin are delightful. This, however, is of the very simplest. Nothing but a little good taste and the calling of the printer's attention under the guidance of such good taste is needed for so much success as that. The initial, too, when one turns over a page and finds the beginning of a chapter, is attractive enough; too large sometimes, and perhaps, as a matter of taste, out of keeping, in that the letter is white on a black ground, so contradicting the black-and-white scheme of the letter-press, though this is characteristic of many of the old books. Here, still, is a page comely enough, though not so pleasing as the unadorned one. There is one border, that surrounding the initial page, which also contains the title, and it is not ill designed. The scroll work, indeed, is too rounded and flowing; it is not in the severer taste of the early Renaissance; it takes its curls and rolls rather from Roman than from mediæval art; it is unnecessarily complex, and might be much more decorative with one-third the number of lines. After all, 'The Glittering Plain' is a beautiful little book, and when that one book was put into the hands of the amateur, he had cause to rejoice. Since that time many books of the same size have been issued, some larger, and a few much larger and more splendid, and these diminish definitely in their artistic value as they grow more stately, while, at the same time, it appears that the one artistic thought which the designer had ready for use in the composition of borders was used up in the first border and in the first volume, and has not sufficed for further development of the theme.

The difficulty with Morris's design may well have been that he had almost no power over the human figure. His drawings of the human figure are extremely inadequate. No doubt they are generally decorative in their intention, but it takes a man of profound knowledge to create a conventionalized design founded upon anything so subtle as the human figure. Morris's figures as we find them in the double plate at page 100, which reproduces a cartoon for wall decoration, do not stand upon their feet. Their drapery does not clothe bodies. Their heads are not well attached, and their arms and hands are not well posed. Those who have bought the figure-painted tiles of Morris & Co., which, in former times, were obtainable in New York and in London, know well what is meant by the complete failure to represent the nude figure in outline drawing for decorative purposes. It is very odd to find Morris's opinions on Japanese and Chinese art summed up as they are on page 78 in this, that those artists of the Far East produce nothing but pretty toys because they have no architecture behind them. When this opinion was formed, nothing was known in Europe of Chinese painting nor of Japanese painting, which reflects the splendid earlier work of the older and larger country. But still, a little insight might have shown the critic that the power of making pretty toys did not prove the non-existence of architectonics in their greater designs. If the same criticism is transferred to Morris himself, and it be alleged that he could draw nothing thoroughly well, and that he could design nothing thoroughly well because he did not understand the human figure rightly, the criticism would run this chance only of being unjust—namely, that there exists somewhere figure drawing of his which is not inadequate.

Returning now to Mr. Vallance's book, it must be stated that, although it professes to deal with Morris's art and not with his life or literary works (unless, indeed, his poems are considered as a part of his "art"), the whole account of his life and his many labors is well arranged in eight chapters, followed by a very full bibliography. Chapter i. is entitled "The Beginning of Days"; chapter ii., "Oxford to London." Chapter v. is devoted to the business enterprise, and contains an interesting account of the firm of Morris, Marshall, Faulkner & Co. in 1861, and the transference of the firm's business to Morris & Co. at a later time. Chapter vii. is devoted to societies, and here one would expect to find a good deal about Morris's socialistic labors, but they are treated slightly and by allusion alone. Chapter viii. is, as we have said, devoted to book illustration and the Kelmscott Press. The book is very interesting reading and will not take any one long to read, in view of the fact that there are only 166 pages of large print, and that even these pages are invaded by many woodcuts.

Morris's life, his poetry, and his socialistic labors are treated much more fully in another book by the same author. The preface to the 'Art of William Morris' is dated February, 1897, and the preface to the fuller but less pretentious volume is dated in August of the same year. The volume which we are reviewing is expressly devoted to the arts of decorative design as practised by William Morris and as taught by him to his employees and disciples.

MRS. BROWNING'S LETTERS.

The Letters of Elizabeth Barrett Browning, edited, with biographical additions, by Frederick G. Kenyon. With portraits. In two volumes. The Macmillan Company. 1897.

The editor of these volumes is, presumably, a son of Mr. John Kenyon, a distant cousin of Mrs. Browning, to whom many of her best letters were written, who was ever her most loyal friend, and who, at his death, made her and her husband a gift of £10,000. The editorial work is done admirably. The "biographical additions" do something more than connect the letters and give the circumstances out of which they rose. There are critical suggestions here and there which show that, if Mr. Kenyon had chosen to write a critical biography of Mrs. Browning, he might easily have done so. No one since Mrs. Browning's death has done her such a good service as the editor of these letters. They make a very different impression from her long since published letters to R. H. Horne, which were nothing if not narrowly intellectual and pedantic. Mr. Kenyon says: "It is essentially her character, not her genius, that is presented to the reader in these letters." But it is her intellectual character equally with her moral, and this, if not essential to her genius, is to that allied. It is her character as a poet; it shows her relation to her work, and proves it to have been very different from that commonly imagined—different and much more creditable. She wrote in 1844, "If I fail before the public—that is, before the people (for an ephemeral popularity does not appear to me worth trying for)—it will not be because I have shrunk from the amount of labor where labor could do anything. I have worked at poetry; it has not been with me reverie, but art." There is abundant evidence of the truth of this declaration in dozens of these letters, in which we have her judgment returning on her work. Much that has been set down as carelessness was evidently deliberate, though it may have been mistaken. She had correspondents of rare intelligence and culture, and they dealt honestly with her. She was always grateful for their criticism, and sometimes adopted it. When she did not, she reasoned quietly and effectively in self-defence. The total impression is of a woman much less romantic, much less exclusively emotional than she has been imagined heretofore. Her letters are predominantly intellectual and habitually quiet and restrained.

Their revelation of her moral character

is extremely satisfactory. Mr. Kenyon has noted the entire absence of bitterness or personal ill-feeling of any kind, and has forestalled the suspicion that this absence is due, in the letters, as printed, to editorial excision, assuring us that such is not the case. It must be confessed that she hit back with some asperity at those who were severe on her defence of Louis Napoleon. But one of the surprises of her letters is the forensic skill with which she argued that defence. Where she had most reason to be bitter she was wonderfully sweet and kind. This was in the particular of her father's treatment of her marriage. She tells the story, and reviews the situation in one of her longest letters in the book, a letter remarkable for its simple common sense. Returning to England five years after her marriage, both she and her husband wrote to her father begging him to see her and kiss her child. In the meantime he had answered none of her letters, and he now returned them all unopened, some of them bordered with black that must have suggested to him that her husband or her child was dead. He treated another daughter and a son in the same brutal fashion, and the most charitable explanation of his conduct is that his sense of ownership in his children went to the verge of monomania. Mr. Kenyon has avoided an excessive intimacy in this as in other aspects of Mrs. Browning's life. He has been commendably considerate in his abridgment of "the mother's rapture" over her only child, but has given us enough to assure us that her satisfaction in her motherhood was very great. He has been more prodigal with her various emotions on account of her dog Flush. But as the pet did more than anything else to excite her defective sense of humor, the excess is readily forgiven. At another point where we seem to have deliberate reticence, Mr. Kenyon assures us that he has concealed nothing. We refer to her interest in spiritualism, which has often been represented as marring the perfection of the mutual love of the two poets. Those who delight in all such representations will find nothing for their comfort here. If there was ever any alienation it does not cast the slightest shadow on her letters, and she wrote so frankly that it would certainly have done so if there had been anything of the kind.

The date of Mrs. Browning's birth, which has been much disputed, is definitely fixed as March 6, 1806. In her sixteenth year she "nearly died" from an injury to her spine, caused by over-exertion in tightening her pony's girth. Five years before, she had written her first epic, "The Battle of Marathon," which was privately printed by her father, who was very proud of her precocity. He also printed her "Essay on Mind," a didactic poem, written when she was seventeen. Her translation of "Prometheus Bound" was actually published in 1833, but anonymously. In 1845 the translation was carefully revised, but some literary resurrectionist has recently unearthed and republished the translation of 1833, of which she was soon heartily ashamed. The true beginning of her literary career was in 1836, when she published, in *Colburn's New Monthly*, "The Romaunt of Margret." In 1838 she published her first acknowledged volume, 'The Seraphim, and Other Poems,' which profited by a decided lull in poetical production at that time, and was received by some of the critics "with more than civility, with genuine cordiality." But the ambitious initial poem met with little favor in comparison with the minor poems. This experience was repeated when she published a collection of her poems in two volumes in 1844. Whereas she relied mainly on "The Drama of Exile" to float the venture, it went nigh to sinking it. The circumstances of its appearance were very different from those attending the volume of 1838. Tennyson had published his two significant volumes only two years before, and Browning the 'Bells and Pomegranates' series. Not only did she bear the competition well, but her reputation from this time grew apace, so that when, at Wordsworth's death in 1850, the *Athenæum* named her for the laureateship, there was no one to denounce the nomination as pretentious or absurd. That no one thought of naming Robert Browning indicates that she was then much the more famous poet of the two, and she remained so for the next dozen years. Indeed, in the early sixties Browning was getting so little encouragement to write poetry that he turned to modelling in clay, and found such pleasure in it that he began to fancy that his occupation as a poet was gone for ever.

It is therefore the more strange that, for the majority of readers, the principal interest of these volumes will consist in the light they throw on Robert Browning's character and career. There is not so much as could be wished about the genesis and exodus of his various poems; but there is enough in a general way to elicit profound gratitude. Nothing touches him here which does not beautify him in a large and noble way. The early forties were for Miss Barrett years of sickness and utter social isolation, and of these things there is much painful reflection in her letters. But gradually these assured her a spiritual companionship that compensated her in part for the loss of every social pleasure. To the number of her correspondents she added Robert Browning in 1845, when she writes, in January, "I had a letter from Browning the poet last night, which threw me into ecstasies—Browning, the author of 'Paracelsus' and King of the Mystics." "The rest is silence," some one having torn off the remainder of the letter. Her comments on him before this are full of interest. In 1843 she declares herself very sensitive to the thousand and one stripes the critics have laid upon him. Yet, from time to time, she made her own criticism upon his methods, writing in 1845, after her acquaintance with him had begun and was rapidly advancing, "He cuts his language into bits, and one has to join them together, as young children do their dissected maps, in order to make any meaning at all, and to study hard before one can do it." In May they met for the first time, and acquaintance soon flowered into friendship and ripened into love. Strangely enough, Mr. Barrett interposed no objection to attentions which could have but one natural sequel. The two were clandestinely married September 12, 1846, in Marylebone Church—not in St. Pancras, as Mrs. Sutherland Orr wrote in her Life of Browning; and on September 19

"Those lovers fled away into the storm."

Into the sunshine rather, of both Italy and their perfect mutual love, "the most perfect example of wedded love in the history of literature—perfect in its inner life and in its poetical expression." Such is Mr. Kenyon's estimate, and in these pages there is much to confirm it and nothing of an opposing character. Browning's letter telling the manner of her death, June 19, 1861, is as beautiful as any poem that he ever wrote. Leaving Florence shortly after her death, he could never muster courage to go back.

If the interest of these volumes reaches its climax in the first, where Mrs. Browning invites her father's curse, all the succeeding parts abound in glimpses of persons, judgments of men and books, political ardors, and personal relations, that maintain an average interest much higher than that of the early letters. Catholic in her friendships, Mrs. Browning was not less so in her admiration of other poets. Hardly could two persons have been more different than she and Harriet Martineau, whom she describes as "the most manlike woman in the three kingdoms," and yet their friendship was superior to all perturbations. For Tennyson she had the most loyal affection, though she wrote of him before "In Memoriam" as "not yet a Christian," and that monody could not have satisfied her altogether. As for herself, she was between two fires—on the one hand, the orthodox complaining of her heresies; on the other, the editors begging her to observe a stricter parsimony in her allusions to religious matters. Quite the most charming incident in the book is that of Tennyson's reading "Maud" from end to end in the Brownings' London lodgings, and stopping every now and then with "There's a wonderful touch!" "How beautiful that is!" Mrs. Browning had correspondents who invited her most personal as well as her most intellectual and æsthetic expression, so that we are enabled as never before to conceive of her character in its entirety; and there is nothing in the conception which does not enhance our sympathy with her aspirations as a poet and our admiration for her conduct of her life in every personal way.

Korea and her Neighbors. By Isabella Bird Bishop. Fleming H. Revell Co.

The courage of Mrs. Bishop is of a very high order. It may not be true, as the gossips say, that she never hesitated to go even where it was not safe to take a husband, in order to gain information, yet the nerve and grit she has shown in exploring Yezo, interior Persia and Turkestan, China and Mantchuria, and now the rarely visited portions of Korea, are those which we associate with men rather than with women. Armed with a photographic camera and tripod—largely useful at night as a rat-proof clothes and shoe "horse"—and plenty of oiled paper (more potent than the powder of Dalmatia), she has seen often and thoroughly the Korean house, and knows the country with more practical thoroughness than any alien except the French Catholic missionaries and a few hardy male travellers. In 1894 she was turned back from her explorations by the Chino-Japanese war, but she returned and succeeded in visiting the three seaports open to foreigners, in ascending the Han River, and in making several overland excursions. These were from Seoul to Won-San and southwestwardly to Yong-Chon, northward to near the fortieth parallel, and westwardly through the Ta-Tong valley. She also travelled in northern and western China and in Primorsk, or the maritime province of Siberia. She thus saw the

neighbors of Korea, besides many of the white-coated and hunger-driven natives who have emigrated, there being probably at least twenty thousand Koreans in the Tsar's domain, and possibly as many in the China province of Shing-King.

No other book on Korea is so satisfying in its presentation of the facts of nature and man in Korea as they are to-day. This is not a work of history, but of travel and observation; yet, in its discussions of the forces and environment which have made the native what he is, it is thorough and illuminating. Mrs. Bishop confirms what the best observers have been unanimous in declaring, that in few countries on earth are the natural conditions better for the development of humanity, while in none that claims to be civilized is the government worse. Four-fifths of the people are preyed upon by the official class. It is no benefit to a man to accumulate property or even to be industrious. On the contrary, life appears to be much more worth living when one is poor, and sows no more seed, gathers no more grain, gold, or ginseng than is absolutely necessary. Whatever wealth there may be has to exist, like that of the Jews in mediæval Europe, disguised under a protective mask of outward poverty, for any saving up of resources means a visit from the *yang-ban*, or privileged classes, with forced loans which are never recovered in interest or principal. Mrs. Bishop's first impressions of the Koreans were that they were the mere dregs of a race; but when she saw the prosperity and cheerfulness of those under Russian rule, she changed her opinions. In the end she became highly interested in them as a hopeful people.

The new order of things, foreign pressure, the stimulus of commerce, the entrance of the railway and posts are gradually breaking up the old world of Korean society and politics, which has been already powerfully modified for the better. The filth and squalor of the average Korean houses and streets are almost past belief when we consider that these peninsulars have had writings and etiquette for a millennium and a half, and a superb alphabet of native invention for at least five hundred years. Nevertheless, out of these houses come fine looking men in snow-white or glossy garments of many tints, for the native woman lives as a slave to wash and starch for her husband. As laundry maids the Korean women lead the world.

Hitherto, money in the national Treasury has been like cleanliness in the poor people's houses, conspicuous by its absence. Now, however, the customs service at the treaty ports has given the national finances a backbone, and along with pecuniary improvements have come reforms in the virtue which is next to godliness. Under the chief Commissioner of Customs, J. McLeavy Brown, LL.D., Korea not only discharged her debts last year, but was able to pay a million dollars of the indemnity which she owed Japan for the murder of her citizens in one of the numerous revolutions in 1896. Under his energetic ministration, backed by the Governor of Seoul, Ye Cha Yun, formerly of the Korean Legation in Washington, the royal city has been changed from the similitude of a pigsty; the original width of the broad streets, laid out in 1392, has been won back from rubbish heaps, booths, and encroaching houses, and Seoul actually bids fair to become almost as clean as a Japanese city. Under American contractors, a railway is now in advanced course of construction from Chemulpo to Seoul. The beasts of burden—gentle bulls, vicious ponies, and good-natured men and women—that have hitherto done the work of transportation, will soon give way to steam transit. The junks, that seem to be in many a case "a fortuitous concourse of planks," are giving way to ships and steamers on Western models.

Mrs. Bishop, as all readers of her books know, has a fascinating style; she tells of her travels both in Korea and among the Russians with all the arts of rhetoric and the merit of wonderful directness. No book yet printed gives so clear a picture of Russian enterprise at Vladivostok and along the new railway, which brings in a thousand excellent families every year. Her chapter descriptive of the Phyong-Yang (Ping-Yang) battlefield of 1894 is wonderfully vivid, and so also are her word-pictures of the effects of the hair-cropping edict in 1895, and of the murder of the Queen by the brutal Japanese adventurers, who were actually encouraged to their abominable work by the Mikado's envoy, a rough soldier intrusted with the delicate and difficult business of diplomacy. This man illustrated the worst phases of Japanese ring politics. Yet his behavior was only a symptom and outcrop of that "Satsumaism" from which Japan has so long suffered. It was this man's folly that hopelessly discredited Japan in the peninsula, heaped fuel upon the hereditary hatred of the Koreans towards the Japanese, and gave Russia her long-coveted opportunity. Mrs. Bishop's final chapters show the Seoul of 1897, with its hopeful features and the entrance of the Russian military instructors.

Not the least interesting of her paragraphs treat of the work of the American and other missionaries, and of the religions of Korea, which are: dæmonism among the people, discredited and shadowy Buddhism in the mountain monasteries, and Confucianism, of a peculiar phase, among the educated few. In the appendix she shows that Korea is not only a very promising field for the Gospel, but also a steadily enlarging market, the total foreign trade of $2,978,410 in 1336 having increased to $11,266,024 in 1896. Pictures, maps, index, and all that is necessary to equip the book for the student as well as general reader, make this an unusually interesting and valuable work.

Artists and Engravers of British and American Book-Plates: A Book of Reference for Book-Plate and Print Collectors. By Henry W. Fincham. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1897. 4to, pp. 135.

It is a sign of the times that we do our fooling so seriously and gregariously. The number of persons having money to spend, time to waste, and energy to spare without intellect to direct it, is simply immense. Suddenly some one leader arises with an idea, or the simulacrum of one, and forthwith a new fad is launched and a new cult founded. The disciples are many, and, in due succession, clubs, societies, and journals are established.

The above-cited book is the result of the book-plate fad. It is the product of enthusiasm and toil, and must have cost the publishers a pretty penny. Yet it is nothing but a catalogue of the men who engraved book-plates, of their various jobs, and the names of their patrons. Page after page is a reiteration of items like this:

"Lionel Walter Rothschild, C. W. Sherborn, Monogram, 1886."

The description column changes from "monogram" to "pictorial," or "armorial," but the facsimiles are the only definite descriptions.

This particular fad of collecting has no solid foundation. With rare exceptions, book-plates are the poorest forms of the engraver's skill, the pot-boilers of the struggling artist. As works of art they are generally beneath criticism, and the only form of the plates which possesses any value is the armorial one, which is sometimes of service to the genealogist. The pictorial or imaginative forms—at least those executed more than a score of years ago—are as worthless as the cuts which were supposed to ornament the books of the last century. Of course the book-plate of a distinguished man has the same interest which attaches to any other personal relic of him, especially if it be found in a book from his library. But who can care for a poorly designed cut, engraved by a wretched artist, and commemorating some utterly obscure individual?

It is true that of recent years some improvement in the art is apparent. We note, however, that the English designers seem to have divided into two schools. In one, strong effects are sought by the profuse use of a black background, from which conventional foliage or scrollwork stands out in relief. The other school affects a white ground with designs traced in outline, and dependent, therefore, upon good drawing to be endurable. But beyond the technical skill shown, there is little to praise. None of the quaint ingenuity shown in the old books of Emblems or Devices has been recovered. Most of the patrons seem to desire to present their own effigies in uncouth postures, surrounded by volumes which are arranged like bricks in impossible libraries.

But this is a new science, and we have an Ex-Libris Society, and an *Ex-Libris Journal*, and a "greatest collector," and now a prodigious Catalogue. What more is needed to prove that the present age is one that appreciates art, ingenuity, and industry?

English Sanitary Institutions. By Sir John Simon, K.C.B., etc., etc. Second edition. London: Smith, Elder & Co. 1897. 8vo.

Except for the addition of two important appendices, the second edition of this work is, as stated in the preface, "in substance almost textually a reprint" of the first, which appeared in 1890; but to the student of sanitary institutions, in this country as well as elsewhere, the value of the book is even greater now than when it first appeared. It is a work addressed to the laity as well as to the medical profession, for, as the author says, "such art of medicine as it purports to discuss is an art which the laity is now under legal obligation to exercise; and every educated layman is well aware that, in proportion as medicine has become a science, it has ceased to be the mystery of a caste." The importance of the study of sanitary institutions is not likely to be fully apprehended by the layman who, when he thinks of sanitation, generally thinks only of the drainage of his house or the city in which he lives. It is unfortunate that in English the meaning of the word "sanity" has become limit-

ed to health of mind only, for it might well be used in a broader sense to define the general well-being of the individual or of a race; and, with such an extension of meaning, the non-professional reader would recognize the broad import of this book better than by its present title.

Perhaps few people during the Jubilee of the Queen of England last summer were led to reflect that its brilliancy had its main source in the present healthy condition of Great Britain, and to Sir John Simon more than any other living person this glory was due. That London is now one of the healthiest cities in the world, in spite of its enormous population, is largely the result of his work while medical officer of her Majesty's privy council; and although the reforms effected during the thirty years for which he held this office were carried out by the hard work of many able assistants, yet his was the mind which mainly conceived and guided the course of the sanitary improvements which have wrought incalculable benefit to the crowded population of the British isles. Had he remained in office during the last twenty years, in all probability England would have been spared the terrible ravages of epidemics of typhoid fever from which it has but lately suffered, and in respect to sanitary institutions would have been, still more than it is, the example for other countries to follow.

Such improvements as he brought about are often of slow growth, and the originators of them are quickly forgotten, except by the few by whom the memory of the most serviceable helpers of mankind is cherished, as guide and stimulus through life. The author himself, in speaking of the splendid work done by some of his predecessors, says, "Let the noble compensation be noted that often the thoroughness of a reformer's victory is that which most makes silence of the reformer's fame. For how can men be adequately thankful for redemptions when they have no present easy standard, no contrast between yesterday and to-day, by which to measure the greatness of them?" It is pleasant, however, to note that the first Buchanan medal, the funds for which are derived from a bequest by the late Dr. Buchanan, an eminent pupil of Sir John Simon, was but a few weeks since awarded by the Royal Society to Sir John himself, who, as *Nature* states, "may fairly be termed the founder of modern sanitary science."

It is impossible to do justice to Sir John Simon's book in a brief review; it should be read by all interested in improving the external conditions of their own life and that of the general community. The book is divided into four parts: (1) the history of sanitation from the earliest ages down through the Roman Empire to mediæval times; (2) "Post-mediæval England," *i. e.*, legislation under the Tudors, Elizabeth, and the Stuarts; (3) "New Momenta," which brings the reader down to the reign of Queen Victoria; and (4) legislation during her reign up to 1890. To the general reader the first three sections will appeal most strongly, for the last is more technical, and of greater interest to the Englishman than to the foreigner. The chapter entitled "The Growth of Humanity in British Politics," dealing with the eighteenth century, is an important contribution to history. Its closing words are well worth quoting. Sir John Simon believes that

"the period in its entirety deserves to be counted among the greatest in English history. In the cultivation which it gave to a sense of moral responsibility in national affairs; in the splendid instances which it showed of the applicability of common ethical arguments to politics; in the appeals which it made to the consciences of rulers and nations against courses of selfish wrong; in the feeling which it propagated that nations, like persons, if they would not be asbamed of themselves, must obey at home and abroad the common rules of equal justice; not least in the mutual understanding which it promoted between the social instincts and the political philosophy of mankind, it represented such strides of civil culture as no former age of our country had seen—strides of a far truer civilization than any which widened empire, or enhanced luxuries of life, can pretend to show," etc.

This growth of right sentiment made it easier to bring about reforms during the present century, and, great as these have been, there is still much more to do.

The last two chapters deal with the "Politics of Poverty" and contain general broad deductions as to the best means of introducing further improvement and reforms. Coming from the highest authority on these matters, they deserve the serious consideration of all who have to deal with sanitary institutions, not only in England, but in other parts of the world.

The work is that at once of a universally recognized leader in his own profession, and of a man whose large humanity, generous character, and experienced wisdom are apparent throughout his pages, no less than his broad culture, his great store of varied knowledge, and his unusual powers of clear and persuasive expression. He is a master of the English tongue, and the volume may be safely commended to the general reader as of interest alike in its subject and in the mode in which the subject is presented. It is the noble crowning work of a long life spent in the service of mankind.

Founders of Geology. By Sir Archibald Geikie, F.R.S., etc. Macmillan. 1897. Pp. vi, 297.

In this work Sir Archibald Geikie gives the substance of a course of six lectures delivered at Johns Hopkins University in 1896, his excellent purpose being to draw the attention of American students of geology to the achievements of the half-forgotten founders of the science. This limited end is well attained by what the author presents. In a swift and effective way he sets before the reader the character and labors of a dozen or more of the most notable men in this branch of learning, who, in the present and preceding century, have given it its modern shape, while the accomplishments of a score of other less important contributors are lightly but effectively sketched. The work is more than a fresh and attractive presentation of the general facts of geological discovery, such as is given in Lyell's 'Principles' and other histories of the science; it brings into deserved prominence the labors of certain masters whose worth has long been overlooked, and it treats with a just, though drastic, criticism the claims of others who have by chance attained unmerited celebrity.

The most important contribution which Sir Archibald has made to our knowledge of the history which he treats, concerns the life and work of Jean Étienne Guettard (1715-1786), too long unnoted by English geologists. This master was clearly the pioneer in the science and art of interpreting geologic processes by the aspect of the rocks. After the manner of many another able yet half-educated solitary worker, the clumsiness of his statements and their excessive volume served to hide his admirable results from his contemporaries, as well as from his successors, so that his penetration was without much profit to learning. His life is another instance of the fact that greatness of understanding is not of itself a measure of efficiency in a man.

Singularly in contrast with Guettard, who, despite his great ability, failed to impress himself on his age, who, indeed, despite his many volumes, never found a fair chance to be heard, is the history of Werner of Freiberg. Werner's story is, on some accounts, the most curious chapter in the history of learning. He came to his chair of mineralogy, in the mining school of Freiberg, with but a closet preparation and with knowledge limited to what could be gained from the aspect of the mineral species which were then known. His opportunity for acquiring information concerning the face of the earth was insignificant. His travels hardly extended beyond Saxony, and, even in that small kingdom, were of trifling extent. He knew, it may be said, however, the underground revealed by the mines of the Erzegebirge passing well. On this trifling foundation, by the aid of a vigorous but unguided constructive imagination and an extraordinary eloquence, he managed to build a mass of irrational though curiously coherent hypotheses concerning the history of the earth, which attracted universal attention, and served for a generation to stay the progress of sound geological knowledge. Sir Archibald gives some critical inquiry to the remarkable history of Werner and his work. He properly attaches importance to the fact that Werner was the teacher in a technical school where no large criticism could develop itself, and where the tendency of the intellectual life was towards immediate ends.

While much of the amazing success of Wernerism is to be accounted for by the earnestness of the man, which for all its worth barely saved him from being a charlatan, and by the eloquence with which it found expression, the problem of his success remains essentially unsolved. Nearly every part of Werner's theories was set directly against obvious and well-known facts; against the experience of many of the host who came to attend his teaching; and yet they long prevailed. It will not do to attribute, as some have done, the acceptance of the Wernerian hypothesis to certain peculiarities of the Teutonic mind, for he was as successful with French and Swiss, with Scotch and Irish students as with those of his own land.

The 'Founders of Geology' includes only the men who are related to the modern development. Nothing is said of the labors of the ancients, the Greeks, the Arabs, and the Italians of the Renaissance, to whom we, indeed, owe the very foundation of the science. There is much need of a treatise which shall embody the whole history of this branch of learning. It may be hoped that Sir Archibald Geikie, who has so well shown his capacity for the historic view, may take up this subject in its larger aspect.

A History of Christianity in the Apostolic Age. By Arthur Cushman McGiffert,

Ph.D., D.D., Washburn Professor of Church History in the Union Theological Seminary. [International Theological Library.] Scribners. 1897. 8vo, pp. 681.

The subject of this bulky volume has probably never been treated before with equal freedom and freshness by any Christian scholar, unless that title is accorded to Renan; and yet, after reading it, we are obliged to wonder if a good history of the Apostolic age will ever be written by any scholar who has distinctly the theological bias. An anti-theological bias would be equally fatal to the undertaking. The desirable thing is that some scholar of ability, well proved in secular history, who can dig as patiently as Mommsen and write as well as Green, should take up the beginnings of Christianity in the same temper and spirit he has shown in other fields. Dr. McGiffert's theological bias is not particularly strong. On the contrary, for a man in his position, he is free and fair to a degree that must be exceedingly distasteful to those who have been long engaged in hunting down the heresies of Dr. Briggs. It is evident that Dr. Briggs does not monopolize all the aberrations from the traditional standpoint by which the teaching in the Union Theological Seminary has been characterized of late. There are many here as positive as his, while, nevertheless, the whole presentation hovers in a kind of haze engendered by the mingling of the author's critical temper with his desire to save as much as possible of the theological contents of the events which he describes.

He is much better furnished as a critic than as a historian, and he has written mainly a literary history of the early church, a criticism on the early documents. These stand out much more sharply than the persons who were engaged in the great enterprise of giving a new religion to mankind. The studies of the different books of the New Testament, and the conclusions reached, will be of special interest to those who have followed the course of recent discussion concerning the critical opinions of Prof. Harnack. These have been hailed in certain quarters as a virtual abandonment of the results of modern criticism as touching the New Testament. What is true of them is that, in certain particulars, they recede from some of the extreme positions of F. C. Baur and his earlier disciples; but, striking an average, they are still less conservative than the critical opinions of Renan, which laid on him, we need not say, no obligation to accept the traditional theological constructions. Dr. McGiffert informs us that his book was already in press when Prof. Harnack's volume touching the same series of questions as his own appeared, but he is happy to say that he finds himself "in general agreement with Harnack in most of the matters which he touches."

The most notable of these is the chronology of Paul's life and writings. The writings, taking them altogether, are pushed back some ten years from the dates heretofore assigned to them by German, French, and English scholars. Believers in Sienkiewicz's 'Quo Vadis?' will be distressed to find Paul dying in 58 A. D., six years before the Neronian persecution, and Peter visiting Rome for the first time after Paul's death. Neither of Peter's epistles is considered genuine, while four are excluded from the traditional list of Paul's. The Book of Acts is accepted as "based in the main on trustworthy sources," only to be set aside in most of its details. The authorship of the Fourth Gospel is left in extreme doubt, the balance tending plainly to a denial of John's hand in it. Where Harnack thinks that the Apocalypse was certainly by the same author (the Presbyter John), Dr. McGiffert is equally confident that it was not. This is one of many points on which these doctors disagree; and when we consider with these Dr. McGiffert's disagreements with other critics and his own hesitations and misgivings at almost every turn, we shall find that the one impression dominating all others that he leaves upon our minds is, that to know anything with certainty of the Apostolic age is nearly, if not quite, impossible.

The Horse of America, in his Derivation, History, and Development; tracing his ancestry by the aid of much newly discovered data through all the ages from the first dawnings of history to the present day, etc., etc. With maps and illustrations. By John H. Wallace. New York. 1897.

It is, perhaps, too much to say that, had there been no Wallace, there would have been no trotting-horse literature in America, but it is certain that this literature owes to him the greater part of such flavor and piquancy as it has. He was the first to make any successful attempt at the registration of trotters and to establish and enforce rules that gave it value; and to him will some day be accorded the distinction of having, more than any other man, laid the foundations for the correct and systematic breeding of the American trotting-horse, and established a family now as well recognized as that of the thoroughbred.

Mr. Wallace's book is largely in the nature of an autobiography, with interesting histories of the many wars he has waged with magnates of the horse-breeding industry, and the many triumphs he has won against error, misrepresentation, dishonesty, and about every kind of villany known to mankind. He is a Boythorn in his views of everything and everybody opposed to him, and confides to the little world of his readers the unexampled and unparalleled baseness of those who do not think as he does; but there is also evidence that, like Dickens's violent hero, the old gentleman is capable of a rapid transformation from ire to gentleness.

As introductory to the history of the horse of America, Mr. Wallace devotes his first seven chapters to the origin and distribution of horses, to the Arabian, and to the English race-horse. The inoffensive Arab steed seems particularly odious to Mr. Wallace, who proves to his own satisfaction that the horse is an original native of Armenia, and was very rare in Arabia, and explodes the beautiful fiction about the famous mares of Mohammed by insisting that the prophet always rode a camel or walked, and that there is nothing in his life or history to indicate that he ever owned a horse or ever mounted one, except on a single occasion. This is followed by various assertions and statements all tending to belittle the supposed virtues of the Arab horse and to cast ridicule and discredit on those, including notably Mr. Wilfred S. Blunt and Mr. A. Keene Richards, who have imported these horses to England and America. Mr. Wallace says of them: "Whatever their blood, whether genuine or counterfeit Arabian, they have all been failures and all alike good for nothing." The Eastern horses which were brought to England mostly in the eighteenth century, and are there recognized as the most worthy ancestors of the thoroughbreds of the present day, are thought by Mr. Wallace to have been inferior to the native English horses, with which, he says, Britain was fully supplied at the time of the Roman invasion. The Godolphin Arabian, however, is recognized as having had a beneficent influence on the English horse, though Mr. Wallace stoutly denies that anything whatever was known of his breeding, and says that his picture, while "it does not tell us what he was, tells us in the most clear and unmistakable language what he was not. There is no feature or element in his make-up that does not say he was neither an Arabian nor a Barb."

The pedigrees of many of the English race-horses are attacked, perhaps as an introduction to the very disheartening statements as to the American horses we have all been wont to consider of pure lineage. Imported Messenger's maternity is put in grave doubt, and the fact of no other imported thoroughbred stallion having succeeded as a progenitor of trotters in this country is brought forward as confirmatory of the charge of plebeian ancestry on her side. The two great horses Boston and American Eclipse are also stated to be incorrectly called thoroughbreds, and many other general beliefs as to horse lineage are quite as rudely shattered in the chapter on "Investigation of Disputed Pedigrees." The most notable of the living animals on whose breeding doubt is cast are the famous mares Maud S. and Sunol. As to the former, Mr. Wallace first asserts that the thoroughbred cross claimed through Nancy Pope, the dam of Pilot, Jr., was furnished by the "pedigree-maker" of Mr. Alexander; and also that the claims that Boston was the sire of Sally Russell, the granddam of Maud S., are baseless and were made with intent to deceive. As to the hardly less distinguished Sunol, reputed to have had a thoroughbred granddam, viz., Waxy, by Lexington, taken to California as a two-year-old in 1864, Mr. Wallace states: "There is not a scintilla of evidence that any two-year-old daughter of Lexington was taken to California in that year"; and it follows, of course, that this pedigree, along with most others with the thoroughbred cross "investigated" by Mr. Wallace, are, as he calls them, "frauds."

It might seem to some that his success in discrediting the thoroughbred crosses in about all the trotting-horses of merit he has noticed has been rather remarkable. The commonly accepted theories are, that the thoroughbred race-horse of the present day is descended from pure Eastern ancestors, and that it is the influence of this hard and condensed element in the American trotting-horse that gives him the endurance and stamina for which he is distinguished. It does not follow that in breeding trotters it is desirable to make the first cross a thoroughbred one, as the inherited tendency to the running gait is apt to overcome the trotting inheritance on the other side. The desideratum is to approximate the form and quality of the thoroughbred with the constant, instinctive tendency to the trotting gait. Mr. Wallace denies, first, that the thoroughbred horse is descended from pure Eastern ancestors, and, second, that he is of any use in breeding trotters. He says, and we think

truly, that if you are going to breed trotters, you don't want to use runners in doing it. But he also says (p. 496) that the trot and pace are simply two forms of one and the same gait. This is quite as unjustifiable a statement as that running and trotting are two forms of the same gait. All these movements involve the use of the legs, but so do kicking and plunging, backing and going sidewise. To attempt to prove it by showing that many horses have both paced and trotted is equally absurd. Many trotters can be trained to pace, and almost any pacer to trot, but every pacer and every trotter can be easily made to run, and all three of these gaits involve radically different movements of the legs.

The chapters on "How the Trotting-Horse is Bred" are interesting and instructive, as the author has a vast store of knowledge and experience on this subject, which, impersonal as it is, yet offers him various opportunities to make lively raids on the camps of his personal enemies. In 1871 Mr. Wallace issued the first volume of the 'Trotting Register,' which has since been succeeded by many others. The credit of the work in classifying, investigating, and publishing the vast number of pedigrees contained in these volumes, and bringing the breeding of trotters to a systematic and recognized basis, is due more to Mr. Wallace than to all others besides; and although he sold out the publication after a number of years, his name will be identified with the American trotting-horse so long as that noble animal exists.

Victorian Literature: Sixty Years of Books and Bookmen. By Clement K. Shorter. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1897. Pp. 231.

This is a Jubilee volume and is meant to be taken as such, and not as a history of literature, either for libraries or for schools. "So far as it has any worth at all," the author writes, "it is meant to be bibliographical and not critical." And he would have done better to follow out the idea which evidently at one time occurred to him, and cast the little book into the form of a dictionary of authors and books rather than into narrative form as we have it; for it must be said that the author does not excel in writing either history or criticism. But then, of course, there are the exigencies of a Jubilee year.

In style and in many other features the book resembles the summary of the same subject on a similar occasion written by the late Prof. Henry Morley and published in the Tauchnitz series. Both works are written in the same paragraphing style, and display the same good-natured and comfortable spirit of critical compliment and tolerance, combined with a certain lack of felicity in the use of critical adjectives. Both, too, are innocent of any really philosophical summaries or generalizations. And yet, of course, there is the danger of generalizing on what is still under our eyes, and the warning example of more ambitious works such as Prof. Saintsbury's latest. All the more reason, one must reply, for keeping to the dictionary form or to the guarded and impersonal criticism of the literary primer. Mr. Shorter, however, has partly atoned for the error of form by appending a full and excellent index.

The Poets, the Novelists, the Historians, and the Critics are the four classes into which the author divides the writers of the period. The chapters on the prose-writers (especially the last two) are generally better than that on the poets. American authors are not included, but in his introductory pages, by way of sop, Mr. Shorter testifies to the "enormous influence" of American writers like Longfellow, Hawthorne, Irving, Emerson, Lowell, and others upon the England of Victoria. As a sort of running list recalling the achievements of the reign in literature, many mature readers will doubtless find this little volume readable, and for younger readers lacking a better primer or short history of the subject, it may be found useful as a text or reference book.

Without further comment, and as a taste of his quality, a few of the author's off-hand critical pronouncements upon writers and books of the era may be subjoined:

P. 10: "Tennyson never wrote with greater force or with more perfect dramatic and lyric art [than in 'Maud']."

P. 16: "[Swinburne] has written tragedies of wider purpose than those of Tennyson, of equal insight with those of Browning."

P. 17: "His [Swinburne's] appreciation of Charles Lamb endears him to English readers, and his eulogies of Victor Hugo command the respect of Frenchmen."

P. 41: "The great epoch of English fiction began with Goldsmith and Richardson, and ended with Sir Walter Scott."

P. 47: "Her [Emily Brontë's] best verse is perhaps the greatest ever written by a woman."

P. 60: "[Stevenson's] 'Beau Austin,' although not accepted by the public, is probably the greatest contribution to the drama of the era. As a critic of life and of books Stevenson has also an honorable place. I know of no better treatment of the one than 'Virginibus Puerisque,' or of the other than 'Some Aspects of Robert Burns.'

P. 120: "[Carlyle] profoundly revered Goethe, who, after all, was the only one of his contemporaries who could take rank anywhere near him." (Carlyle has sixteen pages out of 193; Ruskin comes next with eight).

P. 129: "Still another arrangement would have been to divide the subject, as De Quincey suggested, into the literature of power and the literature of imagination [*sic*]."

P. 141: "In the seventies his [Mill's] philosophy dominated Oxford. It is of no account to-day. . . . For adequate philosophical guidance . . . we must turn to Herbert Spencer."

P. 146: "In universality of knowledge he [Spencer] rivals Aristotle and Bacon at a time when the sphere of learning is immensely larger than in their epochs. . . . To him, with Mill, belongs the glory of restoring to Great Britain the old supremacy in philosophy given to her by Bacon."

P. 172: "[F. W. H. Myers's] biography of Wordsworth is a daintily fanciful memoir."

P. 193: "[The great Victorian writers] have given us a literature without a parallel in history."

Cambridge: Described and Illustrated. Being a short History of the Town and University. By T. D. Atkinson. With an Introduction by J. W. Clark, M.A., Registrar of the University. Macmillan.

The standard works on the history of Cambridge have hitherto been both ponderous and expensive. This is true of Cooper's municipal 'Annals,' of Mullinger's 'University of Cambridge,' and of Willis and Clark's 'Architectural History.' There was room for a book which should set forth the more important of the facts in a moderate compass, and this Mr. Atkinson has now produced. He makes but little claim to original research; for the town history he has relied on Cooper; for the University and colleges, as he tells us, he has followed Willis and Clark very closely, in places verbally. It is, perhaps, in consideration of the permission which Mr. Clark has given for this use of his writings that his name appears as joint author on the back of the book; though we would remark in passing that this practice among publishers of making the back of the book suggest something a little different from the title-page is one that is growing, and already proving a nuisance to the bibliographer. Mr. Atkinson seems to have performed his task with intelligence. From the absence of a degree after his name, we gather that he is a "townsman" pure and simple; and, if so, the coöperation of "town and gown" which is here presented is itself significant. Both in Oxford and in Cambridge the old feeling between town and gown is rapidly passing away, with the growth of the historic sense among the citizens and the growth of the sense of municipal duty among the dons.

Mr. Clark tells us in his introduction that their first idea was to write a mere guide-book, but that on second thoughts "it seemed better to deal with so interesting a subject in a less dry and formal manner," though the book "might still do duty as a guide." So it may, in spite of its more than 500 pages. The Cambridge colleges are near together, and we can readily imagine an ardent student taking the book with him, or, more probably, her, one afternoon after another, to this or that college court. But while such devotion would be proper enough for one who is spending a term in Cambridge, the passing traveller would be better advised to begin with Mr. Clark's own 'Historical and Descriptive Notes,' with Toussaint's and Brunet Debaines's charming pictures. For, after all, Mr. Atkinson's pages are somewhat stodgy; and the array of facts is rarely lit up by a generalization. The attractiveness of the volume lies, we must confess, largely in the pictures with which it is embellished. Besides a lot of block-plans, and of seventeenth-century views "after Loggan," there are five and twenty of the exquisite engravings by Le Keux which first appeared in the 'Memorials of Cambridge.' They are visions of beauty, with Cambridge looking its best, at sunrise or sunset or after a shower. If members of the governing boards of American universities who have had money to spend on buildings in recent years can look on these pictures without a sense of lost opportunities, we shall despair of the educative influence of art.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alamo, and Other Verses. Florence, New Mexico: E. McQ. Gray. 75c.

Belmont, Perry. Republican Responsibility for Present Currency Perils. Putnams. 50c.

Black, L. M. P. For His Country's Sake; or, Esca, a British Prince at the Court of Trajan. London: Horace Cox.

Brooke, Emma. The Confession of Stephen Wrapshare. Putnams. $1.

Coleman, S. E. An Algebraic Arithmetic. Macmillan. 60c.

Crooks, Prof. G. R. The Story of the Christian Church. Eaton & Mains. $3.50.

Crowninshield, Mrs. Schuyler. Where the Trade-Wind Blows. West Indian Tales. Macmillan. $1.50.

D'Annunzio, Gabriele. The Intruder. G. H. Richmond.

Davidson, Prof. John. The Bargain Theory of Wages. Putnams. $1.50.

Gallienne, Richard Le. Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám. A Paraphrase from Several Literal Translations. John Lane.

Griffin, A. P. C. Orderly Book of General George Washington. Kept at Valley Forge, May-June, 1778. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.

Hawaii's Story by Hawaii's Queen. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2.

Hawels, Rev. H. R. Ideals for Girls. London: James Bowden; New York: M. S. Mansfield. 75c.

Hinsdale, Prof. B. A. Horace Mann, and the Common School Revival in the United States. [Great Educators.] Scribners. $1.

Huidekoper, D. R. S. Veterinary Blue-Book. 1898. New York: Metropolitan Job Printing Office.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 17, 1898.

The Week.

The advocates of Hawaiian annexation in the Senate are evidently at a loss what to do. When Congress met early in December last, they announced that the treaty would be rushed through without any trouble, and probably before the holiday recess. They have at last found out that it can never get the two-thirds vote that is required for the ratification of a treaty, and that they must resort to the joint-resolution method. This is a very disagreeable discovery to the annexationists, for various reasons. In the first place, the failure of the treaty involves a serious loss of prestige for the promoters of the scheme. Moreover, when a joint resolution is substituted for the treaty, it must take its chances along with other business in open session, and, as the weeks pass, it will grow easier for its opponents to push it over. Finally, and worst of all, discussion must then be public, and the weakness of the project can be exposed in the eyes of the nation.

President Dole is said to have gone home a sadder and a wiser man. He enjoys the peculiar distinction of being the first President of a republic known to history who travelled round the world trying to sell his own country to a foreign Power. This is the more comic because he was telling everybody all the time he was here, that his Government was much beloved by his people, and that they greatly desired its maintenance. But he resented deeply any proposal that they should be consulted about the transfer. In fact, he said it was insulting to him to doubt their willingness to be sold out. A more happy and contented lot there could not be; nevertheless, they felt that it was time they were disposed of. The only other case on record of the sale of a government by its chosen officers is that of the Irish union with England. But the Irish Parliament-men did not offer themselves for sale; they were asked whether they were in the market, and they said, bedad, they were. But they never made themselves ridiculous by telling how much their people loved them, and yet how anxious they were to be sold. It was a plain, above-board mercantile transaction. There is a story told of one of them, that, being reproached with a desire to sell his country, he "thanked God that he had a country to sell." The Hawaiian republic has begun the practice of selling admittedly happy people to foreigners. Although, therefore, President Dole was received in Washington with Presidential honors, his position was really that of a drummer sent abroad to dispose of a choice assortment of missionary goods.

The probability of the passage by the House of the Senate bill for the restriction of immigration by an educational test grows smaller week by week. Western Representatives find growing opposition to the policy among their constituents, and those who come from close districts shrink from a vote on the question. Meanwhile the sentiment in favor of the measure in the East appears to be weakening, and its newspaper advocates are now urging its passage on the ground that it would not amount to very much anyway. The Boston *Journal*, for example, points out that "the educational test, if applied to every immigrant in 1897, would have kept out only 23.2 per cent. of all persons over sixteen years, and many of those would have been admitted in spite of their ignorance, by virtue of the provisions intended to prevent the separation of families." The discussion of the subject during the last few weeks has been noteworthy for the new argument presented by many advocates of the proposed policy—that a stringent restriction of immigration is essential to the success of the protective policy. This argument has been put very concisely by various newspapers in Pennsylvania. In the same vein the Columbus (O.) *Dispatch*, a Republican newspaper, declares that "the best practical test is the one that will keep out the greater number of undesirable immigrants," and adds: "In all this controversy over ways and means, the one great point to be kept in view is the protection that restriction will afford to the workingmen of this country, both native and naturalized."

The Senate committee on appropriations has "raised" the House committee, as regards the fortification bill, from $4,500,000 to $9,000,000. In other words, the appropriation has been doubled. We shall now have an opportunity to see which of the two houses can hold out longest. Usually the one which goes in for the largest sum prevails in the end, but the situation now is peculiar in that the Treasury is facing a deficit instead of a surplus. This circumstance may strengthen the nerves of the House even to the point of losing the whole bill. It is to be hoped that it may. We have gone without fortifications for a whole generation, and no harm has come of it, and none will come of it except by our own seeking. Therefore we can assuredly postpone our fort-building until we are able to pay for it. Let Mr. Reed and Mr. Cannon insist that the public outgo shall not exceed the public income, and let Mr. Dingley look after his deficit by cutting down expenditures without pity or remorse. Let the Senate have the alternative of taking the $4,500,000 offered by the House or nothing.

Secretary Gage made a very sound and instructive speech at the Lincoln Day exercises in Chicago. He went back to the beginning of the greenback, and showed how the statesmen of that day hesitated to pass the legal-tender act, how they dreaded its consequences, how they vowed that it was only a temporary affair, etc. In fact, they made all the protestations that their forefathers did when the latter went into the Continental-money experiment, and ended by doing the same thing, but with less excuse. The statesmen at Richmond were going through the same motions as those at Washington, and they fell into the same kind of pit, but a somewhat deeper one. Secretary Gage did not express any opinion of his own on the question whether the issue of legal-tender notes was necessary at that time, but he quoted the opinions of the leading men concerned in the passage of the bill. He paid a compliment to Senator Morrill of Vermont, then a member of the House, for his unflinching opposition to the bill. This compliment was fully deserved. Senator Collamer of Vermont might properly have been included in it, for he made the strongest argument that was made by anybody in either house against the bill. In fact, the State of Vermont showed more financial wisdom and a better grasp of the situation than any other in the Union. Next in order comes Fessenden of Maine, chairman of the Senate committee on finance, who saw as clearly as Collamer the evils of Government paper money, and who spoke and voted against the legal-tender clause. Mr. Fessenden hesitated to take the responsibility of defeating it, as he might have done if he had used his full powers to that end, and as Collamer or Morrill would have done if they had been in his place. It is the first step that costs. After the first bill was passed it was idle to resist the later ones. Secretary Gage made mention of Thaddeus Stevens, who was then chairman of the ways and means committee, of which Mr. Morrill was a member. The truth of history requires the statement that, in matters of finance, Stevens was the most dangerous crank in either branch of Congress. The bill never could have been reported from the committee, nor could it have passed the House, without his active support.

The Republican politicians have a

fresh grievance against Mr. Gage. The Secretary of the Treasury has just recommended to Congress a sweeping reorganization of the customs collection districts of the country, by which the number would be reduced from 156 to 66. His argument in support of the change is that the Government would save nearly $150,000 a year in the payment of the force employed, and yet would secure a better service. In Connecticut Mr. Gage would consolidate the ports of New Haven and Bridgeport, and have only one Collector at $2,500 in the former city, instead of two receiving more than twice that sum between them; consolidate Hartford, Stonington, and New London, with only one Collector, at Hartford, instead of three, and a salary for that one smaller than is now paid the Hartford Collector. We are not surprised to learn, through the Washington correspondent of the Hartford *Courant*, Senator Hawley's newspaper, that "the adoption of Secretary Gage's plan is generally regarded as improbable, on account of the strong disapproval of individual members of Congress, who would represent the opposition of customs collectors to the scheme."

The first town elections of the year in this State, which were held on Tuesday week, gave forth ominous warnings to Platt and his machine. In nearly all of them the Democrats showed gains, and in Tioga County, the town of Owego, in which Mr. Platt makes what Mr. Choate calls his "momentary residence" on election day for the purpose of voting, a Democratic Supervisor is said to have been chosen for the first time in several years. This untoward result will be likely to stimulate the anxiety of Messrs. Platt, Black, Payn, and Hackett for "harmony" in the party. The town elections in the spring have seldom failed to foreshadow accurately the outcome of the regular election in the fall. They sounded the doom of Hill in advance, and they gave audible warnings to Platt last year, which were unheeded, but which were followed by a Democratic plurality of 60,000 in the State in November. With this end of the State solidly delivered into the hands of Tammany, together with a stupendous mass of patronage, and with the other portions of the State turning in disgust away from the Republicans, because of Platt, Black, Payn, and company, the outlook for a Republican triumph next November is not bright.

It is announced that Senator Grady's bill, applying the Black starchless civil-service law to this city, is dead beyond hope of revival, and that Grady himself has abandoned all hope in regard to it. The cause of its early death is the implacable opposition of the Governor, who, rather than have it pass, has issued a decree that there shall be no New York city charter amendments passed at this session. He is most unwilling that the Grady bill should reach him for action, and naturally so, for it would be very awkward for him to veto it, thus admitting that it was not so desirable a measure that the field of its operation should be extended. He is forced to confess, in fact, that it was passed for the purpose of breaking into the public service of the State in the interest of partisan politics. It was designed to capture places for Republican machine politicians, its author not having the sagacity to foresee that his party might be defeated in the election, and that thus the service would be thrown open to the Democrats for a "clean sweep."

The address of the chairman at the influential meeting of the "Birth" Celebration on Thursday seems to indicate that the object of the ceremony is not so much to rejoice over the event as to advertise the concern called "Greater New York." He complains that only a sixth of a column was devoted to American news in a copy of the London *Times* which he bought that day, and he thought a good "birth celebration would draw the attention of other countries to the commerce and importance of New York." The committee which Mayor Van Wyck has appointed to make preparations for the Celebration is a perfect example of that confusion of good and bad citizens in which Tammany delights. Bishop Potter, James C. Carter, Seth Low, Bishop Littlejohn, the Rev. Drs. Van Dyke, Abbott, Collyer, and other men of the highest character and best professional and business standing, are assigned to confer and work with Oakey Hall, Gilroy, Croker, Pat Gleason, Platt, and Lauterbach for the common glorification of the city. The supposition, of course, is that they are all leading citizens and equally the best representatives of the community, character really having nothing whatever to do with the question of eminence, and the supreme test being prominence, no matter how attained. Considering all that has happened here during the past few years, the universal understanding as to the methods by which Croker and Platt have attained and maintained their power, and the general belief that the two conspired last year to reverse the progress of civilization in the city by turning it over to the rule of barbarians, this proposal that men of real character shall unite with them in organizing a public jubilee to celebrate the city's degradation, is the crowning test to which our moral sense as a people has been subjected. If we submit to it, and join quietly and cheerfully in the celebration, there will be no lower depths of humiliation for us to reach. Mr. Croker has, very appropriately, put himself in the foreground of the movement, and he should be made the central figure in the programme which is arranged, for the festivities will be in his honor.

In appointing Charles F. Roe Major-General in command of the State troops, Gov. Black not only has selected the candidate of our best military authorities, but has thereby ended that discouraging régime of inefficient and undignified adjutant-generals and of opéra-bouffe staff officers which has too long disgraced the State. Major Roe's refusal to work for the place or to accept any offers of "influence," and his declaration that he would not take command unless politics was wholly eliminated from the militia, have naturally attracted most favorable comment. Furthermore, the appointment of an officer who combines the experience of many years of professional soldiering with the tact and discretion absolutely essential to a successful volunteer officer, carries with it a distinct promise of future military reform and reorganization, and of this Gen. Roe is well aware. Unless all expectations fail, we should have in a few years the best-developed citizen soldiery in this country. This does not mean that Gen. Roe will work miracles, but simply that he will apply the merit system to the military service from the lowest private to the ranking brigadier-general. It is a curious thing that Gov. Black and the Albany politicians realize that when it comes to the service upon which the internal peace and safety of the State may at any moment depend, "politics" has no claims whatever, and that a rigid and well "starched" merit system is imperative. Yet no one will pretend that in national peace or emergency an honest and efficient civil service is one whit less necessary than a modern, well-organized and disciplined militia.

The definition of their policy by the Irish in the House of Commons—that is, stern hostility to the Liberals even, unless they give home rule its old place—promises to complicate matters a good deal during the coming session. The Liberal minority is already pretty small, but the desertion of the Irish would make it look pitiful. The Irish are not, however, gaining ground. There is less political discontent in Ireland than there has ever been, owing to the settlement of the land question, although there is still much distress in some districts. Then, also, the winds are blowing against parliaments everywhere. But nobody now expects any great gain or relief from a parliament, and especially, after Tammany, an Irish Parliament. Irishmen, since our last election, are held to have "taken the cake" as corruptionists and bossocrats, and you find increasing difficulty in persuading Englishmen that they would do any better in Dublin than

in New York. Everybody is now waiting to see what kind of thing Mr. Balfour's bill giving Ireland county councils and municipal reform will be. The great fight of the session will be over that. If the Irish members accept it cordially, the Liberals will be indeed "dished."

The reluctance of England to adopt countervailing duties against Continental sugar has a practical as well as a theoretical basis. The Continent seems to be exerting and taxing itself to the utmost to give the English consumer cheap sugar, and to give English manufacturers of jam and biscuits and pickles an almost complete control of the business. Of the entire Continental production of beet-sugar—3,000,000 tons—no less than 2,000,000 is exported under the export bounty system. Local taxes make the price of sugar high to the local consumer; and the net result is that England gets sugar at three cents a pound while the people who sell it to her have to pay nine or ten cents a pound for what they use themselves. No wonder the consumption in England is more than three times per capita what it is on the Continent. The Continent has the sugar industry, but England has the sugar. It is clear, also, how little can be done for the West Indian planters. Their entire product is only 300,000 tons, and the exportable surplus of 2,000,000 tons from the Continent threatens to overwhelm them, bounty or no bounty.

The latest attempt of the German Government to repress free discussion is seen in a plan to muzzle the lecturers, or *Privatdocenten*, in the universities. These, as is well known, are the ambitious and rising young men in the academic world who, by originality of investigation, or interest of theme, or attractiveness of manner, compete with the regular professors and win hearers. They are not paid by the state, though they are subject to the rules and discipline of the university, and the Government has very little control over them. Their freedom, both in choice of subject and in manner of presenting it, is of the very essence of their position. In them, in fact, the boasted *Lehrfreiheit* of Germany finds its chief illustration. But now a bill has been laid before the lower house of the Prussian Diet authorizing the Minister of Education to warn or reprimand *Privatdocenten* whose utterances he may disapprove, and, in the last resort, to cancel their licenses as lecturers. The pretence is that these young men, the hope of the universities of the future, are turning their lecture-rooms into nurseries of unsound political doctrine. Under the name of political economy or sociology or ethics or what not, they insinuate beliefs that are not consistent with "the Gospel of his Majesty's sacred person." So Sacred Majesty proposes to give them a touch of the mailed fist. But the university world is up in arms. Right under Majesty's sacred nose in Berlin, the professors of the university, including its most distinguished scholars, are signing a protest against the measure, as one calculated to impair their liberties and efficiency. What the issue will be remains to be seen; but one result is certain to be a hundred thousand more votes for the Social Democrats in the coming elections to the Reichstag.

Emperor William's latest prosecution of a subject for *Majestätsbeleidigung* was most unpopular in Germany. To imprison an artist for a comic political cartoon was stretching things. Perhaps Germans thought their country needed a humorist just now more than an Emperor of a certain type. At any rate, the arrest of Herr Trojan of *Kladderadatsch* for undermining the authority of the monarchy by exciting a little harmless laughter seems to have provoked more indignation than many cases less absurd have done. It has given one critic occasion to compile the sentences for *lèse-majesté* since William became Emperor, and they foot up the respectable total of more than 1,000 years' imprisonment, all told. This is 100 years to each year of the reign. One of William's predecessors, the father of Frederick the Great, used to cane his subjects, while crying out, "Confound you, I want you to love me!" In these more humane days imprisonment is the chosen means to awaken affection; but we doubt if it is any more effective than the franker methods of the old Prussian drill-master. Still, love is said to be a child of solitude and meditation; and there is no telling what emotions towards their Emperor may have been aroused in the bosoms of his traducers, when bound like Satan for a thousand years.

A good deal of alarm about the immediate future of France has, naturally enough, been excited by the furore developed in Paris by the Dreyfus affair and the Zola trial. But no one who has closely followed French history for the last hundred years can well avoid seeing that such crises are really just what the Parisian democracy needs and must have. It has never, since the Revolution, gone on for more than ten years without an "émeute"; it has never gone on more than twenty years without overturning the existing régime. No government, except this one, has proved capable of facing a second great "manifestation." Consequently the overturning of the Government had become by 1870 the principal French mode of expressing intense dissatisfaction with something or other—not necessarily with any special policy or measure, but simply general discontent, like that negro's dog which howled "because he smelt su'thing, and couldn't locate it." What the Boulanger episode, and now the Dreyfus episode, apparently show, is that the necessity for revolution has passed by, and that the mob can have their periodical fun without overturning anything whatever. They shout, and "conspuent," and squeeze, and threaten, but they do not erect barricades or fire on the troops. Moreover, the republic has one power in reserve which none of the monarchies has had. It is not afraid to use the army in self-defence. It can shoot and kill without bringing the blame of bloodshed on any one in particular. The Bourbons and Napoleons all shrank from this. Napoleon III. never quite got over his volleys of the second of December, 1851, but in 1849 Cavaignac, and in 1871 Thiers, found no difficulty in killing as many people as might have been necessary. It is well known in Paris now that, though disorders and noise will be tolerated, insurrection will not be. Accordingly there is much shouting and pushing, but, as Hanna would say, "God reigns and the Republic still lives."

The announcement was made by the Russian Minister of Finance last month that the monetary reform of the empire had been completed by the resumption of specie payments and the adoption of the single gold standard, with a silver subsidiary coinage. This was accompanied by a statement of the note issues of the Imperial Bank, showing that the amount of gold on hand exceeds the total amount of notes by 236,000,000 rubles. The redeemability of the notes is, therefore, abundantly secured. The ruble, according to the plan announced by the ukase of last year, is equal to one-fifteenth of the gold imperial. "Thus the ruble," says the Minister, "formerly an undefined and variable quantity, has become a precise measure of value like the pound sterling and the monetary units of other countries with a normal circulation." While congratulating the Czar and the people on the achievement of monetary reform, which is considered the precursor of an unexampled prosperity, the Minister observes that its continued success depends not merely upon good measures of finance, but upon the entirety of the governmental policy. "Among these measures," he adds, "those which concern the foreign policy exercise the most considerable influence in the economic life of the country and its monetary circulation. In that respect the principal support of the economic and financial prosperity consists in the traditionally peaceful and just policy of its sovereigns." These are words that ought to be heeded by the wild Senators of the United States, who are seeking to rush this country into war for a Quixotic purpose which they cannot themselves define.

THE DE LOME LETTER.

Minister de Lome's plight is one that must be peculiarly humiliating to a man of his proud race and nature. An experienced diplomat, who had maintained himself in a position of extreme difficulty with great resource and skill; a Minister, moreover, who had prided himself almost arrogantly on his "correctness," and had scarcely concealed his scorn of the rough-and-ready diplomacy of Americans, has been brought low in one day by a letter-thief. The chances were a million to one that this particular letter would never see the light; but it was Señor de Lome's bad luck to have the one chance go against him, and to end his diplomatic career in deepest mortification.

His indiscretion was of the kind that appears enormous only because it was exposed. It was a blunder after the event. Comparison has been made of his letter with that of Sackville-West in 1888; but this is unfair. The British Minister was guilty of a shrieking indiscretion. He wrote a letter to a man whom he did not know, and it was a letter bearing upon a burning question of current American politics. He invited his own catastrophe, and it did not fail to overwhelm him. But Señor de Lome was writing to an intimate friend, a semi-official representative of his own Government. He was, doubtless, under instructions to keep in close touch with Señor Canalejas, and to give him all the information and advice in his power. It was, therefore, almost an official duty which he was performing; and that this letter would be stolen and broadsided through the land was as little to be reckoned upon in advance as that any of his official communications to Señor Gullon, the Spanish Minister of Foreign Affairs, would meet with a like fate. The letter was essentially private, and it was apparently safeguarded. It was such a letter as the Venetian Ambassadors used to write in the sixteenth century, for the use of historians in the nineteenth, and its proper destination would have been the archives of Simancas, thence to be extracted by some plodding writer two hundred years from now. But the daring rifler of Señor Canalejas's mail, and the newspaper facsimile, have expedited events at an alarming rate, and Minister de Lome has had to suffer the consequences of writing too much history in his own lifetime.

Of course his indiscretion, or misfortune, whatever one calls it, was just as fatal, once it was in the glare of publicity, as if he had deliberately gone to work to end his usefulness as Minister to this country. He himself promptly recognized this fact by instantly cabling his resignation, when his letter came back to stare him in the face. A Minister must be *persona grata* to the head of the government to which he is accredited, and Señor de Lome obviously had ceased to be that to President McKinley. What he wrote of him and of his message was only what the Spanish press had freely said, only what newspapers in this country and members of Congress had openly uttered; but a Spanish Minister could not say it publicly and stay in Washington, and neither could he stay in Washington if he said it privately in a form which had been made public and which he could not deny.

The accuracy of the translation of Señor de Lome's letter has been questioned, as if an undue severity were given to some of its expressions about the President. But the published version appears to be sufficiently correct. Still, a good deal would depend on how one took the language. Señor de Lome wrote that the President was "populachero," which has been rendered "catering to the rabble." But it might be taken in a sense that a politician would regard as complimentary; applying to McKinley the phrase Carlyle used of Gladstone, the "People's William." To call a politician a "good mixer," a "smooth" man, one who keeps "close to the people" and is of the "get-there" kind, is about the same thing as calling him "populachero"; and most politicians would be rather flattered thereby. Still, Presidents might not like it. "Politicastro" scarcely means "low politician," but rather, we judge, an amateur politician, a dabbler in politics; and here, of course, the insult is more obvious. To charge Mr. McKinley with wishing to "leave a door open for himself, and to stand well with the Jingoes of his party," cannot be thought deeply insulting. It is rather a tribute to the President's astuteness and to his success in being all things to all men.

The De Lome incident has been very well taken by the country. American good nature, with its touch of cynicism, has stood the people in good stead. The laughing has been done as much at the expense of the few ferocious newspapers which at once called for war, as at that of the unfortunate Spanish Minister. About him the general sentiment is expressed by one overheard remark, "Well, I guess he knows now that if there is to be any abuse of the President we'll attend to that ourselves." American *lèse-majesté* for Americans! The President, on his part, has, up to the present writing, acted with dignity and propriety. But Congress is growing more and more restive about Cuba; State legislatures are resolving all over the country; the rainy season, which has been generally taken to be the limit of "the reasonable time" within which Mr. McKinley has already informed Spain that Cuba must be pacified, is only three months away. What Señor de Lome wrote in December is even more significant to-day: "Everything depends on military and political success in Cuba. . . . We must do something great, or we lose." It cannot be said that there has been any such success, and the time for the Spanish authorities to do "something great" in Cuba is short. "Poor Spain!" wrote Señor de Lome in the phrase which one sees so often in Spanish newspapers, and hears from the lips of troubled Spaniards; and "Poor Spain!" is, after all, the best comment one can make on the spectacle of a nation of such a splendid past, fallen on such evil days.

OUR AFFAIRS IN CHINA.

In view of the critical conditions existing in China to-day, the recent appeal of the Chamber of Commerce to Congress in behalf of our trade with that empire may well excite the most serious and careful attention. That a crisis has arisen there which may cause the partial or entire dismemberment of China, with or without war, must be patent to the most careless observer of events.

By existing treaties between the various foreign countries and China, that empire lies open and free to all alike. Monopolies of every sort are forbidden, and any right, privilege, or immunity granted to the citizens or subjects of any one Power inures at once, by the granting act itself, to the citizens or subjects of every other. This wise provision has more than once been appealed to successfully to prevent special grants or favors to particular corporations and governments. In the situation which now exists in the Chinese Empire, it may be and should be emphatically appealed to again. China herself would recognize with deep gratitude such an appeal. Certainly it would require the exercise of the highest tact, discretion, patience, and firmness, to maintain our commercial rights against the opposition of European Powers. But they may be maintained without the use or display of physical force. We may so use our rights and privileges in China as to hold our prestige, increase our political influence, and develop our large and growing commerce with that empire. The practical question arises, How are we fitted at this critical period to carry out this delicate and difficult task? When the whole future of our trade with that vast territory may be at stake, how are we prepared to defend it? What is the condition of our diplomatic and consular service there upon which we are to rely in such a crisis?

Since the inception of the present administration at Washington every consul in China, with perhaps one exception, has been removed. New appointments have been made, and each particular appointee, having received his commission, has betaken himself to his particular spot, there to enjoy his share of the party spoils. Only one of them, it is believed, has ever been in China be-

fore, or has had any considerable consular experience. Not one of them has any knowledge of the Chinese language, although by terms of treaty all business must be done in that tongue. Through the parsimony of Congress, only two or three of them are provided with competent interpreters. Unless they are a decided improvement upon our consuls sent to like posts in the past, some of them, at least, are unfamiliar with the amenities of social life and the intricacies of evening dress. And this counts for much more in China than is commonly supposed.

These are the kind of people sent, and these the circumstances under which they have been sent. Each one of our new representatives must come into direct and constant competition and contrast with the members of the trained consular services of England, Russia, Germany, and France, every one of whom has spent many years in the service, speaks Chinese, is familiar with and expert in the intrigue and by-paths of consular work, and has a staff of well-trained assistants. To a very large extent, development of trade in the Orient depends upon the activity, intelligence, and experience of consuls, and it is worse than idle to expect our fair share in the growth of trade in China when we send such men as we do, under such conditions, to be pitted against the single or combined competition of the representatives of the European Powers.

But it may be said that, in the special crisis which has now come upon our trade interests in the East, the delicate work required is not consular, but diplomatic. Let us then see how our legation at Peking is equipped for this great emergency. Minister Denby is about to be relieved. Originally a Mr. Bryan from Chicago was selected as his successor upon the remarkably appropriate grounds that he had served one term in the Legislature of his State, and that he was a man of most respectable family and of good education. As there were some serious duties to be performed which could not be intrusted to a boy or a greenhorn, it speedily became manifest that Mr. Bryan could not be confirmed by the Senate, although he blandly informed the President that he entertained no doubt of his capacity to fill that delicate and responsible mission.

Even this plain statement strangely failed to convince any one. A rearrangement of the party spoils upon an equitable basis became necessary. Accordingly, Minister Conger has been recalled from Brazil and is to relieve Minister Denby at Peking. Of the new appointee it can only be said that he was formerly a Republican Congressman from Iowa, who had lost his seat and against whom nothing could be said. He had served for about two years under the Harrison administration as Minister to Brazil, and was reappointed to the same post by President McKinley. No questions have arisen during either of his terms of service in South America to call for or show the possession of any diplomatic ability; and he goes to China quite unfettered by any knowledge of that interesting and extremely puzzling empire. The Secretary of the Legation at Peking, Mr. Charles Denby, jr., has resigned, whether voluntarily or not is unknown. He is an excellent Chinese scholar and possesses a good knowledge of the history of our affairs with that country. In his place a young man has recently been appointed of whom the public appears to know as much as he himself knows about China, which is nothing. The Second Secretary, so far as heard from, retains his post.

Hence it appears that, in this crisis in our commercial relations with that vast empire, a crisis so grave that such a body of men as our Chamber of Commerce has felt bound to call the attention of the Government to the urgent necessity for action, all of our consuls there, with one unimportant exception, are green hands, and that at the legation, where the most delicate and difficult part of the work must be done, the only person having knowledge of Chinese language and affairs is the interpreter or dragoman to the legation, whose status prevents him from having any serious influence. To such an untrained, uninformed body of men are our vast commercial interests intrusted at the moment when the continued existence of those interests may be in question. And all this because the "American idea" of a public office is not something to do, but something to get.

THE ALABAMA FRAUDS

The House of Representatives on Thursday, by a vote of 143 to 111, unseated Mr. T. S. Plowman, a Democratic member of that body from the State of Alabama, and awarded the place to Mr. William F. Aldrich, Populist and Republican. The vote was on party lines. The Populist-Democrats voted with the minority, and the Populist-Republicans (from North Carolina) with the majority. The case presents some features which place it above ordinary party contests of this character.

In the first place, the frauds in this election were proved by such overwhelming evidence that the supporters of the sitting member did not attempt to deny them, but merely insisted that, after deducting the fraudulent votes, there still remained a sufficient majority to elect Mr. Plowman. Thus, it was shown that in one county all the judges of election, clerks, and markers were either avowed Democrats or Democrats masquerading as Republicans, whereas the law of Alabama requires that the clerks and markers shall be equally divided between the two parties. This neat arrangement was brought about by recognizing one Jordan Crocheron as chairman of the Republican executive committee of the county, whereas he was simply the tool of the Democrats, "a confessed liar, a mercenary creature, ready to sell himself to anybody at any time, and a proven perjurer," as he was described by Mr. Taylor of Ohio, who presented the report of the committee on elections. With such a creature to represent the opposing party and to name their clerks and markers, the door was wide open to any species of fraud in the ballot-boxes and in the count of votes. It was only a question how many votes were wanted in this county (Dallas) to overcome the remainder of the district. The means adopted were of the wholesale kind and very clumsy.

The State of Alabama has a registration law. The voters at the November election were registered in the month of May preceding. In Kings precinct 201 voters were registered, and exactly this number were returned as having voted six months later. This was a suspicious circumstance in itself, but when the poll-list and the registration list came to be examined, a greater wonder appeared. It was found that the first fifty-five voters on the poll-list had come to the polls promiscuously as regarded the registration list. Thus the first man to deposit his ballot was No. 5 on the registration list, the second was not registered at all, the third was No. 56, the fourth was No. 6, the fifth was No. 161, and so on—all as might be expected. But after the fifty-five had voted, the returns showed that all the rest of the 201 had voted in the same order in which they were registered. Thus, the fifty-sixth man who voted was No. 3 on the registration list, the fifty-seventh was No. 4, the fifty-eighth was No. 6, and so on to the end of the list. Only one conclusion could be drawn from this, namely, that fifty-five men and no more actually did vote, and that the remaining one hundred and forty-six were purely fictitious. Of course they were all counted for Plowman.

This was only one species of fraud disclosed and proved by evidence that could not be disputed and was not disputed. The votes of the negroes were turned, twisted, and miscounted in whatever way the Democrats pleased. In short, the election was a complete farce, and the probability is that it did not differ from the elections in other parts of that State, and in Tennessee, Mississippi, Louisiana, Georgia, and South Carolina as well. The election laws and machinery in all those States are contrived for the purpose of cheating. They were intended at first to cheat only the negroes. They are used now to cheat anybody who is not in harmony with the organization in power. The Populists say that they have been counted out in

two State elections in Alabama. There is every reason to believe that they have been. The facts revealed in the Plowman-Aldrich case show that if Kolb was not counted out in his contest for the governorship, it was not for any lack of means to accomplish that end. The facts show that the votes actually cast in an election in that State, or in any State similarly controlled, have no necessary relation to the returns. In other words, representative government has come to an end in that quarter of the Union. All the Representatives in Congress, all the Senators, all the Presidential electors are or may be the products of fraud and fiction. It follows also that the monetary standard of the United States may be changed and the country dragged into the mire of repudiation or the throes of revolution by a few fellows like Jordan Crocheron and those who hire him to do their dirty work.

That there is a body of decent people in the South who habitually vote the Democratic ticket, and who deplore the state of things here revealed, but are powerless to prevent it, we know full well. How are they to be assisted to bring about a better state of things? We can see only one way, and that is by an incessant exposure of the frauds and by immediately ousting from office every man elected as Plowman was. Mr. Taylor of Ohio said, when he presented the committee's report, that neither himself nor any member of the committee was moved by partisan feeling in taking the course they had adopted in this case. We can well believe this. The Republicans were not in need of Aldrich's vote in the House. Aldrich himself seems to be more of a Populist than a Republican. There is no reason other than the demands of naked justice why he should be preferred to Plowman, but these reasons are of such an imperative kind, they are fraught with such far-reaching consequences to the whole country, that no other action was to be thought of by men who are responsible in some measure for the permanence of our free institutions.

SUGGESTIONS.

We are informed that persons who enjoy the inestimable privilege of intimate intercourse with Mr. Croker, and chat freely with him on public questions, find him much concerned about certain phases of his government which are not satisfactory to him. His mind dwells constantly upon these shortcomings, with a view to the evolution of remedies. He has been much troubled, for example, by ambitious persons outside Tammany Hall who have sought in various ways to obtain his favor without becoming conspicuously identified with him. After much reflection he has hit upon a very effective method of treatment for this kind of annoyance. He waits until friendly overtures have been made and cordial relations established, and then asks the suitor what his politics are. If the suitor replies that he is a Democrat, as he must or invite failure, Mr. Croker's next question is if he is a member of the Democratic Club. If he answers no, then the trap is sprung in Mr. Croker's declaration, leaving all question of choice out of the matter: "Ah, then I will put your name up." The name must go up and appear in the list of new applicants, "proposed by Richard Croker," and be published in the daily papers, or the suitor must refuse the offer and thus abandon all hope of favor. News of this ingenious procedure has had the effect of keeping many patriots, who were bringing themselves to take a charitable view of Mr. Croker's government, from obtruding themselves into his personal society.

But this is only a trifle, viewed as a worriment, when compared with what Mr. Croker suffers in regard to the conduct of the press. On the subject of newspaper insolence and license he is said to be most deeply stirred. During his residence in England he examined the London journals, and was much pleased with the way in which they habitually treat their public men, Gladstone, Salisbury, Balfour, Harcourt, and the rest. Compared with the way in which the American journals treat our leading men, Croker, Platt, Grady, Black, Payn, and the rest, he much prefers the English method. The English editors do not pry into a statesman's private affairs, do not ask of his wealth, "Where did he get it?" do not question his ability to read and write, or dispute his title to high and powerful office. Why should American journals be permitted to do these things? That is what Mr. Croker would like to know, and he is going to see if something cannot be done to put a check upon them. He and Mr. Platt thought at one time an anti-cartoon law would be a good thing to have, but they seem to have lost faith in it recently. Our opinion, we "put it forth for what it is worth," is that something far more drastic is needed, and for this precedents are not lacking.

Doubtless, in the course of conversation with Mike Daly, Tom Grady, Paddy Roche, Ike Fromme, and other leading minds of the Club, Mr. Croker has heard allusions to Napoleon I. and to his troubles with the boss government which he gave to France in the early part of the century. If he will look into Napoleon's official letters, he will see how a really capable boss disposed of annoyances of this sort. Napoleon was troubled not only with the press, but with the Pope and the bishops and the priests, and he made short work with all of them. When the *Gazette de France* said something which displeased him, he wrote to his Minister of Police: "Give orders to have the editor arrested and put in prison. You will keep the editor in prison for a month, and you will appoint somebody else in his place." As an intimation of what might happen to other editors, he added: "Generally speaking, the newspapers are horribly badly managed." At another time the *Journal de l'Empire* as the offender: "That young man [the editor] is either an ill-disposed person or a fool; tell him so from me. If he does not change his ways, I shall change the editor." At another time: "Make known my displeasure to the editor of the *Journal des Débats*, who prints nothing but nonsense in his paper. Truly all our newspapers are very silly." But the French press was not the only one to be regulated. Prince Murat, the lieutenant of Napoleon in Spain, was ordered: "Take the management of the *Gazette* into your own hands, by fair means or foul, and let it appear every day." Frequently the outline of articles was furnished, and sometimes orders were given like the following: "Have caricatures made—an Englishman, purse in hand, entreating the various Powers to take his money, etc." Again, like this: "Have a great fuss made over the persecutions of the Irish Catholics by the Anglican Church. Collect every incident so as to paint the persecutions in the most vivid colors."

Like methods were pursued with the Church dignitaries. The Pope was put in prison, with orders to leave him only his doctor, steward, florist, cook, and footman. All his letters were intercepted and his papers seized. Cardinals and bishops shared a like fate. The cause of offence was not conducting their religious offices in the manner ordered by the Emperor. "You will go," he said on one occasion, to the Minister of Police, "to the Cardinal's councillor, and you will speak to him in this sense: 'Either my letter is contrary to religion or it is not; and has any bishop the right to change the sense I have given it?' I am as much of a theologian as they are, and even more. I shall not go out of my province, but I will allow nobody else to go out of his." He even went so far as to compose prayers for the clergy to offer on the subject of his own achievements, putting forth, through the Minister of Public Worship, a circular to all the French bishops, in which it was directed that "a *Te Deum* be sung, and thanks offered to the God of Armies," and prayers added "to call down the Divine protection to our arms, and above all for the preservation of the sacred person of the Emperor, whom may God shield from every danger! His safety is as necessary to the welfare of Europe and of the Empire as to that of religion."

It is scarcely necessary to suggest to Mr. Croker that if he were able to exercise over press and pulpit in this city powers of this stringent order, his government would be immeasurably

strengthened and his personal enjoyment of life greatly increased. What a salutary effect it would have upon the newspapers if he could put their editors in jail whenever he pleased and suppress publication. They would be much more inclined than they are at present to treat him with proper respect as a great ruler, and much more likely to set forth views which he might outline for them. Then, too, think how happy it would make him to be able to order the arrest of Dr. Parkhurst and regulate his food and drink in prison! The clergy do not offend him often nowadays, but there are times when they do. Furthermore, if they were under Mr. Croker's regulation, they might be made to preach in favor of boss rule, and that would help to give it moral support. Mr. Croker's government is a strong one now, but it needs to be buttressed with Napoleonic methods in order to give him perfect happiness and become the crowning glory of free government in the first city of the American republic.

ARCHÆOLOGICAL FIELD-WORK IN ASIA MINOR.

AMHERST, MASS., February, 1898.

When the ignorant hordes of Turcoman shepherds left their original abode in Turkistan in quest of better homes in the West, they attacked and in time conquered the moribund Byzantine empire. Being zealous Mohammedans, their souls glowed with intense hatred of the Byzantine Greeks, the chief representatives of Christianity in the East. Their religious fanaticism was comprehensive; they hated all religions but Islam. The mere conquest of the Byzantine Empire and the annihilation of its civic government did not glut their appetite; they were bent upon destroying all traces of pre-existing civilizations. For centuries the demon of destruction held high carnival, though to this day the destruction and defacement of ancient monuments is still going on. Thanks to this religious hatred of everything not of Moslem origin, many monuments that belonged not only to the Christian period, but to the classical pagan civilization as well, have perished; monuments that had been spared by time and the fanaticism of the early Christians. Irreparable ruin was wrought, and many documents in stone of priceless value to the historian were annihilated by the shepherd invaders; but, in spite of their zeal, the undertaking proved to be too vast even for the destructive powers of the Turk, and therefore many precious monuments and inscriptions are still spared to tell their tale even at this late day, each adding its mite to the sum total of human knowledge, each helping to write some page in the history of the past. It is the business of the travelling archæologist to hunt up and conserve these remnants, whether they be monumental or epigraphical.

After the first fury of the storm of devastation had passed, the Turks, who were then pure nomads, and are still partial nomads, found it necessary to accommodate themselves to their enlarged circumstances. Accordingly, they abandoned their nomadic habits and became residents in fixed abodes for at least the most inclement part of the year. Houses were imperatively necessary, but they had ruthlessly destroyed, not merely monumental buildings, but probably private houses as well; they did not possess architectural skill sufficient to erect buildings in any way comparable to those they had destroyed. However, their ambition did not soar high; a roof over their heads during the winter was all they craved; it mattered not that the walls of their houses were ill-built and shabby in the extreme. Their greatest care was displayed in the construction of their mosques, in building which they utilized ancient stones of every kind, for the reason that these stones were well hewn and easy to handle. The exteriors of Turkish buildings, therefore, often present a ridiculous jumble of stones taken from pagan and Christian buildings, as well as tombstones, altars, and even statues and bas-reliefs. To this use of the old and well-dressed material is due the fact that many stones bearing Greek and Latin inscriptions are found in the walls of buildings. It should be noted, however, that in inserting such stones in the walls of the mosque or other building, the barbarian builders paid no attention whatever to the inscription; chance or the convenience of the mason alone decided whether the inscribed face of the stone was to fall on the outside of the wall or be concealed in it. Even when the inscription did fall on the outside of the wall, it is rarely right end up, but in most cases either lies sidewise or else is upside down.

The Turks are very particular in the matter of their drinking-water; one may often overhear them comparing notes about the water of two given villages, in precisely the same way that Germans discuss the relative merits of this or that make of beer. Even the meanest village takes care to supply itself with an abundance of cool, fresh, pure, running water, which is intended not merely for household use, but also for the ablutions so necessary before prayer. Consequently the fountains take rank immediately after the mosques. Some attempt at architectural display, oftentimes crude enough, is always visible in the fountains, and this coveted beauty could best be attained by utilizing the fine old stones that belonged to the civilization of the hated infidels. The travelling archæologist, therefore, should examine carefully the mosque and the fountains of every village; and if the village be anywhere in the vicinity of an ancient town, he is almost sure to discover inscriptions in the walls of one or both of these structures.

The old cemeteries, which in many cases are situated in desert places far from a village, must always be examined with extreme care by the archæologist. Among the Moslems a grave is inviolate, at least in theory, and therefore it must have a stone at its head and foot to proclaim its sacred character for ever. It makes absolutely no difference what may have been the original character of the stones used on Turkish graves, provided only they be large and heavy, for in that case they will stand erect and mark the spot as a grave for ages after the mound over the grave has become completely levelled. Often it can be proved that stones have been transported long distances to serve as Turkish tombstones. Indeed, the Turkish cemeteries exhibit the oddest, most comical pot-pourri of all sorts of ancient marbles; in them one may expect to find any conceivable kind of antique stone. Hittite stelæ, altars of pagan gods; round, cubical, and horned altars; huge columns and epistyle blocks from temples; Roman milestones with Latin inscriptions; double-columned window supports from Christian churches—all are made to stand as sentinels over the graves of faithful Moslems. Not only this, but ancient Greek *tombstones*, in all their endless variety—from the simple slab and the sculptured stele with temple pediment to Phrygian doors, cenotaphic sarcophagi, sarcophagus lids, and even sculptured sarcophagi themselves—are made to do duty a second time, thus forming an odd commentary on the mutability of civilizations and empires. As a rule, the inscriptions have not been erased from these stones, so that one may find on Turkish graves important decrees of cities, municipal laws, letters of kings to cities, legislative regulations and edicts of imperial Rome, the autobiography of wealthy or powerful citizens, the *cursus honorum* of Roman proconsuls and legates, and innumerable epitaphs of men dead a thousand years and more before the Turkish conquest.

The inscribed tombstones of the early Christian dead also were often utilized as tombstones by the Turks. Christian tombstones prior to Constantine may only be detected by the initiated, for the reason that, before Constantine, Christians had no legal status, so that their identity had to be concealed under the guise of guilds, crafts, and fraternities which might attain to a legal status, own, bequeath, and inherit property. But after Constantine the cross and the fish are boldly displayed in reliefs on Christian tombstones; indeed, the cross is not infrequently made so prominent that it is as high as the stone itself, so that the epitaph of the original owner of the tombstone had to be inscribed on either side of the vertical bar of the cross. Moslem pride demands defacement of this cross before the stone which bears it can be accorded the honor of standing over the grave of one of the faithful. The emblem of the fish, however, does not seem to have been so offensive, probably because the ignorant peasant did not understand its import. Of course the cross could not be tolerated for an instant; its removal, however, was not easy to effect; they might hack away at it with their primitive tools, but they lacked the skill and the patience so to polish the stone that no traces of the cross remained. In point of fact, their very effort to efface the cross only served in many cases to bring it into greater prominence. But, at any rate, the cross had been insulted, and that much was soothing to the religious intolerance and hate of the ignorant. Often, too, religious zeal has led to an attempt to efface an inoffensive but important pagan Greek inscription. But that meant much work, for the letters, besides being incised, usually cover a great part of the stone, and the patience of the fanatic was almost always exhausted before he had defaced the stone so effectually that the experienced epigraphist might not decipher it with more or less ease. He is only too thankful that the fanatic did not smash the stone or turn it into lime.

According, then, to what we have seen, the travelling archæologist should search for inscriptions in the mosques, the fountains, and the cemeteries. So much he can do without asking leave of any one. But, of

course, inscriptions are found in other places, and if they be in private houses, then much careful diplomacy is often necessary in order to persuade the ever-suspicious householder to give the giaour permission to enter the sacred precincts of his house and harem. I once worked for two days to gain access to an inscription of whose existence the house-owner had himself informed me. The stone was in a windowless cellar or chaff-room, and, of course, upside down. I copied it painfully by the help of a candle, but when I came to study it more carefully in my tent, I found that it located the city of Tymandus and was otherwise so important that an impression or squeeze of the stone was absolutely essential. Upon renewing negotiations for a second visit to the stone, the ladies of the family not only refused the permission, but wept and wailed bitterly at the very thought. The reason for these tears will appear presently. But, thanks to the persuasive power of backsheesh, judiciously placed by my chief servant, I finally succeeded in getting the coveted impression. On another occasion I spent much time laboring with a house-owner who stoutly denied the existence of an inscribed stone in his house, while his neighbors just as stoutly affirmed its existence. But an energetic kavass can usually touch the heart of the village priest by the help of a dollar, and many seemingly impossible things may be done when the priest acquiesces and urges thereto.

Now, this hesitancy is not due wholly, or even mainly, to disinclination to admit a foreigner and a giaour into the inner parts of the house, but to a prevalent superstition. A belief pervades all classes of Turks, both of high and low degree, either that the stones which bear inscriptions have money or other treasure safely concealed *inside* the stones themselves, or else that the inscriptions on the stones tell where money or treasure was hid by the people who fled from their homes when the all-conquering hordes of Turks were invading the country more than four hundred years ago. Their theory in regard to the business of the travelling archæologist is that he is a lineal descendant of the former inhabitants of the country; that his family have preserved, throughout all these ages of their exile, traditions in regard to vast treasure stored away by them when they were compelled to abandon their ancestral homes; and lastly that the archæologist has come to search the country, find the family inscriptions that tell exactly where the treasure is hidden, and then return to the home of his adoption laden with wealth. Accordingly, ignorant peasants are loath to tell of inscriptions in their own houses, because such stones are their own private property, and they cannot bring themselves to give away to a *Frenk* a secret which, if only the key could be found, would assuredly bring in millions to the worthy Moslem family. Hence those tears and wails!

Nothing, neither argument, nor reason, nor ridicule, nothing whatever can shake their faith. Often, as I was busy about an inscription, a curious, silent, suspicious mob would gather round me, sullenly watching every stroke of my pen, that fateful pen that was even then filching untold treasures from them. Presently the sullen silence would be broken, and excited questions would be showered upon me: Where is the money? When do you intend to get it? How much is it? Will you not be generous enough to share with us? Truthfulness compelled me to deny the existence of hidden treasure, and to explain that my business was to gather up the scattered facts of history, so that by weaving together a multitude of such facts the historian might be able to give something like an accurate account of the country before it was conquered by the ancestors of the present inhabitants. But my breath was wasted, my labor lost; I was simply accounted a fraud and a liar, while my servants were applauded as men of truthfulness and wide-awake intelligence when they jokingly affirmed that buried treasure did exist thereabouts, and that by judicious use of the mattock and the spade the bystanders could find it. In point of fact, the natives have dug on their own account in innumerable places, and many ancient buildings have been brought to ruin for the reason that their foundations were undermined by these ignorant searchers after hidden treasure.

In this search for gold they are often guided by what they call a Nishan. The word means sight, that is, the sight of a rifle. The Nishan is of two kinds: one being the small, round, natural holes in rocks, such as are often seen in the limestone formation. The prevalent theory in regard to these holes is that they are so constructed as to point directly towards the spot where the coveted treasure lies hid. But unfortunately it indicates accurately only the direction of the line on which the treasure lies buried, but not the spot itself. It is universally believed that the inscriptions which the Frenk so sedulously transfers to his notebook give the information necessary for identifying the exact spot. It is a source of regret and mortification to the peasants that they cannot read the inscriptions themselves, and so they envy and hate the interloping archæologist, because, as they firmly believe, he does possess the knowledge necessary to unveil the secret and lay hold upon the coveted and much-needed treasure. There is a second kind of Nishan. The ancients sometimes made sun-dials on the walls of buildings, especially on walls that faced the market-place. Little grooves in the wall, to mark the time of day, radiated from the dial-nail. Of course some of these carefully chisellel grooves pointed down to the ground, and, according to the prevailing superstition, located exactly the spot where treasure lay buried. I well remember one such dial at Adada, and I saw the ruin of which it had been the innocent cause.

But another formidable danger threatens the existence of the stones that bear, it may be, priceless inscriptions, for many stones are smashed up every year in order to get the gold that is hidden *within them*. It would be interesting to discover the theory by which the natives account for the presence of gold within the stones, but that is a secret which the Oriental mind declines to divulge to the uninitiated. When the stone has been broken to pieces, the gold fails to show up, of course. Now, after a few such ridiculous failures, one might think that even the stolid Turks would lose faith in the superstition, but such is not the case; ill-success does not dampen their ardor nor shake their faith in the slightest degree. If you ask them why the gold did not appear, the unvarying answer is *Allah billir*, God knows. This superstition is not confined to the Turks, but at one time was shared by the peasantry of Greece as well—an inheritance, it may be, from the Turks. We see, then, that priceless stones are perishing every year throughout Asia Minor by reason of this barbarous superstition, as well as in many other ways, some of which have been mentioned above. These stones should be saved; history and the science of the past demand that they be saved, and archæology calls aloud upon great-hearted men of wealth to save them, either by rescuing them in person, or by gifts of money to enable specialists to go and save to science these *disjecta membra* of mighty peoples of a mighty past.

Notwithstanding the sacred character of the cemetery, the Turks are ever ready to lend a helping hand in digging about stones that mark the graves of their ancestors. Frequently only a portion of an inscription is visible on a fallen and half-buried stone; in that case more or less digging must be done in order to bring the whole inscription to light. Or it might be that we merely suspected the existence of an inscription on the buried side of a large stone. Implements suitable for light digging were always carried, but for serious digging and for raising and turning heavy stones, the villagers were pressed into service. In return for a pittance they would come with mattocks and levers, and soon the inscription would be exposed to view. It frequently happened that, after I had transferred to my notebook and impression-case the inscription on an upturned cemetery-stone, the villagers would replace the stone in its old bed, but just as often they would leave it lying by the side of the unfilled hole.

It would be natural to suppose that, though eagerness to turn an honest penny might make them ready to disturb the abode of the dead, they would be chary enough about laying violent hands upon their own *houses* at the bidding of a stranger. But such is not the case. As soon as I had ascertained for a certainty that a given stone in the wall of a house was inscribed, my chief servant would begin negotiations with the house-owner, who for a ridiculously small sum was always willing to demolish enough of the wall of his house to enable me to read the inscription; I have made holes fully a yard square in the walls of houses. As may be imagined, the stones that are built into walls are found in all sorts of positions; if they were deeply buried bottom-side up in the foundations of a mosque or pretentious house, a deep hole would have to be dug in order to reach the beginning of the inscription; not infrequently I have had to lie with my head far down in such a hole in order to decipher the inscription. Such a position becomes very painful after a while; if the inscription be badly defaced and the sun be pouring down with all his fierceness, the man who essays the decipherment has need to steel his heart, for under such circumstances the temptation to do slovenly work is very great, and it is not lessened by the almost positive knowledge that all his zeal and devotion will be rewarded by an attack of malarial fever on the morrow.

J. R. S. STERRETT.

LONDON NEWSPAPERS OF 1776 AND THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

LONDON, January, 1898.

Nowadays an English provincial newspaper, under the heading of "America Day by Day," gives its readers the news of what has happened in the United States the day before. Throughout the United Kingdom also the daily papers publish longer or shorter accounts of American news. How different were things a hundred and twenty years ago. Then, sailing packets or ordinary merchantmen arrived from New York or other ports with intelligence only of what had happened weeks before, and of the news of only one part of the country. Sometimes, by some vessels having quicker passages than others that had sailed sooner, later news arrived first, and the gaps were filled up afterwards.

Much had happened since "the embattled farmers" had "fired the shot heard round the world." The war between the United Colonies and Great Britain had been actively carried on for a considerable period. At the same time a paper warfare was kept up in the London newspapers upon the question of the rightfulness, or otherwise, of the resistance made by the Colonies. It was on the 9th of August, 1776, that the following letter, under the signature of "A Virginia Planter," pithily put the case for the United Colonies, in the *Gazetteer and New Daily Advertiser:*

To the Printer of the Gazetteer:

Without entering into any discussion of the hacknied controversy, whether America can or cannot be constitutionally bound by acts of the British Parliament, it is pretty evident that at no period of our Government since the Revolution have our public affairs been so badly conducted, particularly respecting that country. I will grant, for argument's sake merely, that America has throughout this whole contest been in the wrong; this being allowed, a question will instantly present itself, in what manner ought Administration to have proceeded; not, surely, by violent sanguinary measures; or if violent measures were become necessary, was it not equally cruel, unfeeling, and impolitic to involve the *innocent* in the same punishment with the *guilty?* This is the rock on which our blundering Governors have split. This is what has created a continental army, and given union to the several Members of Congress. This has taught the Provincials discipline, given them a paper currency, and inspired them with a spirit of freedom equal to any of the inhabitants of the ancient Republics. In short, Administration, by their various acts of indiscriminate and wanton oppression and provocation, have done more towards uniting all America against them in the penning of a few acts of Parliament and angry votes, in a few weeks, than all the factions, leaders, and demagogues from Halifax to St. Augustine could effect in half a century.

I lived in America for several years. I know the disposition of the people well, and am not yet quite two years from that country. When I left it, except a few speculative writers, and a few others, perhaps men of dark and ambitious views, I can affirm that there was not one man in a hundred who did not abhor the idea of American independency. I remember, in particular, the inhabitants of the Midland and Southern Colonies expressed the most unqualified detestation and disapprobation of any such design; and I recollect, too, that private explanations were desired and had on this point from some of the leading men in New England, before the other Colonies would consent to co-operate in any plan for forming a Common-Council for their united protection.

I am further well informed, that, so late as autumn, 1775, most of the Colonies still preserved their allegiance; and that it was not till after the prohibitory bill had passed, and the burning of the towns on the sea coast, that the idea of independency was ever held out as a *favorite* or *popular* topic. If, therefore, America, trained to arms and aroused by the repeated injuries it has received, should prove successful in the course of the present campaign, or should be able to protract the war to another year, I will venture to foretell, without the gift of prophecy, that she will never again be brought back to acknowledge a state of dependency on this country; and that the *whole force* of Great Britain will not *be able to compel her to it.*

The leading article was not yet in vogue. A newspaper was mainly a composition of paragraphs of news, of letters to the editor, and of advertisements. In the same number of the *Gazetteer* in which the Virginia Planter's letter appeared, there is what is nowadays called a leader. In this the editor adopts the views of a correspondent who severely criticises the ministers of the day in their actions towards the American Colonies. Especially caustic are the denunciations of the Colonial Secretary of the day, Lord George Germain. The following extract will show that, even in England, the course taken by the British Government was, in some quarters, vehemently denounced:

"There appears indeed too much reason to fear that all future attempts to reconcile the breach will prove ineffectual; Ministry are determined, and Ministry (continues our correspondent) have hitherto been determined to persist in their violent resolutions: England or America must therefore fall; one or other of these countries are devoted victims of a prostituted act of the most abandoned st——n that ever cursed this or any other k——m. A Minister, who in the field disgraced the British troops on the plains of Minden; he, it is, ye Britons, who is rewarded for his cowardice with one of the most important offices in the State. Lord George Germain has now the bravery to load the American leaders in the Cabinet with every vile and opprobrious appellation, who in the field he would tremble to meet. We cannot, however, forbear to admire his Lordship's policy in holding a situation wherein he can exercise the thunder of his eloquence, without any dread of the consequence. He can bestow the epithet of rebel, and forget that himself is a cowardly runaway, whose heroism can extend no farther than blustering declamation. But a dissection of his Lordship's character as a soldier and a statesman will be too wide a field for us to enter into within this narrow compass; we will therefore quit the subject, and once more repeat our regret that such a man should direct our councils, who has proved himself divested of those delicate feelings which ought to characterize the man who is entrusted with the honour of a nation."

In a subsequent issue the Colonial Secretary is referred to as Lord George *Minden.*

The *Gazetteer* was not the only paper that was down upon Lord George. The *Morning Post* of the 10th of August said: "Lord George Germain has taken advantage of the late dispatches, to show that his plan of the war, to carry it on entirely from Canada, was right; and would have been attended with all those effects which he pointed out; he has mentioned this so often to the King, that his Majesty is tired of both him and his plan."

Things were really in such a parlous state that it does not seem to have surprised any one when the news arrived that the Colonies had declared their independence. On the 12th of August the papers each and all appearing on that day contained, in identical words, the folowing paragraph: "Advice is received, that the Congress resolved upon Independence the 4th of July, and, it is said, have declared war against Great Britain in form." A mail from America had reached London the day before which had been brought to Falmouth from New York, by the *Mercury* packet-boat. It seems reasonable to suppose that the short paragraph above quoted, that went the round of the papers, was a *communiqué* from the Government. Had there been an organized agency for collecting news, it could hardly have failed to post the press as to the contents of the Declaration itself.

On the 13th of August the *Gazetteer* published the following items:

"By a private letter received by the *Mercury* packet we are informed, when the Congress resolved upon independence, there were present several foreigners of different nations, amongst whom were some persons of distinction from the Courts of Versailles and Madrid.

"A correspondence, we are assured, has been carried on between the Delegates of the American Congress and our natural enemies, the French and Spaniards, and that it was in consequence of the latter promising to give the former every assistance in their power, that the Americans declared for independence.

"As soon as the Colonies declared themselves independent States, two foreign vessels, which were at Philadelphia, slipped their cables, and sailed with the intelligence to the above courts.

"By a private letter from Philadelphia we have advice, that the Congress had made a great naval promotion, viz., two Admirals, two Commodores, and several captains."

The *Morning Chronicle and London Advertiser* of August 14 said:

"Copies of the Declarations of War by the Provincials are now in Town, and are said to be couched in the strongest terms—that having now drawn the sword in defence of all that is dear to them, they are determined never to sheath it till a full compensation is made for the cruel oppressions they have sustained.

"It is said the American Provinces have not only declared themselves independent, but that they have sent memorials thereof, and of their proceedings, to most of the Courts in Europe."

In the same number of the *Morning Chronicle* is printed the Report, dated New London Harbour, April 9, 1776, made to Congress by Commodore Esech. Hopkins, of the operations of his fleet. There is also this ominous paragraph, bearing upon the attitude of France:

"Express upon express, and those of a very interesting Nature, are hourly arriving from our Ambassador at Paris, and Mr. St. Paul is detained here to explain them. Lord Stormont is certainly trifled with by the French Court, and our Ministry, it is said, have not the spirit to demand a categorical answer to a requisition they have made, respecting certain armaments getting ready at the various seaports. The French are between hawk and buzzard, whether to sign and avow a treaty with the American Congress, before the event of the seizure of New York, or to declare them rebels to their parent state, the point to which Lord Stormont is instructed to fix them; but no definitive answer, it seems, is likely to be obtained."

The full text of the Declaration of Independence is first found in the *British Chronicle* for August 14-16. There it appears with the subscription, "signed by Order, and in behalf of the Congress, *John Hancock, President. Attest, Charles Thomson, Secretary.*" A few days afterwards another paper

published it. On the 15th of August the *Morning Post* treated its readers to the following lively paragraph about the leading men of the newly born American nation:

"Arnold, the Commander-in-Chief of the rebels in Canada, once kept the Intelligence Office in the archway leading from St. Paul's churchyard to Doctors Commons, and having in an intrigue with a certain citizen's wife expended more than his finances would admit, was tempted to try his fortune on the highway. This step obliged him to decamp, and to take up his residence among the saints, a race of men among whom such conduct can hardly be held disgraceful, as they derive their origin principally from pickpockets and reprieved felons. Accordingly, as no better man could be found in this land of heroes, he was opposed to Carleton. Plunder being the object of the Congress in the expedition to Canada, they chose, with great propriety, a thief and a robber for the leader.—Hancock, the President of the Congress, is a ruined, and therefore a discontented, smuggler.—Adams, a pettifogger, was, for want of common honesty, refused a place under government.—Lee, because not appointed to a regiment out of his turn, joined these desperadoes. May we not justly apply to such wretches the words of Gamaliel on a similar occasion?—'Ye men of Israel, take heed to yourselves what ye intend to do as touching these men. For before these days rose up Theudas, boasting himself to be somebody, to whom a number of men, about four hundred, joined themselves; who was slain, and all, as many as obeyed him, were scattered and brought to nought. After this man rose up Judas of Galilee, *in the days of the taxing*, and drew away much people after him; he also perished, and all, even as many as obeyed him, were dispersed.' Have we not reason to believe that Washington and Putnam, the Judas and Theudas of America, will share the same fate? The hand of heaven must be against unnatural rebels, who, in hopes of repairing their own ruined fortunes, bring famine, nakedness, and the sword upon a deluded multitude."

Having regard to the racy nature of some of the paragraphs in the *Morning Post* of that era, one hardly expected to find the editor quoting Scripture for the edification of his readers. Of course Franklin did not go unnoticed. Of him the *Morning Chronicle* of the 16th of August had the following mention:

"A correspondent says that Dr. Franklin, when in England, got himself appointed Post Master of half America—his son Governor of New Jersey; and his friend Stamp Master of Pennsylvania. That being returned to Philadelphia, he obtained a seat in the Congress, whilst his son remained Governor of New Jersey, and stickler for the measures of Administration, whereby he is become so dangerous and detestable to the people, that they have taken him into custody, and sent him prisoner to Connecticut. By this manœuvre of Dr. Franklin, if the Americans prevail, then he is the patriot that saved them. If the Crown prevails, then his son, the Governor, is to be rewarded for his services, and for the persecution that he suffers. So that, let who will triumph, the Doctor and his family will be on the right side."

The writer little knew that Franklin lamented that his son's craving for being styled "His Excellency" had kept him on the Loyalist side.

Of Paine's pamphlet entitled 'Common Sense,' the *Morning Post* of the 19th of August says, attributing it to Franklin:

"No less than 46,000 of the pamphlet called *Common Sense* have been printed and dispersed in different parts of America, which has been attended with a greater effect than any other public performance of the kind that ever appeared in any country, and gave the decisive spirit for independency.

"The Queen once found the Prince of Wales reading Dr. Franklin's pamphlet, *Common Sense;* she expressed her disapprobation, and asked him who put it into his hands. He answered *Nobody.* Where did you get it? *I don't know.* When did you see it first? *I can't tell.* Who has seen you reading it? *I know nothing at all of the matter.* It seems clearly from hence no easy task to get anything out of his Royal Highness that he does not wish to communicate."

At last we come upon some expression of editorial opinion upon the Declaration of Independence. It is in the following short paragraph in the *Morning Post* of Monday, the 19th of August:

"The Congress have acted with the utmost impolicy, in declaring the United Colonies free and independent States: for, after such an avowal of their Republican principles, every European Power must now abandon them to the punishment due to their Villainy and folly."

In the *Gazetteer* of the same day is a longer paragraph, inspired by a correspondent, in which it is declared that

"We have lost America for ever: hopes of a reconciliation are fled even from those who have plunged us into these distresses. The secret counsels of a few are the cause of all this mischief: and it becomes the public of all ranks to turn their eyes and attention to those few, and make them answerable for their conduct. . . . The people cry out to their Sovereign for the lives of their fellow subjects, lost in a fruitless, inglorious, contest. They cry out for justice against those by whose counsels half the British Empire is lost, the treasures of the nation wasted, its forces employed in wreaking the revenge of a few, the safety of the kingdom endangered, and the reputation both of Prince and people tarnished in the eyes of all Europe."

The *Morning Post* of the 20th of August published "A Reply to the Declaration of the Representatives of the Disunited States in America, in Congress Assembled," as supplied to the editor by a correspondent. In the same issue appears the following paragraph:

"The Congress, we are credibly informed, have erected an honorable military order, as a spur to the abilities of the Provincial officers; it is called the order of Independency; and it is to consist of the President, the Hon. John Hancock, Esq.; and twenty-four Knights Companions;—the three following are invested with it, viz., Gens. Washington, Putnam, and Wooster—they wear the silver star, with five points, on the left breast, and an apple-green ribbon across the right shoulder, with the figure of America sacrificing at the shrine of liberty."

On the 20th of August the *Gazetteer*, again inspired by a correspondent, had an article almost of the length of a leading article of our day. The following extract from it seems not altogether inapplicable to the present condition of affairs with regard to Cuba:

"The trade with America we have irrecoverably lost, and our good friends, the French and Spaniards, are at length in quiet possession of that inexhaustible mine of treasure. They now enjoy unmolested what they have a long time secretly endeavored to obtain." . . . "The American trade has too many allurements to escape the attention and pursuit of the French and Spanish Courts. They laugh at the idea of our Ministry, in expecting to withhold the intercourse of commerce upon a private dispute between a King and his subjects, as to the last degree absurd. But to carry on that farce, they will amuse us with promises which they have no intention to keep, and feed our Ministry with vain expectations of neutrality."

The views of those who did not approve of the policy of the Government are completely summarized in a sarcastic paragraph in the *Morning Post* of the 21st of August. Therein it is reported that a subscription had just been set on foot by the Patriotic Party, "to purchase the remainder of the *scaffolding* in Westminster Hall, *for the use of the Ministry.*" D. D.

Correspondence.

THE SPANISH MINISTER'S LETTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir:

WHAT WASHINGTON WOULD HAVE SAID.

(*Coldly.*) "I cannot allow the amicable relations of two countries to be impaired by anything which an officer of Spain may have said in his private official correspondence concerning my personal character. There is no reason for me to suppose that either his Catholic Majesty or his Ministers approved of the letter or will approve it, or that they will sanction its publication. I desire that the subject be not again referred to."

WHAT LINCOLN WOULD HAVE SAID.

"Well, I am sorry that this Mr. De Lome hadn't a better opinion of me. I reckon that he must have been reading the newspapers about that time. But, you know, it isn't the writing of a thing which constitutes a libel; it is the publishing it. Therefore, the question is, whether Mr. De Lome stole his own letter and gave it to somebody to give it to the newspapers." X.

Washington, February, 1898.

THE STRATEGY OF HAWAII.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Without entering for a moment into the merits of the Hawaiian question, will you permit me to say a word as to the strategic questions involved? They cannot be so summarily pushed aside as your Seattle correspondent, in the last issue of the *Nation*, thinks.

A naval defence of the Hawaiian Islands and of all our Pacific Coast is limited to one issue or objective—the enemy's fleet. Wherever this fleet and attacking force is met and fought, there the question of the defence of our Pacific possessions is met and settled. If the enemy's fleet is met and reduced to a non-effective condition—whether that be done in mid-ocean, off the coast of Alaska, or at the mouth of the Columbia River—then Alaska, Hawaii, and the coast of our Pacific States has been successfully defended.

A division of the enemy's attacking fleet for the purpose of threatening two places would be a military blunder and subject it to be beaten in detail. C. H. S.

30 Kay Street, Newport, R. I.,
February 11, 1898.

"STILLMAN'S ESSAYS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Nobody can be more fully aware than I of the uselessness of kicking against the

pricks of criticism, or as a rule more indifferent to critical attacks in malice, or more attentive to just strictures; but the misrepresentation of my views in the review of 'The Old Rome and the New' in the *Nation* of January 13 makes it obligatory on me to protest.

I have never objected to artists drawing from or studying nature as much as they please, but to the habit of depending on the model, or the facts of nature, in their painting. I say, in an article which is a criticism of Ruskin's theory, and not the statement of my own:

"Ruskin's feeling as to art may have been *au fond* correct, but it was so disturbed and perverted by his theories and the settled conviction that art was simply the uncompromising rendering of Nature as she appears to the bodily vision, that he left out of all consideration *the subjective transformation of natural truth which is the basis of art;* or, if he reckoned it in, it was to persuade himself that it was due to a peculiarity of vision in the painter."

And again:

"Art does not lie in representing Nature, but in the *manner* of representing her, and may *equally* be employed in invented and conventionalized forms *as in repeating hers.*"

In the two essays in which I state my own theories there occur the following passages:

"*But science and nature cannot go wrong,* . . . and as I am not without hope that Science may some day show us immortality, and that matter is not all, so I trust that we shall find even in the Actual the proof that the Ideal is something better and nobler than the Actual's accidental results, and that Art is *no more* bound to follow nature than Religion to serve Science." "Painting and sculpture are materialized *by their subjection to the facts of nature. They draw their language, the prime elements of their creation, from a visible world, so full in its vocabulary that the artist cannot escape from the suggestion of its terms, if he would be understood.* Color is, and in its highest expressions can only be, subjective, to be treated like music, orchestrally; but the *element of form is necessarily dependent on Nature for the intelligibility of its terms and types, the artist having only the faculty of exalting and refining her forms into what we recognize as the ideal;* but the essential condition of all of the arts of design becoming true art is in their being expression, not imitation. . . . *The idealist gets his materials from nature, but he recasts them in expression;* the realist who is no artist repeats them as he gets them. This is the fundamental distinction in all design; the copyist is not an artist. It is this, and not the choice of subject, or the more or less decided tendency of a painter or a school, which constitutes the distinction between 'high,' or true, art and 'low,' or spurious, art; the test is not in fidelity to nature, but to one's own self. . . . Not that the distinction can be drawn sharply, so that we can in every case say that painters shall fall in one or the other category; *but just in the proportion that an artist depends on his model or the actual material furnished by nature, so he is removed from pure art.* The essential conditions of a true art education, if we are to develop a genuine school, are the cultivation, *above all others,* of the faculties of rapid observation and *retention of the significant facts,* and putting before the eye the essential truths of what was seen, memorizing the flitting panorama of nature and training the power of conception and the imagination by exercising and depending on them. . . . To work from knowledge of things, rather than from information of their superficial aspects, is the end to be kept in view: *to get rid of the model as far as is possible* is the first step to the right education; *dependence on the model* the obstacle to it."

The clear meaning of what I have said is, that the *scientific* study of nature is a stumbling-block to the artist, who is only interested in knowing how things look and in conveying the impression they give, and that literal copying of nature is not art.

Yours truly, W. J. Stillman.

Rome, January 27, 1898.

[We are very sorry that Mr. Stillman should feel that he has been misrepresented, and gladly afford him this opportunity to explain his position. We expressly conceded that he probably did not hold the extreme views which might be logically deduced from some of his statements, and from the premise of his definition of art.—Ed. Nation.]

PORCHER'S MARCUS AURELIUS ANTONINUS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Walter Lee Brown's letter in the *Nation* of February 10 sheds abundant light on C. L. Porcher's editions of the 'Meditations of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus.' He has shown "C. L. Porcher" to be Capel Lofft, and has given interesting details of his biography and work. He has, in fact, done more than he claims. For, when he spends a paragraph in suggestions about the sources of the name "Porcher," he overlooks the fact that he has already given the indisputable reason for it. He has stated that the copy in the Astor Library, inscribed and presented by Lofft himself, has on the title "Porcher" lined out, followed by "=Stoic." This plainly indicates that "Porcher" means "man of the Porch or Stoa." It is superfluous, then, to speculate about Lofft's possible acquaintance with one of the Southern family of Porchers, who are of Huguenot descent.

As regards the Latin phrase marking the date, "A. Liberatæ Reip. I." appears to have been used first to denote 1861, and afterwards 1863. May not the Stoic scholar have regarded the American republic as practically freed from slavery by the secession of the bulk of the slaveholding States in 1861, or by the war then begun? Many Americans at that time so regarded the case. President Lincoln, however, then declared otherwise; but in 1863 he issued his Emancipation Proclamation, and Lofft may have felt that he had now official sanction for his style of dating. His residence in the South after the war does not indicate pro-slavery feeling.

J. P. Lamberton.

Philadelphia, February 12, 1898.

A VERSE VULGARISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The suppression of final *g* in the ending of English participles and verbal nouns is one of the commonest of vulgarisms. To call forms so abridged provincial would be absurd, since they are found not only in the low life, but also among the careless speakers of every locality in England and America. Paddies, Cockneys, Down-Easters, Bowery boys, Hoosiers, Crackers, and negroes—indeed, all natural economists in speech—drop with impunity the final *g* of weak syllables. This omission of the guttural has, in course of time, come to be regarded as sanctified to the uses of those who dwell in or make constant excursions into the slums of language. But it has a higher province. The purpose of this slight contribution is to indicate the frequency of the elision in verse, and to discuss the part that it plays in the dialect of rimers.

Many writers of light or humorous verse from the time of Samuel Butler have clipped their *g's* for the sake of their rimes. The *Hudibras* abounds in examples: I, i, 915-916, urging, virgin; I, ii, 199-200, discoursing, Orsin; I, iii, 251-252, ragamuffin, huffing; II, ii, 497-498, curmudgin, grudging; II, iii, 33-34, pecking, reckon (a rime that would have delighted Field); III, ii, 451-452, reason, teasing; III, ii, 161-162, doing, ruin; III, ii, 245-246, ruins, outgoings; III, iii, 329-330, maiming, famine. John Gay employs the elision under strong provocation (*Epistle* XII, undoing, ruin). But the poets of our own century have been the chief offenders. Note the occurrence and recurrence of the license in one poem of the *Ingoldsby Legends*, the "Black Mousquetaire": admit in, befitting; divulging, indulge in; delight in, fighting; doing, ruin; urchin, birching; wink in, thinking. Then turn to Thackeray's examples: sudden, scudding (*The White Squall*); piping, snipe in (*Peg of Limavaddy*); drinking, sink in; priest in, feasting (*Legend of St. Sophia*). Charles Lamb presses the elision into service in his *Farewell to Tobacco;* admiring, siren.

The vulgarism is perhaps in keeping with the tone of society verse or with the light ballad movement; but we should hardly expect to find it in serious poetry. In point of fact, the free lances who trample under the hind feet of the measures on which they are mounted all laws of word-stress, seem to regard the omission of the final *g* as the very least of irregularities. The greatest enemies of rigid verse and true rime among poets of established position—if we limit ourselves to the present century—have been, I think we shall all agree, Leigh Hunt, Byron, Mrs. Browning, and our own Whittier. In all these the elision is common; in the poetess it is rampant. Hunt rimes emerging and virgin (*Story of Rimini*), snapping and rap in (*Feast of Poets*), shining and wine in (*To J. H.*), and bobbing and Robin (*To J. H.*). It is dangerous, particularly in the case before us, to assert a negative, yet I feel safe in saying that there are no similar rimes in Keats, who, as a member of Hunt's "Cockney School," would naturally employ them; nor do I find them in Shelley. Byron has the excuse of his Bernesque tone for the occurrence of the false rime in *Beppo* and *Don Juan*. Indeed, he uses it generally in laughing mood: *Beppo*, VI, agreeing, glee in; XXXIX, charming, alarming, harm in; *Don Juan*, V, xlvi, building, gilding, skilled in; V, cxviii, liking, striking, pike in; V, cxxx, imagine, waging, raging; V, cli, according, sword in, wording; XI, xxxviii, Erin, wearing (with the last rime compare Campbell's *Exile of Erin*, I—Erin, repairing—where the Scotchman uses a rich Milesian brogue very applicable to the actions of his wanderer).

Yet in verse Byron is a martinet beside Mrs. Browning. Long since, Edgar Allan Poe raised his voice in protest against the multiplicity of inadmissible rimes in the *Drama of Exile*. "We would wish," he said (Stedman and Woodberry Ed. VI, 312), "that she had not thought it proper to couple Eden and succeeding, . . . taming and overcame him, coming and woman, . . . children and bewildering." Other such rimes are as numerous in her works as occurrences of wip and lip in the *Nibelungen Lied: Drama of Exile*, sleeping, ankle-deep in; praying, day in; *Lady*

Geraldine's Courtship, woman, gloaming; admiring, iron; *Cry of the Children*, IX, resounding, round him; XI, heaven, unbelieving; *Fourfold Aspect*, bounding, round him; *Hector in Garden*, XIII, ruin, renewing; *Lost Bower*, XXIX, linen, winning; XXXV, hushing, cushion; XXXVIII, waken, overtaking; *Wine of Cyprus*, III, deep in, leaping; XV, Nazianzen, glancing; XVII, morning, shone in; *Cry of the Human*, II, human, coming; X, live in, giving; XIII, beholding, golden (compare *Mourning Mother*, II); *A Flower in a Letter*, XI, rewarding, garden; *The Dead Pan*, VI, flowing, slow in; XII, golden, infolding; XVI, driven, heaving; XXVII, Sion, dying; XXVIII, alone in, moaning; XXXIX, nothing, truth in; *A Child's Grave*, played in, fading; XXVIII, spring in, singing; XXXI, falling, all in. The frequency of such rimes invites the almost flippant inquiry, "Did Mrs. Browning drop her *g's* in ordinary conversation?" This unhappy explanation must, however, be abandoned as soon as proposed. The very violence of her riming is—paradox though it seem—the best defence of her pronunciation; couplets like deserting and parting or driven and heaving certainly do not indicate that the poetess said "desarting" or "dreeven" (save the mark!), but simply that the connecting link between her lines is neither a regular assonance nor a rigid rime. Whether the same plea may be made for Whittier is doubtful; for not even the most ardent admirer of the Quaker poet's spontaneous melody can deny that, in his rough-hewn political poems at least, disregard of technique, inaccurate word-use, and faulty construction, and lastly many clumsy verses and rimes, point to a lack of training in the schools. The examples selected are naturally from his polemics: a-darting, Martin (*A Letter*, Cambridge Ed. Works, p. 299); trimming, women (*id.*); lurking, jerkin (*Lines on a Portrait*, 310); brimming, women (*The Shoemakers*, p. 358).

So much for the humorists and verse-libertines. But the vulgarism is not limited to the rimes of these writers: Dryden allows it at the end of his "resounding line," when he couples certain and parting (a Yankeeism noted by Lowell, Introd. 2d Ser. *Biglow Papers*). Such a master of verse as Coleridge condescends to use it (*A Day Dream*, remounting, fountain, humming, woman). Such an artist as Rossetti tolerates it, as in *A Last Confession*, laughing, half in. Sir Walter Scott, in his poem on Helvellyn, rimes the name of the peak with yelling; but the rimer, as well as the lover of scenery, would have to go far to find a match to this mountain (compare Mortimer Collins, *The Ivory Gate*, Stedman's Victorian Anthology, 316, Helvellyn, swelling). In his use of the license, Wordsworth has applied, in an unexpected way, his theory that poetic diction should not differ from the ordinary speech of men. In the weakest stanza that he ever wrote (*Ellen Irwin*, Globe Ed., 152) travelling is coupled with javelin; in the *Seven Sisters*, Globe, 208, Erin with steering (the poet, handle he ever so carefully the rudder of his verse, can hardly hope to escape shipwreck on that coast); and elsewhere in his works we meet together waggon and dragging (*Waggoner*, III, Globe, p. 230), inviting and delight in (*Triad*, Globe, 661), pursuing and ruin (*Furness Abbey*, Globe, 735), coming and omen (*Ode on the Imagination*, Globe, 550). But the *locus classicus* of the vulgarism—and we are almost beginning to doubt its vulgarity—is in the work that stands, as Emerson justly declares, "at the high-water mark of nineteenth-century poetry," the *Ode on the Intimations of Immortality* (Globe, 359):

> "Oh evil day! if I were *sullen*
> While Earth herself is adorning
> This sweet May-morning,
> And the children are *culling*
> In a thousand valleys far and wide
> Fresh flowers."

This is the greatest triumph of the silent *g*.

I think enough has been said to show that the territory of the guttural elision must be extended to embrace many slopes of Parnassus. Length of days and ability to count will, however, enable any one to multiply indefinitely my scanty list of examples.

F. T., Jr.

University of Vermont,
Burlington, February 7, 1898.

[The suppressed *g* partly avenges itself in this country by attaching itself in speech to final syllables in *n*, as "certing," "certingly," for certain, certainly.—Ed. Nation.]

THE PROPER REVISION OF THE PRESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I venture to call your more special attention to a peculiar defect which I have found in many books published in this country, in the hope that you may bring your powerful influence to bear for the correction of the evil. I refer to a class of errors of the press, or rather errors of revision, which is hard to define, but very annoying to the intelligent reader and a serious discredit to American scholarship. I do not mean mistakes in the spelling of common English words, such as should be corrected by the ordinary proof-reader. From these the books of our best publishers are now quite reasonably free. Printers' proof-readers seem to be as efficient and accurate as they could be expected to be for the small wages they receive. But many American books contain errors of a higher order, which the ordinary proof-reader cannot be expected to detect, and does not detect, but which yet seriously diminish the pleasure of the intelligent reader. It would seem that our publishers, even some of the greatest, do not employ competent revisers of the press, but trust wholly to the printer's proof-reader. Now, accurate and comprehensive scholarship is no doubt scarcer and more expensive in America than in Europe. Still, it is becoming more abundant and cheaper every year, and I feel quite sure the time has come when our publishers can afford to have all their important books read by competent revisers. In no other way can they get rid of a class of errors which are misleading to young readers and annoying to more experienced ones, as well as damaging to the reputation of American scholarship.

Some of the mistakes referred to may perhaps seem trifling, and are doubtless often overlooked by careless readers. Sometimes a word is displaced by another of similar appearance—as laws for lands, divided for derived, national for natural, Edwin Burke for Edmund Burke, yield for wield, impart for import, arisen for risen—all of which are found in an excellent book on French politics issued by one of our best publishers. Shown for shone and affect for effect are good specimens of this variety.

Sometimes it is the misplacing of words which makes confusion. In a recent book on Greek history Solon is said to have been "endeavoring to make evil out of good," quite contrary to the received view of his character. Probably the words "good" and "evil" have been transposed. Sometimes it is the omission of a word which does the mischief. I could give several sentences where the word "not" has been omitted. In a recent reprint of a valuable historical work the word "which" has been omitted from one passage, "but" from another, and "than" from a third.

Sometimes it is not easy to say what is the matter with a sentence which is evidently crippled in some way. In a recent work of high rank on the history of the Middle Ages, there are several sentences which, whether from the omission or transposition of words, seem quite devoid of meaning. I puzzled over one of these sentences for half an hour, and at last decided that if "every" were substituted for "the only," the meaning would be restored. But, after all, perhaps the author would not agree with me.

Sometimes, no doubt, errors are chargeable to the author or translator himself, or, rather, to the pernicious practice of requiring the final revision of proofs to be done by the author. He is just the one who ought *not* to do this, because he cannot possibly know the exact limits of his own knowledge. A competent reviser is quite likely to detect errors in fact as well as in word which have escaped the author's notice, and will always have expert assistants at his command for important books. Translators, especially, need constant supervision. One of our great publishing-houses has a book, translated from the Italian, in which there is a curious error illustrating this point, as well as the general subject. The reader of this book finds himself suddenly stumbling over the name Evemero. Obviously the translator found it in the text and did not recognize it or know what to do with it, and so transferred it bodily to his English translation. The proof-reader, of course, did not recognize it either, and let it stand. Probably many young readers have puzzled over it and looked for it in their dictionaries in vain. But the experienced reviser would know that Evemero is merely the Italian form of the name Euhemerus, and that the allusion is to the Euhemeristic theory of the origin of the gods.

Many other examples of like errors might be looked up in the books of even our best publishers, especially of the last and most important class mentioned, those in which the author himself needs some one to stand between him and the printer. They have not learned that business ability and scholarship are quite different things, seldom coexisting in the same person, and that both are necessary to the proper management of a great publishing-house. They often lose money on worthless books whose worthlessness they might have found out easily beforehand, and they often issue important books in a way which is no credit to them, because they do not understand what competent revision is, or will not pay the cost of it.

Hoping that you will agree with me on this subject, and will give the publishers some *ex-cathedra* advice about it, I remain,

Yours fraternally, Rusticus.

Campbell, Cal., January 5, 1898.

DREYFUS AND THE JESUITS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me to say that your note on p. 41 ("The rioting in Paris indicates only two things," etc.) is not correct. Parisians at large don't believe that Dreyfus was a spy; they don't believe, either, that the present row is kicked up by the Jews. In fact, Parisians at large don't riot, and don't recommend that somebody should be spat upon. They are attentive, anxious, and they wait.

The rioters and the "spitters" are nothing but the pupils and the servants of the Jesuits. These worthies have a far greater influence on French politics than the "haute finance." About fifteen years ago they contrived to get under their control a good part of our War Office, from which unbelievers, Protestants and Jews, have been slowly but surely removed. They know that the impending rehabilitation of an innocent man, who was condemned because he was a Jew and for no other reason, is a big stone menacing their supremacy, so they are fighting desperately, and spending lots of money to make people believe (1) that Dreyfus really betrayed; (2) that his partisans are either Jews or writers hired by Jews. As that wicked nonsense cannot last, the money of the Jesuits will be spent in vain. Perhaps when France recovers from her present nightmare, and things are investigated in a calm spirit, we shall hear very curious facts about the good Fathers and their loathsome protégé, M. Édouard Drumont.

Truly yours, Salomon Reinach.

Château de Saint Germain en-Laye,
February 2, 1898.

Notes.

A new series of scientific books, edited by Prof. Cattell of Columbia University, in coöperation with Frank Evers Beddard in England, will soon be begun by Messrs. Putnam. 'The Stars,' by Prof. Newcomb; 'The Earth as a Planet,' by Prof. Young; 'Earth Structure,' by Prof. James Geikie; 'Volcanoes,' by Prof. Bonney; 'The History of Science,' by Charles S. Peirce; 'Age, Growth, Sex, and Death,' by Prof. Charles S. Minot, are some of the titles already announced. The same house will shortly have ready an American edition of 'Le Soutien de Famille,' Daudet's last work, under the title of 'The Wage-Earner.'

Henry Holt & Co. promise early publication of a 'Primer of the Bible,' by W. H. Bennett, a compact manual for those who wish to study the Bible in the light of contemporary criticism. They are the American publishers of 'Turgeneff and his French Circle,' which we mentioned last week in Mr. Fisher Unwin's London list.

'The Essentials of Argument,' by E. J. MacEwan, M.A., is soon to appear with the imprint of D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

'In King's Houses, or the Adventures of Robin Sandys,' by Mrs. Julia C. R. Dorr, is announced by L. C. Page & Co., Boston.

If all the first-fruits of Greater New York were equal in quality to the 'First Report of a Book-Collector,' which Dodd, Mead & Co. announce for issue on February 18, there would be cause for rejoicing. Mr. William Harris Arnold, who relates his brief but successful experience in collecting, has chosen to seek a printer at the Marion Press, of whose productions and high standard our readers know something, but which now first can display the imprint "Jamaica, Queensborough, New York." Mr. Hopkins's Long Island establishment has, in other words, been annexed to Mr. Croker's domain. Mr. Arnold's gossip is light, practical, and entertaining, and is attended by a scientific description of the principal "book worms" of the destructive class. What, besides the hand-made paper, the fine execution of the letter-press, and the elegant vellum binding, most distinguishes the book, however, is the rich variety of facsimiles of leaves, title-pages, MS., and so forth, chiefly drawn from Mr. Arnold's accumulation, pertinently bound in with the text, as well as some original leaves to show their successful mending, the cleansing of foxing, the ravages of worms, etc., along with fragments of booksellers' and auctioneers' catalogues, a portrait of Mr. Quaritch, etc. These alone would delight any owner of one of the eighty-five copies to which Mr. Arnold's pretty conception is limited.

We have noticed in instalments the progress of the admirable 'Encyclopædia of Sport,' edited by the Earl of Suffolk and Berkshire, Hedley Peek, and F. G. Aflalo (Putnams). The first volume (A-Leo) makes a truly noble appearance, with its clear text, its numerous full-page plates, and abundant process cuts from nature and from drawings. The binding is a simple green cloth.

An index must be judged a sufficient excuse for a new edition of any book worth issuing at all. This has been provided for the late George Hooper's popular and readable 'Campaign of Sedan—The Downfall of the Second Empire, August-September, 1870' (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan), originally published in 1887. Some errors have been corrected, too, and the author's style would have borne a little overhauling; but there has been no general revision. Military maps of Woerth, Spicheren, Colombey-Nouilly, Vionville-Mars-la-Tour, Gravelotte, Sedan, and the warfield as a whole, are grouped at the end, and will be found convenient.

The third bound volume of the *Monthly Bulletin* of the Providence Public Library is a monument to Mr. Foster's rare industry and intelligence in catering for his readers. The richly annotated Reference Lists are continued, with a timeliness witnessed by the titles Crete and Modern Greece, William Bradford and Plymouth Colony, Cabot Bibliography, Hawaiian Islands, Alaska, and British India and England's Interest in Asia. Along with these are lists for Wordsworth, Tennyson, and Scott, really interesting from the pithy judgments of critics and editors appended to the titles; and in the case of Scott an appendix arranges the Waverley Novels chronologically, and gives very full details about the composition of each. There are also Special Catalogues on a variety of subjects, a survey of the books of the year in history, and an index of the periodicals taken by twenty libraries and reading-rooms in Providence. A triple index unlocks these treasures.

From the Reynolds Library, Rochester, N. Y., we have its new 'Reference Catalogue,' which has, of course, a value for other institutions. It is "a classified list of all the books in the Reference department, together with books in the Circulating department which are believed to be useful for consultation." The five classes thus composed are: Bibliography, Encyclopædias, General Treatises, Periodicals and Reviews, Society Transactions and Publications, Public Documents. An author-index and a subject-index complete the scheme. It should be remarked that the typography of this volume is elegant, and yet each title has been set by the linotype machine, in order that an enlarged edition may hereafter be possible at a moderate cost. The authors' names are set in small capitals, and italics are freely used. The full-face captions of divisions and subdivisions have of course been set by hand. Altogether, one would never suspect machine work.

A second, revised edition of a 'List of Books recommended for a High-School Classical Library,' prepared by a committee of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club, has just been issued by Macmillan. It is a thin pamphlet of thirty-odd pages, selling at ten cents.

The volume of the complete works of Victor Hugo, which has recently come from Hetzel, Paris, is entitled 'En Voyage: France et Belgique.' It is pleasant reading, of a reminiscent character, for it recalls strongly the once famous letters on the Rhine, with their wealth of descriptions of everything mediæval, whether castle, abbey, cathedral, or private house. The Middle Ages were evidently the one preoccupation of Hugo at that period of his life. Though he had had a classical education, and had always a respect for the greatest works of classicism, still it was the picturesque and mysterious Middle Ages that claimed his admiration and awoke his enthusiasm. And this enthusiasm bore other and better fruit than the ballads and drawings which came into fashion as a consequence; it helped largely to draw attention to the beauty and value of the Gothic monuments in which France is so rich, and aided the movement to secure them against further degradation and destruction. In the present volume many instances of this form of Hugo's influence are to be noticed.

We hear less and less nowadays of the Symbolists and the Decadents—not that they have wholly vanished from the field of letters, but that many of them can no longer excite the enthusiasm they once awoke in tender hearts and not over-strong brains. Verlaine himself is not enjoying quite such a reputation as was manufactured for him, and it may well be that he in turn will pass out of sight like many another better and purer poet. He will leave some lines to be quoted in anthologies, as one quotes Villon, but it is possible that this will prove the limit of his fame. And of the other less notorious writers who at one time attracted so much attention, what shall remain? Of Maeterlinck? Of Moréas? Of Mallarmé? They have striven after and occasionally attained new and quaint combinations of verse or words or letters, but they have not renovated poesy and they have not displaced the ancient idols. They have often been absurd, usually unintelligible. They have been violently criticised and as vehemently adored and praised. It is pleasant, therefore, to come upon a review of their efforts and of the task fulfilled by them in a work written by one of themselves, who nevertheless does not go into constant ecstasies concerning himself and them. E. Vigié-Lecocq's 'La Poésie Contemporaine' (Paris: Société du *Mercure de France*) is a book well worth reading, inasmuch as it sets out in serious fashion to explain what the school

has sought to do and how it set about doing it. It tells much that is interesting and useful to know, and modifies in some essential respects judgments formerly delivered on the points raised.

During the past summer the semi-defunct alumni associations of the various departments of the University of Michigan united and formed a vigorous general society. To membership are eligible the graduates of any department of the University, as also non-graduates who have been absent from the University for some years. The association has a paid secretary, who devotes his time to the interests of the association and of the University. The *Michigan Alumnus*, hitherto a private magazine, has just become the property of the association, and is sent free to all who pay the annual membership fee of one dollar. These various steps are the culmination of the earnest efforts of alumni who have long observed and regretted the weakness that has come from division, and much good is expected to result from the new organization.

All who are interested in classical studies will read with intense interest the first number of the new series of the *American Journal of Archæology*. It consists in the main of the first annual report of the managing committee of the American School of Classical Studies in Rome. Professor Hale's story of the year's promising doings culminates in the discovery at the Vatican of an overlooked Catullus MS. which appears to take equal rank with those of Oxford and Paris, and which the Vatican will now publish. Professor Frothingham tells of his survey of Norba, and tracing of ancient roads connecting the city with others of the Volscian League—a work which foreshadows important revelations hereafter when the Italian Government undertakes the excavations which it denies to foreigners—and of the casts made from Trajan's arch at Beneventum, which are a most desirable addition to collections of Roman sculpture. A page of the Catullus, a full view of and a charming group from the arch, with plans and elevations of the Villa Cheremeteff, the new home of the School, to which all must wish a long and prosperous life, adorn the number.

The principal contents of the *Annales de Géographie* for January are the conclusion of the account of the climate of Eastern Siberia as compared with that of North America in the same latitudes, descriptions of the physical features of southern Provence and the great desert of Australia, and an historical and statistical account of the European agricultural colonization of Algeria. The time of settlement of every important village, in each of the departments, and the number of the original colonists and the present number is given. From this it appears that in 1896 there were nearly 200,000 white farmers, a decrease of about 8,000 within the past eight years. The accompanying map shows the area under cultivation, which, relatively to the arable land, is very small.

An interesting case of coöperation in a public cause is just now being witnessed at Munich, where sixty artists of reputation have agreed to furnish, by the 7th of October next, portraits of distinguished men and women—actors and actresses, composers and musical directors, etc.—who have been connected with the Royal Court and National Theatre since its opening on October 7, 1778. A score of academy professors, among them Lenbach, Defregger, Habermann, Gabriel Max, Uhde, Franz Stuck, Gruetzner, head the list of contributors. The portraits are to be hung in the foyer and other accessible places in the theatre.

With something less than his usual promptness, but with his customary skill, Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, produces an imperial panel photograph of the late Henry George (a native of that city), which will be acceptable to a large circle of this writer's admirers.

—We are accustomed to look, in President Eliot's annual reports, for ingenious and suggestive statistics. His latest is no exception in this particular, and we single out his revelations concerning "the increasing number of students admitted to the University for short periods of residence, like one year or two years, who nevertheless obtain some degree from the University, and not infrequently a highly honorable degree like that of Master of Arts." He shows that in the College proper the work of the men admitted to junior and senior standing in the past decade "has been decidedly higher than that of the Harvard undergraduates in the year 1896-'97 as a whole, or that of the senior class of 1897." He shows, further, for the Graduate School, that the rating of the short-residence men who enter it from other colleges, is likewise much higher than the average rating of undergraduates, though it falls below that of Harvard College graduates who pass directly to the Graduate School. The Divinity School tells a similar tale, and President Eliot concludes, justly and wisely, that "there is reason to regard [these short-residence students] with high favor, and make them welcome in every possible way." We will add that a contrary showing would not have diminished one iota the reasonableness of such welcome.

—The implied motive of President Eliot's inquiry is the notion entertained by "some persons" that the significance of the Harvard degrees is impaired by their being won by outsiders in so brief a connection. He does not hint that academic chauvinism lies at the base of such a notion, but we apprehend that it does. This chauvinism is manifest, as we write, in the jealousy of the College towards the University, respecting participation in the election of Overseers by all branches of the University. In consequence of a strong appeal for such an extension of the suffrage, the Board of Overseers, by a narrow majority, approached the Massachusetts Legislature for a change in the law of its constituency. This action aroused so intense a feeling of opposition that at a special meeting last week the Board suspended its action till the collegiate alumni could be more thoroughly canvassed. A temporary check to the movement is to be anticipated, on grounds which, except as purely sentimental, pass our comprehension. Not to invite accessions to the student force of the University in all its branches from all quarters; not to foster the fashion of seeking a polishing-off at Harvard; not to fix the affiliation of short-residence and professional-school men to Harvard "in every possible way," in order that their children may tend to follow in the same path and their benefactions to seek the more honored alma mater—this seems to us deplorable narrowness and shortsightedness. The fears expressed seem almost incredible when we consider that the votes actually cast and counted for Overseers are cast only in person on Commencement day, so that the constituency will hardly be perceptibly changed.

—In volume v. of the Harvard "Studies and Notes in Philology and Literature" Prof. Kittredge lays before us the full evidence in support of his identification of Sir Thomas Malory, which he first made public on March 15, 1894, at a meeting held at Columbia College in honor of Friedrich Diez, and shortly after printed in a brief article on Malory in volume v. of 'Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia.' Prof. Kittredge identifies the author of the 'Morte Darthur' with Sir Thomas Malory, knight of Newbold Revell (or Fanny Newbold), who was M. P. for Warwickshire in 1445. This Sir Thomas answers all the conditions, and although Prof. Kittredge's lists would make it appear that the woods of England have from time immemorial swarmed with Malorys, no other appears whose claims can compete with those of this one. We will refer our readers to the article itself for all technical details, and will content ourselves with saying that the life of our author does not need to be reconstructed from scattered scraps of information. It has long been accessible in Dugdale's 'Antiquities of Warwickshire,' first published in 1656. His ancestors were lords of Draughton in Northamptonshire in the 13th century, and his father, John Malory, was Sheriff of Leicestershire and Warwickshire, Escheator, and Knight of the Shire of Warwick in the Parliament of 1413. There can be no doubt that Sir Thomas received a gentleman's education according to the ideas of the fifteenth century, of which the ability to read and write French as well as to speak it was an essential. When a young man, he served in France under Richard Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, that chivalrous Knight whom Emperor Sigismund christened "The Father of Courtesy." In 1445 we find Sir Thomas a knight and sitting in Parliament for his county. Some years later he was conspicuous on the Lancastrian side in the War of the Roses. He died March 14, 1470, advanced in years, and, when Dugdale wrote, lay "buryed under a marble in the Chappell of St. Francis at the Gray Friars, near New Gate in the Suburbs of London." He left a widow, Elizabeth Malory, and a grandson Nicholas, who died without male heirs. Satisfactory as are Prof. Kittredge's arguments, one would like to know how he explains the fact that Dugdale, who knew so much of the life of Sir Thomas, appears to know nothing of his authorship of the 'Morte Darthur.'

—The usual Christmas gift to the members of the Goethe Gesellschaft has, for 1897, taken the shape of another album of drawings and portraits from the collections of the Goethe Museum in Weimar. This is the twelfth volume of the *Schriften*. Of these albums Dr. Carl Ruland is *ex officio* editor and furnishes the interesting introduction. When the tenth volume, likewise an album, was published, it was the well-defined intention of the committee to follow it up with similar revelations from the museum treasures. The present volume marks another step towards the accomplishment of this design. Examples of Goethe's own attempts in art and portraits of the noted men who were members of his circle, or whose paths intersected it, make up twenty-five plates. The first sheet of this collection has a peculiar

charm. The damaged state of the original has heretofore rendered reproduction impossible. Now we have a sketch by the poet's own hand of the romantic vicarage at Sesenheim. Riemer saw this drawing in 1814, and has recorded that upon the reverse side stood some words in Frederike's own handwriting. The sheet had been mounted on stout paper and the writing hidden, but now, after the lapse of more than a century and a quarter, there has been brought to view and here reproduced what is probably the only specimen of Frederike's handwriting from those happy autumn days of 1770. It is a girlish scrawl: "Monsieur—Monsieur Goethe à Strasbourg."

—Goethe had long intended to publish an edition of his 'Italian Journey,' illustrated by himself. He made a beginning by sending a kind of illustrated journal of the travels to Frau von Stein. Like most good intentions of this sort, it was very indifferently carried out. In this album, twelve of the sketches made in pursuance of his laudable purpose are reproduced. It has always seemed to us an act almost of unfriendliness to the memory of the great poet to lay much emphasis upon the artistic merit of these performances; they are for the most part only interesting and often delightful mementos of genius in its moments of recreation. But out of this dozen examples there are at least three that show genuine inspiration and a promise of ultimate mastery. The "Blick auf St. Peter" retains the "petty German manner" in the treatment of the foliage in the foreground, but to the whole the artist has succeeded in giving a poetic and atmospheric beauty which marks a great advance over the fussiness of the Thüringen sketches contained in volume x. Finest of all the specimens of Goethe's work that we know is the water-color sketch, here reproduced as number xi., of the beautiful sweep of a Sicilian bay. All traces of his German manner have here vanished, and we have a delicate rendering of a summer scene upon a shining southern shore. It almost justifies Goethe in the delusion, which he long and fondly cherished, that he was, "after all, an artist." The third sketch of those which are especially striking is slighter, but, aside from the weird moonlit charm of the scene, it has a pathetic personal interest. In February, 1788, Goethe wrote to Fritz von Stein: "One evening not long ago when sad thoughts haunted me, I made a drawing of my own grave at the Pyramid of Cestius." By a remarkable coincidence it was almost upon this very spot that forty-two years later Goethe's only son was buried. The twelve sheets of portraits which complete this attractive album include a fine reproduction of the best portrait that we possess of the aged Goethe. It is from Schwerdgeburth's original sketch for the well-known engraving of the poet's head. This reproduction is incomparably better than that which appeared in the *Goethe Jahrbuch* for 1882. Goethe is known to have sat for it on January 24, 1832, two months before his death. Thus, as it is the best, it is also the last portrait taken from life of the German Jupiter, and it proves his title to that lofty epithet. There is also a portrait of Jerusalem of "Werther" fame, the familiar face of Wieland, portraits of Riemer, Eckermann, and the Chancellor von Müller, and a good counterfeit of the young Mendelssohn, who, introduced to Goethe as the favorite pupil of Zelter, soon won the poet's heart by his own sunny artist nature. This twelfth volume of the *Schriften* maintains the high standard set by its predecessors.

—We know of no more satisfactory commentary on Rousseau than Prof. Harold Höffding's 'Rousseau und seine Philosophe' (Stuttgart: Frommann), forming volume iv. of Frommann's "Klassiker der Philosophie." The treatise is popular in so far as it is clear and concise; for the same reason it will prove useful as an introduction to a more exhaustive study of the philosopher. The author, though evidently abreast of the literature of his subject, does not allow himself to become entangled in any of the controversies in which other writers have been engaged in recent years. Inconsistencies of Rousseau are explained, but no attempt is made to explain them away; in this respect the chapter (iv.) on the principal ideas of Rousseau and the type of his thought is excellent. The new philosophical problem arising from his opposition to the Encyclopædists, the new ethical ideas resulting from his thought, his discovery of the mysticism of Nature, the standard given by him of false and true civilization, the turning-point in educational thought marked by his idea of negative education—these are shown to be real achievements of Rousseau. It is admitted, on the other hand, that the logical value of his pedagogy is injured by conflicting demands, and its historical importance lessened by the limitations set to the education of girls and of the poor; and the difference between the results of his religious feeling and the results of his reasoning is not denied. Rousseau was, more than most men are, a martyr to the contradiction in his own nature and between his ideal and the existing order of things. What reconciles one with him personally, in spite of his wretchedness, is his longing for the pure and the great, his sincere enthusiasm, his capacity for sympathy, admiration, and reverence.

HARRISON'S WILLIAM THE SILENT.

William the Silent. By Frederic Harrison. Macmillan. 1897.

Of certain parliamentary orators Macaulay writes, that "on a perilous crisis they would have been found far inferior in all the qualities of rulers to men such as Oliver Cromwell, who talked nonsense, and William the Silent, who did not talk at all." The sentence affords a measure both of Macaulay's strength and of his weakness. He recognized the extraordinary capacity of leaders such as William and Cromwell, who were no parliamentarians; but he failed to see that the Protector's tangled and ungrammatical sentences are full of force and are never wanting in sense, and assumed that a hero known for the charm of his conversation and the noble urbanity of his manner was a man who never spoke a word. If a trained historian who was specially interested in the annals of the House of Orange was misled by the strangely inappropriate epithet which in William's case has become a surname, how can we suppose that the ordinary English public know anything worth knowing about William the Silent?

To most of our readers we may be sure that Mr. Harrison's succinct and charming biography will be a revelation. They will learn, and learn for the first time, what was the true character and what was the actual work of the noblest among the statesmen of the sixteenth century. It would, indeed, be ungrateful to forget the labors of Motley; but the Carlylese dialect, which is almost unbearable in its inventor, has been found by many students intolerable in an imitator, and Motley's virtuous partisanship, no less than his rhetoric, concealed his real historical power. Mr. Harrison, on the other hand, has drawn just such a sketch of William and his career as was needed by earnest students on both sides of the Atlantic. The biography is short, and we certainly at times could have wished that Mr. Harrison had been able to treat his subject in fuller detail; but the brevity and compression of his book add to its impressiveness; not a word is wasted on rhetorical artifices; every fact is told simply and plainly, and, what is even more remarkable, with strict impartiality. Hence, readers are given the results of a long contest and of perplexed negotiations, instead of being overpowered and confused with all the petty facts which are important only in so far as they lead to great and permanent consequences. The tale meanwhile is so tragic, so thrilling, and so inspiring that, when once properly told, as Mr. Harrison tells it, it carries the reader along; and the story of the contest with Spain is in this instance almost identical with the narrative of William's life. It is the identity between an heroic life and a great cause that makes the career of William a tremendous historical drama. It were easy, as it would be instructive, to dwell in more detail on the merits and charm of Mr. Harrison's workmanship, but the best way to show appreciation of his 'Life of William' is to use the facts which he has placed before us, with a view to making known his hero's character and the nature of the achievement which turned William's failure (for in one sense his efforts failed) into the most lasting of the triumphs achieved by human energy and foresight.

In estimating either William's character or his work, two essential facts should be constantly before one's mind. He was by birth one of the greatest of nobles; or, rather, he was a sovereign prince whose ample wealth supported a rank almost of royalty. He was also a trained statesman of the sixteenth century. Both these circumstances mean more than a modern reader at first realizes. A great noble was, in the sixteenth century, of necessity a leader of men; a statesman of the sixteenth century was one who not only had to guide a nation in the sense in which England or France might nowadays be led by a popular Minister, but was forced actually and in very truth to determine the course which his country should take, with the knowledge that any error on his part might be the destruction of his nation. A statesman of the sixteenth century was, further, of necessity driven to practise all the arts of the boldest and most unscrupulous statecraft.

"The diplomatic history of Europe," writes Mr. Harrison, "during the life of William the Silent, was an almost unparalleled maze of unscrupulous intrigue and shifting combinations, wherein the claims of religion, honor, mercy, and truth were regarded by all statesmen as mere phrases, so far as foreign countries were concerned, and wherein subtle and patriotic men strove *per fas et nefas* to safeguard their own country and augment its strength. Machiavelli's 'Prince' was in its most brilliant vogue."

And the dangers among which statesmen moved were doubled by the fury of religious passions scarcely known to Ma-

chiavelli. Under these circumstances, niceness in the choice of means was an impossibility. In this matter Elizabeth, William, Philip, Alva himself, stand pretty much on a level. We must judge such leaders, not by their nice sense of honor, but by their aims and by their tendency to recognize, however faintly, the claims of humanity. The King of Spain and his General were not persons devoid of principle; they were fanatics for what they deemed the cause of religion. Their names deserve execration because the cause for which they fought was in reality the establishment of the kingdom of darkness, and because they exceeded the cruelty of a cruel age, and did not even dream that the impulses of common humanity must temper the logic of religious intolerance. Elizabeth and William, on the other hand, were no models of high-toned statesmanship. A moralist who would justify all their words and acts becomes a casuist who uselessly perverts the truth of history, and corrupts without convincing the conscience of his hearers. Yet Elizabeth, and in a far greater measure William, command our admiration. They laid the foundations of the kingdom of light; they were each faithful, if to nothing else, yet to their own country; and they each rose above the worst inhumanities of their time.

Grant, for the sake of argument, that Elizabeth was guilty of every cruelty or perfidy which the malignity of contemporary Papists could lay to her charge, and it still remains true that the government of England was, in her day, a government of honesty and humanity, if we compare it with the perfidy and atrocity of Alva's reign of terror, which was sanctioned and stimulated by Philip in the calmness of his closet. Take the most unfavorable view which is possible of William's career, and two facts still assure us of his greatness. In an age of intolerance, he anticipated by more than a century the practice no less than the theory of religious freedom. In an age of cruelty, he hated bloodshed and so loathed torture—a practice condemned neither by the morality nor by the law of his time—that, when apparently at the point of death, he forbade the torture of his murderer. The terrible torments of Balthazar are a monument to the humanity of William. The fanatic had slain the one man who, had he survived Balthazar's stroke by an hour, would have saved the assassin from agonies which can be hardly read without horror.

It is natural to link William with Elizabeth, yet the character of the Prince has qualities which raise it far above the character of the Queen. It may well be doubted whether, in clearness of aim, he has ever found a superior. There is no one fact more clearly brought out than the perfect clearness with which, from the beginning to the end of his career, he perceived the object which he wished to attain. The freedom of the whole of the Netherlands—a very different thing, be it noted, from independence—the withdrawal of every Spanish soldier as the one guarantee for liberty, the establishment of practical toleration for Catholics and Protestants alike, so long as they respected public order—these were the objects which William pursued from the moment when he became the repository of the secret the concealment whereof in the depth of his own heart conferred upon him the surname of the Silent, till the day when his death, or rather his martyrdom, laid the foundation of Holland's freedom. In the pursuit of his end he was unswerving; as to the means of obtaining it he was the most flexible of opportunists. Constitutional opposition to Philip's despotism, resistance to Philip's ministers, appeals to popular passion, armed suppression of lawlessness, attempts to arouse the dormant public spirit of Europe, open rebellion against Philip, intrigues with France, intrigues with England, alliances with Lutherans, alliances with Coligny and the French Protestants, endeavors to win the support of the very basest of the Valois—every shift or device which policy or statecraft could suggest—came ready to William's hand so only that he could employ the arts of diplomacy to obtain the high ends of his enlightened patriotism.

His life was a series of failures, yet he was never daunted by calamity. The death of his friends, the slaughter of his adherents, the defeat of his armies, the ill-success of one combination after another, never shook this unconquerable man. His enemies knew, as he must have known himself, that in an age of warfare he was not a great general; he was no match in the field for Alva; he was markedly the inferior in generalship to Alexander of Parma; he was no born soldier like his brother Louis; he did not know, as did Cromwell, how to throw aside on the battle-field the caution of statesmanship. While his eyes were fixed on the great ideas of the future, he had none of the intuitive sagacity by which the Protector saw instinctively what was attainable at a given moment and what were the means for its immediate attainment. William imagined greater achievements than were possible, and in one or two cases at least did not see with great rapidity where his real strength lay. By a sort of miracle the Beggars of the Sea came to his aid, yet it took some time before he perceived that the sea power might be used to save Holland. At the very moment of his death he had hardly grasped the idea that, to create the United Provinces, it was necessary to surrender the hope of freeing from the yoke of Spain a country which is now known as Belgium. Yet his very defects as a general, or even as a practical politican, are his glory. They reveal the superhuman tenacity with which he achieved his ends almost in despite of fate.

And his energy rested upon his devoutness. It is true that, a Lutheran by family, he was brought up a Catholic and died a Calvinist; it is true that he exhibited a tolerance utterly unknown to his generation, and that he held light, perhaps too light, theological differences which divided the world. It must also be acknowledged that his divorce from Anne, which, if it be carefully considered, deserves no moral condemnation, and his marriage with Charlotte, which is less easy on grounds of statesmanship or patriotism to defend, betray the self-will of a mediæval noble. But, for all this, he was, though no theologian, a man of serious religion. We suspect that on this point Mr. Harrison has hardly done justice to the true character of his hero, though Calvinism, combined with tolerance for other creeds, was the least phase of William's religious development. His adoption of this creed was more than an act of policy. In William's time no form of belief except Calvinism was strong enough to support a reformer in his contest with the powers of evil. It is natural and right to suppose that William found in the stern belief which has been called by the name of Calvin, the rest and strength necessary for the carrying out of the task laid upon him.

His character was exactly suited for his work, and none of the statesmen of modern Europe have ever conferred greater benefits upon mankind than did William. When he began his life's battle with Spain, everything was against him. The wealth and power of Philip were as great as his fanaticism and his cruelty. Spain menaced, for a time at least, the spiritual and political liberty of the world. Rebellion had never yet been successful, and, to Protestants no less than to Catholics, the sin of rebellion was like unto the sin of heresy. The forces which William had at his disposal were, compared with those of Spain, simply contemptible. In the nineteenth century we have rightly admired the astuteness with which Cavour enabled the feebleness of disunited Italy to triumph over the strength of the Austrian monarchy; but even after the defeat of Novara the resources, physical and moral, which were at the disposal of Victor Emmanuel, far exceeded any resources of which William could dispose when he defied the Spanish tyrant. Cavour, too, knew that the humanity of the age would prevent Austria from using the force of arms to its very utmost, and that the interest of rival potentates would at worst guarantee the independence of Piedmont. William knew that religion itself would stimulate the cruelty of Philip, and that failure meant, not in a metaphor but in plain truth, the destruction of his country, and the death and it might be torture of himself and his followers. When he perished, the most sagacious of his contemporaries would have predicted that his cause would die with him. Yet his task was done. The struggle with the Dutch provinces had sapped the strength of Spain. The defeat of the Armada was, indeed, the public sign that the power of the Spaniard was broken, but it was the contest with Holland which had so weakened Philip that the great naval defeat told the world that Spain could never realize the scheme of the universal empire. Part of William's aims had to be surrendered: the dream that the Catholic and the Protestant provinces might be united under the rule of justice and toleration was never to be fulfilled. But Protestant Holland more than fulfilled the hopes of William, and the provinces which remained subject to the sceptre of Spain came to enjoy at any rate a bearable form of government. What is more than this, every step in European progress has been a step along the path marked out by William the Silent. The bitterest religious feuds of to-day have nothing in them of the brutal cruelty which gave a peculiar horror to the religious contests of the seventeenth century. The system which has pacified Europe is in its essence the system of William.

The career of the Stadtholder recalls, both by way of contrast and of likeness, the career of the Protector. Both were the heroes of Protestantism; both went so far as they did—to apply an expression attributed to Cromwell—because they did not know where they were going; both combined religious fervor with unscrupulous statecraft; both were the men of their age, and yet anticipated the ideas of modern times and carried into practice broad conceptions of toleration unknown to their contemporaries; both waged a fearful fight against desperate odds and came out victorious. Yet the points of

contrast are as noteworthy and more essential than the points of similarity. Every step in Cromwell's career, if each step be looked at alone, was crowned with success. He never made a single definite blunder, but his life of triumph ended in failure; he neither founded an English commonwealth, nor created an English Protestant monarchy, nor established a system of toleration. To the Whig nobles, not to the Puritan General, is due the salvation of English freedom and the development of English power. The life of the Stadtholder was a series of failures. As a general he gained not a single great victory; as a statesman he failed utterly in achieving that union of all the revolted provinces which was the aim of his policy. His death looked like the last act of a tragedy. William himself died, we may fear, with the belief that he had lived and suffered in vain. But in truth a career of failures was rewarded by posthumous success. Spain was ruined, Holland was saved, the union of the seven Provinces grew and flourished beyond William's utmost dreams till, for a time, it rose to be an Empire. The blood of the martyr turned out to be the seed of the State. The name of the Stadtholder became the glory of Holland. "The effigy of William in marble," writes Mr. Harrison, "lies surrounded by a canopy beneath which are the four emblematical figures of Freedom, Justice, Prudence, and Religion, with the mottoes, *Je maintiendrai piété et justice—Sævis tranquillus in undis.* And in this case neither emblems nor mottoes are conventional untruths." If Cromwell's lifelong successes end in permanent failure, William's life of failure is the very foundation of complete and permanent victory.

TEN NOVELS.

What Maisie Knew. By Henry James. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.

His Grace of Ormonde. By Mrs. F. H. Burnett. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Young Mountaineers. By Charles Egbert Craddock. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The King of the Broncos. By Charles F. Lummis. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Enchanted Burro. By Charles F. Lummis. Chicago: Way & Williams.

Outlines in Local Color. By Brander Matthews. Harper & Brothers.

The Story of an Untold Love. By Paul Leicester Ford. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Days of Jeanne d'Arc. By M. H. Catherwood. The Century Co.

The Water of the Wondrous Isles. By William Morris. Longmans, Green & Co.

Master Skylark: A Story of Shakspere's Time. By John Bennett. The Century Co.

Mr. James's 'What Maisie Knew,' if told directly, might be entitled 'What Maisie Didn't Know,' and would be no more fit for publication than is the evidence given before divorce courts sitting in camera. The device of unfolding a tale, not only without a moral, but without morals, through analysis of impressions made on the mind and character of a child, thrusts the burden of impropriety on the mind of the reader. For, however wide awake a child may be, it is blind as a bat to the cause of certain effects, such as a constant change and exchange of presumptive and ostensible fathers and mothers, coming about without a death in the family. The gross facts of the relations between the men and women who assume the parental attitude towards Maisie have no sort of attraction for Mr. James, and he rigorously confines himself to Maisie's point of view, her observations of and reflections upon the rather monstrous persons for whom, at a very tender age, she perceives herself to be "a centre of hatred and messenger of insult." Whether it is natural or probable for a child to have accepted and used such circumstances in the way that Maisie did, no one can say with any positiveness. To maintain any respect for humanity, her case must be considered as unique, with nothing in the records of the race to select for comparison. The fact that she never excites an emotion of compassion or pity, may be taken as an indication that she is neither natural nor probable. As we follow her interpretations of marriage and divorce, and of connections demanding one or the other or both, we get to feel that she is an arbitrary, artificial construction, and that the author, fascinated by an experiment, did not realize that he was being beaten.

The method is experimental, and, considering its very great difficulties, cannot be called a failure. The passive Maisie is the centre of action, the bone of contention, and the innocent, confidential agent through whom alone her abandoned guardians reveal themselves to each other and to the public. So far as the guardians are concerned, the revelation is complete, and it is their vivid presentation in this indirect fashion that justifies the experiment. In phrase and comparison, Mr. James is even unusually brilliant, but falls too often into alarming passages, through whose clauses and parentheses few are gifted enough to find a way. It is a sad moment for a writer when he mistakes obscure diction for subtle thought, and Mr. James is confronted with this moment more than once in 'What Maisie Knew.'

Attempts to rehabilitate real, living "Ladies of Quality" are made every day, sometimes with very gratifying success, but perhaps not often flowering into magnificent vindication like unto Mrs. Burnett's new rendering of her 'Lady of Quality' in a second volume, entitled 'His Grace of Ormonde,' with a coronet and heraldic beasts on the cover. Mrs. Burnett is in the curious position of a lawyer who, having grossly slandered a most respectable lady, prosecutes himself in open court. She succeeds in making Lady Clorinda Wildairs appear considerably less disreputable than in the first version of her unholy career, effecting this improvement by a very full and enthusiastic statement of the views and sentiments about the Lady entertained by his irreproachable Grace of Ormonde. Of the characterization of his Grace it may be said that Ouida, in the proud flush and insolence of youth, never constructed anything so immaculate and splendid, and that we may now see what a child she was in the apparently copious use of the glorifying adjective. Lest any one should hesitate to accept the absolute wisdom and justice of his Grace's reflections and conclusions, Mrs. Burnett takes care to relieve Clorinda of personal responsibility for suspicious episodes. She declares, with every appearance of exact knowledge, that the blood of historic chiefs of the Wildairs house "woke in Clorinda's veins at her birth." These chiefs were "devils who fought shrieking with ferocious laughter in the face of certain horrible death; devils whose spirit no torture of rack or flame could conquer; beings who could endure in silence horrors almost supernatural, who could bear more, suffer more, defy more than any other human thing." If Mrs. Burnett had thought of appending this information in the form of a note to 'A Lady of Quality,' there would have been no need of giving us a literal example of a twice-told tale. With a clear understanding of the condition of Clorinda's blood, few are so virtuous as to blame her for what she did rather than praise her for what she resisted.

Excepting two or three great cities, there is no locality on the face of the earth in which the material for good fiction is inexhaustible. Almost every voluminous writer of local tales has proved the limitations of his chosen village or county or region, which, however extensive and remarkable for natural beauty or grandeur, has little variety of human interest. Generally, long before the "last picture is painted," "the tubes are twisted and dry." Miss Murfree, in the volume of short stories entitled 'The Young Mountaineers,' wrings nothing new from the Tennessee mountains, in the way either of adventure or character. The scene which was set a good many years ago and elicited spontaneous applause, now receives only that perfunctory attention which we bestow upon an old friend whom we privately regard as something of a bore. As the heroes of the tales are all young, Miss Murfree has probably particularly addressed herself to the public which has not reached the dull age of reminiscence and comparison. If it were not for that public coming fresh every year to sit gaping at the feet of the story-teller, he would doubtless be forced to realize with pain that it is quite useless for him to keep on trying to palm off old lamps for new.

In his stories of New Mexico and South America, Mr. Lummis exploits comparatively fresh fields. But with all the attraction of novel scene and character, two volumes coming pretty close one upon another show the limitations of the local story. Not that there is repetition, but only similarity of atmosphere, incident, motive which indicates that the circle is nearly rounded. All the description is good, very clear, and significant, and the narrative is spirited, arriving at dramatic moments in a simple, straightforward way, quite without literary artifice. The cow-boy (often called by other, Spanish, names) is a prominent figure, and though he is satisfactorily prompt with his pistol, alert, enduring, and frequently humorous, his speech is not garnished with strange oaths. Superficially, therefore, he seems an unnatural, perhaps effeminate cow-boy; but, closely examined, it is seen that his force and efficiency are in no way diminished by temperance in blasphemy. The half-Indian, half-Spanish boys (*cholos*) are charming, so sturdy, sober, and faithful. They have none of the signs of made-up boys, and the author must know many of them well. He also, probably, knows (but we hope will never tell us) that they are the very boys who grew up to be conspicuous failures of youthful promise; otherwise, it is difficult to account for the wicked old men abounding in Mexican mountains and deserts. It is more fitting to believe

that these nice boys emigrate or even die in their youth, and that the bad men were the sort of boys that Mr. Lummis does not care to speak about.

Mr. Brander Matthews's 'Outlines in Local Color' are of course sketches of New York, a locality which offers infinite variety for the student of humanity. Externally, it is no slander to say that New York is not one of the most interesting of the world's great cities. Its streets and buildings are obtrusively there for the needs and uses of the New Yorkers, with scant concessions to artistic taste or superfluous yearning for impressions. Mr. Matthews makes the most of the tall houses and cable-cars and elevated roads, and that is perhaps a little too much in the way of setting for slight and casual incidents. Yet it is possible that with less detail, less insistence in noting names of streets that are only numbers, in recalling commonplace sights and awful sounds, he could not convey his own feeling of intimacy with the city and delight in that intimacy. He is the only writer about New York who appears really to love it and who is steadfastly loyal.

Mr. Paul Ford's 'Story of an Untold Love' introduces the genuine stone-blind lover of fiction that is now somewhat old-fashioned. To Donald the lover, Maizie the beloved is compact of perfection. The tale of Donald's sorrows and sacrifices and despair must not be read twice or examined critically, because suggestions and suspicions obtrude themselves, and horrid doubts that Maizie was, after all, as other girls are, mortal. Nothing short of an angel could be worth such travail and torment, and it is a tribute to Mr. Ford's power for expressing the passion of pure love that, for the time taken to read the tale, no point of view except the lover's is tolerable.

In her preface to 'The Days of Jeanne d'Arc' Mrs. Catherwood tells us that more than two thousand books have already been written about the famous Maid. Without pretence of familiarity with this extensive literature, and judging chiefly by comparison with some specimens of the recent Jeanne d'Arc revival, we feel that none of the two thousand can be better worth reading than Mrs. Catherwood's. She approaches her subject with unquestioning belief in La Pucelle's special inspiration. There is no doubt, and hence no argument or irony and no bitterness even against the English triumphant in malignity. The drawing of the Maid is admirably candid, simple, and sincere. Between her and other kind, affectionate little peasant girls there is no difference of nature; the difference, as Mrs. Catherwood paints it, is wholly supernatural, and to reject that influence is to reject the whole as an incredible fairy tale. The confusing incidents of the Maid's campaign are set forth in orderly fashion, and the detail of her life at home, at court, and in battle has been carefully gathered, sifted, and woven into convincing narrative. Mrs. Catherwood says that she has given months of study and travel to the preparation of her book. She deserves the warmest congratulations on the result.

The best reason for the writing of 'The Water of the Wondrous Isles' is the reason that William Morris believed to be the true inspiration for any sort of work—the love of doing it. A perception of his delight in irresponsible exercise of the imagination goes far to make the reader share it, and abandon himself to the wonder-tales with quite unthinking joy. Two or three times Morris, prodded, perhaps, by the Christian conscience of an ancestor, made pretence of rational basis for his tales, gave them a faint excuse of history or respectable legend, of moral intent or social experiment. This last one is unblushingly irrational, and has not so much as a fragment of allegory concealed in its numerous well-printed pages. It has rather more coherence and directness than many of its predecessors, but that appears to be an accident. He would not willingly separate himself from his enchanting maiden, Birdalone. In the narrative of Birdalone's marvellous adventures with witch-women, wood-wives, magic-sending-boats, knights good and evil, beautiful and ugly, the only sense appealed to is the sense for beauty—beauty of woods and fields and water, of the human body, and the good, loving human heart. How much the force and fascination of the appeal is due to its shining garments, its manner and wording, every lover of Morris knows without being told, and no telling can enlighten those who were not born to know.

The adventures of Nick Attwood, a not-too-good little boy of Stratford town, make a very pretty tale, attractive for both children and their elders. Nick was stolen away by one of the Lord Admiral's players, who heard him singing in the fields, and knew how much money such a voice would be worth in London. So Nick became Master Skylark, of the Company of St. Paul's boys, and charmed the town and sang before the Queen. But ever his heart yearned for his mother, and even for his hard-hearted father, from whom he had been running away when captured by Master Gaston Carew. By the kind intervention of Master Will Shakspere and Ben Jonson, Nick gets home and gladly forgets both fame and sorrow. Besides writing a good story, the author draws the times and manners very well, and uses great people with discretion.

The Story of Language. By Charles Woodward Hutson. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1897.

Language is a subject of everlasting interest, and scholars who are willing to turn from their special philological investigations, and give the general public a trustworthy account of the present status of their science, will always find a hearty welcome. The pity is that scholars all too often leave the writing of such books to charlatans. If the public then gets untrue and unworthy conceptions of the principles and methods of philological science, the philologist has no one to blame but himself.

There has just appeared a new and handsome volume with the above title, which is intended to meet the wants of the lay reader interested in general linguistic subjects. The specialist needs to read but a chapter to know what the book is; but those for whom it is primarily intended may profit by a word of warning. The writer, or rather compiler, has gone to a library of very limited treasure, and out of such volumes on the subject as he there chanced to find has "made a book." The first two-thirds of the volume deals with language in general, and with the non-Aryan tongues, and is copied from Max Müller and various books of travel. Most of the rest of the volume deals with English, and is almost wholly a rewording of that old eyesore of the scholar, Meiklejohn's 'The English Language.' A sample of this process of book-making will suffice to give an idea of the whole, and at the same time will furnish an illustration of what can be done in the way of swapping synonyms in English.

MEIKLEJOHN.	HUTSON.
The guttural has been softened . . into a sibilant. Thus *rigg*, *egg*, and *brigg* became *ridge*, *edge*, and *bridge*.	The guttural took a softened form and sound. *Rigg* became *ridge; egg*, *edge; brigg*, *bridge*. In these the guttural became a sibilant.
The guttural has become a labial—f—as in *cough*, *enough*, *laugh*, *draught*, &c.	In others it became to the ear a labial sound, while still written with a guttural form. Such are *cough*, *enough*, *trough*, *laugh*, *draught*.
The guttural has become an additional syllable, and is represented by a vowel sound. Thus *sorg* and *mearh* have become *s rrow* and *marrow*.	In some the guttural was transformed into a vowel sound, constituting an additional syllable. Thus *sorg* became *sorrow;* and *mearh marrow*.
In some words it has disappeared both to eye and ear. Thus *nakëd* has become *made*.	In others it disappeared wholly. Thus *makëd* became *made*.
How is it, then, that we have in so many words the strongest gutturals in the language—*g* and *h*—not only separately . . . but combined? The story is an odd one. Our Old English or Saxon scribes wrote—not *light*, *might*, and *night*, but *liht*, *miht*, and *niht*. When, however, they found that the Norman-French gentlemen would not sound the *h*, and say—as is still said in Scotland—*licht*, &c., they redoubled the guttural, strengthened the *h* with a hard *g*, and again presented the dose to the Norman. But, if the Norman could not sound the *h* alone, still less could he sound the double guttural; and he very coolly let both alone—ignored both.	One amusing trace of the struggle between Norman organs and English speech is found in words like *light*, *might*, *night*, which were written in Inflected English *liht*, *miht*, *niht*. These were sounded as in Scotland with a light guttural or burr—written now for the Scottish dialect with a *ch* as in *licht*. As the Norman would not sound the guttural, however light, the words were written then with the strong guttural they still bear around with them as a dress, to induce the careless conqueror to attempt something like a guttural. But still the Normans refused to sound either *h* or *gh*.

Of course, Meiklejohn's farcical account of *gh* is devoid of all truth, as might be expected of the work of a professor of pedagogy who undertakes to write philology out of his imagination rather than go to the trouble of consulting authorities; but it is at least expressed with some wit and spirit, by the side of which Hutson's dilution is very tame.

When the book gets to the other side of the Atlantic, we may look for long parallel quotations like the above, but probably headed respectively "The English Book" and "The American Book," and we shall again have pointed out to us the dependence of American scholarship on that of Great Britain. The discredit brought upon us by such books will end only when publishers find that scholars do not content themselves with laughing at them, but regard it as worth their while immediately and fearlessly to expose them.

Goethe's "Die Aufgeregten"; Politisches Drama in fünf Akten. Ergänzende Bearbeitung von Felix von Stenglin. Berlin: Alexander Duncker; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

The greatest political event of Goethe's

lifetime was the French Revolution. It disquieted him; it interrupted the calm process of his self-development. He strove to divert his mind; he studied Chinese, optics, the metamorphosis of plants, but his thoughts were, in spite of himself, irresistibly drawn to the significance of what was happening around him. He has treated themes suggested by the Revolution, directly and indirectly, in many forms; autobiographically, in the 'Campagne in Frankreich' of 1792, for in that campaign he took part, conscious of being present at the birth of a new era in the world's history; lyrically, in many a well-known song (even in the Venetian epigrams there are revolutionary echoes); epically, in 'Hermann und Dorothea'; novelistically, in the 'Unterhaltungen Deutscher Ausgewanderten'; and dramatically, in the four plays, "Die Natürliche Tochter," "Der Gross-Cophta," "Der Bürgergeneral," and "Die Aufgeregten." The last-named play, which gives a nearer view of Goethe's own political creed than any of the others, was written in 1793, but left unfinished. Regret has frequently been expressed that the missing third and fifth acts had not been supplied, and the whole drama made a part of the regular classic repertory of the German stage. The first step has now been taken, and, in accordance with the brief but explicit directions of Goethe himself, the Freiherr von Stenglin has with much ability and self-subordination completed the work.

Friedrich Vischer has called this play and "Der Bürgergeneral" "odorless plants that grew in the sour peat-bog of the spirit that then prevailed." Odorless and perhaps a little artificial they are, but on the whole this judgment is too harsh. In the other works of Goethe relating to this subject, the Revolution was either a mere stage-setting, as in 'Hermann und Dorothea,' or else some strikingly dramatic incident connected with the Revolution was made the centre of the action, as in "Der Gross-Cophta," which deals with the affair of the diamond necklace. In "Die Aufgeregten," however, it is the actual strife of classes that has been presented, of the misled and bombastic sciolists, enthusiastic for a freedom and equality which they would be incapable of maintaining, and of the liberal and clear-sighted aristocracy, willing to be just, but refusing to be forced. Goethe was a liberal in politics; for more than half a century he was in intimate association with an enlightened ruling prince, and he had never shared the mad ideals of the youthful Schiller, whose political incendiarism in the "Robbers" had made him a citizen of the French Republic. In this play the author makes the Countess his mouthpiece. All that he ever wrote of the third act was the beginning of a conversation between the Countess and the Hofrath, in the course of which it was doubtless his intention to develop fully his views concerning the obligations of the ruling classes towards those dependent upon them. Speaking to Eckermann in 1824, Goethe quoted from this fragment of the third act. He said:

"I wrote it at the time of the French Revolution, and it may be regarded in some sort as my political creed at that time. I had made the Countess the representative of the nobility, and in the words which I put into her mouth I showed how the nobility ought to think. The Countess has just returned from Paris, where she has been a witness of the revolutionary proceedings, and from these she has drawn no bad lesson for herself. She has convinced herself that the people may indeed be suppressed, but not oppressed, and that the revolutionary uprisings of the lower classes are due to the unjust actions of the great."

She announces her determination to avoid all injustice herself, and for the future to denounce every act that has a show of unfairness, even if she should be decried as a democrat. "I thought," continued Goethe, "that this attitude of mind was entirely respectable. It was at that time my own opinion, and it still is. But in reward therefor I have been called all manner of names which I do not care to repeat." And, indeed, Goethe has been the object of much unjust vilification on the score of his politics and patriotism. His conservatism offended the hotheads, and his sane liberalism was rarely understood.

The completed play of "Die Aufgeregten" is a welcome but not necessary addition to a library of Goetheana. Goethe's own directions are so clear that there has never been any doubt concerning the development and outcome of the drama. The present work, therefore, must find its reward on the stage and at the hands of an audience. That this was the intention is evident from the preface and from the reservation of stage rights. And now comes the news that in January at the Royal Theatre of Berlin the drama was produced with gratifying success. The general public, which had half forgotten the existence of the fragment, was delighted by the force and humor of the "new" play by Goethe. The task of following the author's intentions was in this case comparatively easy; not like that of completing Schiller's "Demetrius," which has lured so many poets to failure. Freiherr von Stenglin has done only what was absolutely necessary to give to Goethe's conception its rounded dramatic expression. He has even refrained from elaborating the conversation in the third act so brilliantly begun by the original author, and this was wise, for it could not have been essential to the plot development and would have been of interest only as the direct exposition of Goethe's own views. The danger of coming into contrast with the sonorous periods of Goethe's prose has been avoided by restricting the dialogue to short sentences. The book should find a welcome among all lovers of Goethe. Its value would have been increased by printing the brief concepts for the missing acts from Goethe's own pen.

The New Puritanism: Papers by Lyman Abbott, Amory H. Bradford, Charles H. Berry, George H. Gordon, Washington Gladden, Wm. J. Tucker, during the Semi-Centennial Celebration of Plymouth Church, Brooklyn, N. Y., 1847-1897. With an Introduction by Rossiter W. Raymond. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 1898.

Besides the articles and addresses enumerated on the title-page, this interesting volume has a "Publisher's Preface" which adds little to its value, and is disfigured by the most popular of misquotations, "fresh *fields* and pastures new," which has been set right a thousand times, apparently with no effect. The celebration by Plymouth Church of the fiftieth anniversary of its organization and Mr. Beecher's coming to Brooklyn, as here reported, was happily conceived and carried out with dignity and sobriety. There was no undue glorying and no exaggeration of Mr. Beecher's influence, although the indication of its character was not entirely satisfactory. Dr. Abbott's sermon on May 16, immediately following Mr. Raymond's genial introduction, is called "The New Puritanism." The newness is much in evidence, but the Puritanism less so. With the loss of the Puritan theology and the Puritan temper, there does not seem much Puritanism left. Dr. Abbott handles the old Puritanism roughly, identifying it mainly with the doctrine of election. As for the new Puritanism, he identifies that mainly with the slight aberrations of Lyman Beecher and Albert Barnes and their kind from the doctrine to which they were born, and there is no clear expression of the fact that Dr. Abbott and his kind have departed from them much further than they did from Calvin and Edwards. Dr. Abbott is inclined, like others of his school, to damn those who have said his good things before him. He is filled with wonder that he "should ever have been thought to be Unitarian in his tendency"; but his three characteristics of the new Puritanism are as good a statement of Unitarian doctrine as could be made.

Dr. Bradford, discussing "Puritan Principles and the Modern World," finds the old Puritanism essentially as good as Dr. Abbott finds it bad. But he uses the term without much discrimination. Beecher, he assures us, was "a Puritan of the Puritans." He had not their theology. Had he their temper? He was nothing if not a humorist. The Puritan temper was utterly devoid of humor. But Dr. Bradford has some good things about "the defeat of the people" in our political affairs. Dr. Berry's subject was: "Beecher's Influence upon Religious Thought in England." He represents it as more theological than we can think it was, except as much of the new theology has been an attempt to express Beecher's emotional piety in intellectual terms, with conspicuous failure, such as he himself experienced in the same attempt. It is strange that in his list of recent personal religious forces in England Dr. Berry finds no place for Martineau, who has been a preacher to the preachers and a teacher of the teachers in an eminent degree.

Dr. Gordon begins with the assertion that "Calvinism, as an adequate interpretation of the ways of God with men, or even as a working philosophy of life, is for ever gone." He thinks we must have another elaborate theological system, and he sketches it in outline. Some of his phrases are so scholastic and so vague that they convey no definite idea to our minds. He, too, is careful not to defile himself with the pitch of unorthodox liberality. He tells us that his doctrine "does not necessarily imply universal salvation," but "it is true that it looks that way." "*If God shall succeed*" (the italics are his), "universal salvation will be the final result." This may not be so deep as a well nor so wide as a church door, but 'tis enough for the pastor of the most typical of the New England Congregational churches. Dr. Washington Gladden's subject, "The Social Problems of the Future," brings our social and political institutions to the test of human brotherhood, and finds them wanting; but some of his specifics would, we imagine, aggravate the disease. Dr. Tucker, President of Dartmouth College, makes a bold push for the free intellect in the church, and for the subordination of the church to social needs. In conclusion, Dr. Abbott urges on his people the

application of the foregoing principles and doctrines to their habitual life.

If the book, as a whole, leaves much to be desired in the way of real and definite thought, it is, for better or for worse, significant of a disintegration of the traditional theology which is spreading far and wide.

Lectures on the Principles of Local Government. By George Laurence Gomme, Statistical Officer of the London County Council. Westminster: Archibald Constable & Co.

The London School of Economics is doing good work, and not least in leading to the publication of some useful courses of lectures. But among these we are unable to include Mr. Gomme's lectures on Local Government. Mr. Gomme has made in the past some suggestive, if not solid, contributions to the archæology of municipal institutions, and as a collector of out-of-the-way facts his industry and enthusiasm are not to be contemned. But to formulate with any success "the principles" of local government, under modern circumstances, in a country like England, calls for a keenness of insight into the actual social situation, a power of generalization, a knowledge of contemporary English and foreign literature, and, finally, a power of exposition, such as Mr. Gomme certainly does not possess. As one reads his book, one begins to doubt whether he has ever stopped to think what he means by a "principle." He refers to Austin with a knowing air; but on pp. 24-27 he uses the term "sanction" some ten times in a way that might make Austin turn in his grave, and which is quite indefensible. His style is cumbrous and frequently incorrect. The meaning of such phrases as these, "An area formed accidentally by the legislative movements of water supply" (p. 13), "a standard which should be used as a conforming test" (p. 142), can be readily guessed; but continual guessing is tiring. One or two general ideas are indeed discernible, especially this, that when new governmental powers are to be conferred on any local authority, it would be better to attach them to the old historical units, the county, the borough, and the parish, than to create brand-new institutions. That this would be wise to-day we may well allow. But it does not occur to the author, in the midst of his distress at the different policy pursued by the English Parliament during the last couple of centuries, to ask whether that policy may not have had some justification in the facts of rural life as they were then. Mr. Gomme's implied argument, that certain things are desirable because something that looks like them is to be found among our mediæval ancestors, is one we had hoped had gone out of fashion.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baugh, Mary E. Her Fortune her Misfortune. F. T. Neely.
Brady, Rev. C. T. For Love of Country. Scribners. $1.25.
Cook, Prof. A. S. Biblical Quotations in Old English Prose Writers. Macmillan. $3.
Davitt, Michael. Life and Progress in Australia. London: Methuen & Co.
Dombre, Roger. Les Demoiselles Danaïdes. Paris: Colin & Cie.
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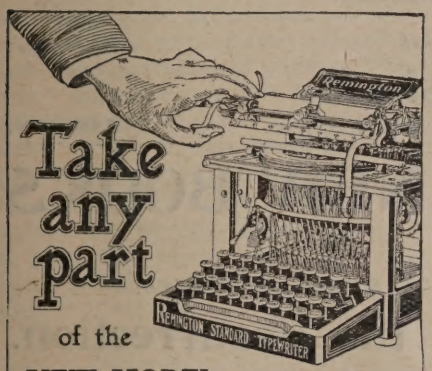

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 24, 1898.

The Week.

The admirable conduct of the Government officials at Washington renders the course of the sensational press in this city the more shameful by contrast. Nothing so disgraceful as the behavior of two of these newspapers in the past week has ever been known in the history of American journalism. Gross misrepresentation of the facts, deliberate invention of tales calculated to excite the public, and wanton recklessness in the construction of headlines which outdid even these inventions, have combined to make the issues of the most widely circulated newspapers firebrands scattered broadcast throughout the community. It speaks well for the good sense of the masses that so little effect has been produced by all this stuff. It is evident that a large proportion of the public refuses to take the sensational newspapers seriously, and reads them only from motives of curiosity. At the same time there is abundant evidence that thousands of people are affected by such announcements in print as "War Sure," and that this sort of recklessness disturbs the public mind unnecessarily. It is a crying shame that men should work such mischief simply in order to sell more papers; and the first impulse of every right-minded person is to wish that journalism of this sort might be suppressed by the hand of the law.

We are in receipt of many letters asking whether nothing can be done to this end. Frankly, we do not see that anything can be done. The trouble lies in the condition of our society. Suppose we had a law declaring such articles criminal libel, it would have to be executed through jury trials. These trials would last for months, and would rival the Dreyfus trial in blatherskite and absurdity, and act as a tremendous advertisement for the wretched sheets which caused them. Of course such libels as they have been publishing on the Spanish Government and people ought to be criminal offences, but we have long ceased to regard printed stuff as criminal unless it is obscene. The people who buy such papers are really *participes criminis*. In the well-governed and highly civilized communities of the future, they will be arrested at the newsstands and locked up; but we are far from that. The reason why such journals lie is that it pays to lie; or, in other words, this is the very reason for which they are silly and scandalous and indecent. They supply a want of a demoralized public. Moreover, such journals are almost always in favor of war, because war affords unusual opportunities for lying and sensation. That war involves much suffering and loss does not matter. Their business is not to promote public happiness or morality, but "to sell the paper." And it must be admitted, they find in the Jingo spirit a great deal of encouragement for their wretched business. Dr. Huntington of Grace Church, in his sermon on Sunday, struck a deadly blow at this spirit. After depicting the results of the explosion which is filling the land with horror and mourning, the fearful loss of life, the sufferings of the wounded, and so on, he turned on our sorrow, and said, had we done intentionally this very thing to a Spanish ship in time of war, and caused just this loss of life, just this agony of the wounded, the land would be filled with rejoicing. Such is the contradictory nature of man!

The sympathy manifested by the public authorities and citizens of Havana at the funeral of the dead sailors of the *Maine* ought to soften some asperities on this side of the Gulf Stream. The Cuban junta and press will perhaps try to make it appear that this sympathy was perfunctory and not genuine. Such a theory is not compatible with Capt. Sigsbee's dispatch. A whole population never joins in a perfunctory act. Capt. Sigsbee says that the funeral was attended not merely by those in official life, but by a vast concourse of people. These people did not merely stand on the street while the funeral procession passed, but escorted it to the cemetery where the remains of our brave men were buried in ground presented to us as a gift. This was a touching act of kindness. It was all that the people of Havana could do. It was all that we could do under similar circumstances for the dead sailors of the most friendly nation on earth.

One member of the House naval committee admits that it might be well to have a war if only for the purpose of finding out definitely how a modern war-ship will behave in battle. Much was hoped from the naval conflict of the Chinese and Japanese, but the battle of the Yalu, though a most satisfactory "hell of death and destruction," left an unpleasant number of uncertainties in our best naval minds. Will an iron-clad pierced by a torpedo sink in two minutes or in ten? Is the store of high explosives on board more dangerous to the crew than to the enemy? These and many other doubts can be resolved only by an actual war, and, as this Congressman says, we shall soon be driven to a war if only to relieve naval constructors from their harrowing uncertainties. It would be a great boon to foreign navies, too. They are far from clear what will happen to a battle-ship in action. If we go to war in order to show them, they will add to their telegrams of condolence at the sinking of our ships with all on board expressions of heartfelt gratitude for having demonstrated just how the thing was done.

The Hawaiian scheme of annexation was sure from the first to be opposed by nearly all the Democrats in the Senate. It is now openly fought by such prominent Republican Senators as Mr. Morrill of Vermont and Mr. Gear of Iowa. These Senators are sustained by the chief organs of their party in their respective States, while all through the North the drift of opinion in the Republican press sets more and more strongly against the project week by week. As public sentiment thus pronounces against annexation, those Republican Senators who had no strong convictions either way at first, naturally incline to oppose a measure which must seriously injure the party if it shall be carried through. The *Times* made the gratifying announcement on Monday, upon the authority of a Senator who opposes annexation, that not less than forty Senators can be depended upon to vote against the treaty; which leaves but fifty favoring the treaty in a full Senate—ten less than the constitutional two-thirds required for its ratification. The treaty is therefore dead, and the *Times* also hears that the annexationists will not press the Morgan scheme to annex the islands by bill or resolution, as they foresee defeat there also. There will doubtless be more or less spluttering yet, but all the indications sustain the view that annexation is already practically defeated.

The exhibition of Tammany official manners which the Mayor gave us when the Captain of the Vizcaya called at the city hall on Monday may serve the useful purpose of bringing more clearly to our minds the true nature of the Charter Birth anniversary which we are asked to celebrate. Official manners of this extraordinary kind were surely never seen before in the Chief Executive of a great city, and they came in here with our new charter. At least they are an improvement upon those which the Mayor gave us during the first few weeks of his term, and there is reason for thankfulness, possibly, in the fact that he was content to receive Capt. Eulate in boorish silence. He might

have abused and bullied him for his impudence in calling, as if he were a mere reformer or Mugwump. The chairman's idea that a Birth Celebration will boom our city by compelling the newspapers of foreign countries to devote more of their space to our affairs, is likely to be realized if the Mayor continues to receive foreign visitors in this striking style. Special correspondents will be sent here presently from all parts of the world to study us as a curiosity of modern civilization, and in time it may be as perilous for an obnoxious foreign visitor to enter the city hall as it was for Stanley to penetrate Africa.

It came out very clearly at Thursday's meeting of the committee which has been invited by the Mayor to organize a Charter Birth Celebration, that nobody outside Tammany circles cares to take part in it. Mr. Croker was not merely the central figure at the meeting, surrounded by his favorites, but actually directed its proceedings from the front bench, much as he directs those of regular Tammany gatherings. All the leading professional and business representatives of the city, who had been invited to attend, failed to appear, and only two of the many ex-Mayors, both Tammany men, were present. One of those, Mr. Gilroy, moved to make Mayor Van Wyck honorary President of the celebration, and this was carried. The chairman, Mr. Washington, repeated his very striking observations in regard to the amount of space which foreign newspapers would be compelled to give to the affair, and the meeting adjourned amid much genuine Tammany enthusiasm. Nothing was said, of course, about the leading personages who are to perform the proposed "literary exercises" which are to constitute the chief feature of the celebration, but we venture to suggest to Mr. Croker that the orator of the day be the Hon. Thomas F. Grady. We are confident that this will meet Mr. Croker's approval, for only a short time ago Mr. Scannell said of the relations of the two: "The Senator is highly prized by Mr. Croker for his learning, ability, eloquence, and familiarity with practical politics. The Senator could undoubtedly have any position he wanted in the city government, but his services at Albany are regarded by Mr. Croker as too valuable to be lost for this time. Great head the Senator has got, ain't he? Ain't he an interesting talker! You can't mention any subject that the Senator ain't up on, and can't talk about by the hour, while you can't help listening."

The figures of the Immigration Bureau for the last six months of 1897 are calculated to strengthen the growing opposition in the House to the Senate bill for the restriction of immigration by the establishment of an educational test. Such a test has been urged chiefly as a means of protection against the hordes of illiterates that come from Italy, Russia, Hungary, Poland, and other nations where the masses are very ignorant. But during the last half of 1897 there came from Italy only 20,616 persons of all ages, from Russia 12,323, from Hungary 5,885, and from Poland 1,737, while a considerable proportion of these would not be affected by the reading test because too young for its application, or excepted from its operation by other provisions of the bill. This seems too small a number of people to worry over, especially as the immigration from each of these four countries except Poland was smaller during the last half of 1897 than in the same period of 1896. Indeed, "McKinley prosperity" is not yet reflected in the tide of immigration, the total number of arrivals for the six months of 1897 being but 92,492, against 100,349 in the corresponding months of 1896.

The official statement of this country's foreign trade in January marks a continuance of all the noteworthy phenomena which have distinguished our commerce during the last two seasons. Exports of merchandise from the United States last month were again larger than in any corresponding period in our history, and exceeded by $14,537,567 the January shipments of last year. On the other hand, the month's import of merchandise was the smallest for January in at least a dozen years, and less by ten to twenty-five million dollars than the imports of the same month in years such as 1892 and 1893. This is in line with the tendency of this class of exports during the last five years, as is shown in the comparative table herewith subjoined:

Calendar year	Export of manufactures.
1897	$279,616,898
1896	253,681,541
1895	201,153,663
1894	177,786,069
1893	177,347,876
1892	152,397,392

It may be added that the proportion of manufactured exports to the total export trade was in 1892 only 16½ per cent., whereas in 1897, with all the increase in the cereal shipments, it had risen to 25⅞ per cent. Numerous inferences, more or less conflicting, have been drawn from this extraordinary expansion. Dingley and his fellow-philosophers are fond of arguing that if such a movement can continue with a new and high protective-tariff law in force, then surely there can be no ground for objecting to protective tariffs because of their ill effects on foreign trade. But we suspect that people who wish to grasp the true significance of the export trade in manufactures, in its relation to protective tariffs, will hardly stop at this triumphant flash of argument.

When Milford W. Howard of Alabama came to Congress, he did not know that his bank deposit in Washington could be attached to satisfy his debts. The courts of the District of Columbia have, however, decided that this process may be employed against him as a non-resident, and that as a member of Congress he is not privileged from suit while in attendance upon its sessions. Nearly twenty years ago the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia held, in an action against Representative Durrant of Texas, that members of Congress are at all times liable to service of process, just as other individuals are, though during the sessions, and while going to and from them, they are privileged from *arrest* in any civil action. The Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia, referring to this carefully considered decision, maintains that it is sound in principle, and that it is in accord with the weight of judicial opinion even in England. It admits that the tribunals of the various States have not been uniform in their decisions as respects the privileges of the members of the Legislature, but contends that in considering the privileges of members of Congress, only the Constitution of the United States can be looked to. That instrument declares that these officers shall be privileged from *arrest* during their attendance at the session and in going to and returning from the same, in all cases except treason, felony, and breach of the peace. This abridges even the exemption from arrest, the intent of the framers being, as Jefferson says, that "the laws shall bind equally on all, and especially that those who make them shall not exempt themselves from their operation." In England these privileges were strained to such intolerable lengths that the courts were compelled to interfere, and finally the Parliament, early in the reign of George III., obviated the necessity of this interference by enacting a statute expressly abolishing the exemption of its members from the service of civil process unaccompanied by arrest. Unfortunately, in this country some judges were misled by the text in the earliest editions of Blackstone, and their erroneous decisions have been blindly followed in other cases.

There is some quite natural irritation at Albany over Gov. Black's open assumption of the right to exercise a controlling influence over legislation. He not only serves notice upon the Legislature concerning special measures which he wishes to have passed, but also declares in advance his determination not to approve others which he dislikes, provided they are passed. Members of the Legislature denounce this as an assumption of legislative powers which is unwarranted in the executive, and it is difficult to dispute that contention. The Governor began this practice last year when he forced the passage of his

starchless civil-service law. He has enlarged upon it this year by calling conferences of the members to hear his views on a primary bill and other measures, in order that they may know what his wishes are and obey them. Members who have not objected when Platt did this, do object when the Governor does it, possibly on the ground that two bosses are more than they ought to be called upon to endure. The remedy is in their own hands. They have only to refuse to obey, and the system will break down. The difficulty with that course is that their "local bills" are at the Governor's mercy, and will break down also if he is defied.

Town elections were held in five more counties in this State last week, and showed the same tendency as the similar ones in sixteen counties the week before. The Democrats gained six Supervisors, as against a gain of only two for the Republicans, and in the twenty-one counties which have now held town elections, the total Democratic gain is thirty-nine, while the Republicans have gained but three. It is impossible to explain so striking a change on any other theory than dissatisfaction with the Republican party as it is represented by the Platt machine. That such dissatisfaction should find general expression in the rural districts of the State is highly significant, because it is those districts upon which the Republican boss always relies for support when there is a revolt against his rule in the cities.

The local election in Philadelphia last week illustrated the ease with which the machines of the two parties can combine their forces to defeat independent movements. Two magistrates were to be chosen, but the voter could cast only one vote for that office. The Municipal League placed a candidate in the field, and made so active a canvass that the professional politicians on both sides feared his success. The Republican managers were as much opposed to such a result as the Democratic, and resolved to prevent it by insuring the election of the candidate of the other machine. Some hundreds of Republicans in each ward, therefore, evidently by concerted action, cast their votes, not for the Republican candidate, who was sure to succeed in any case, but for the Democratic nominee. The Republican managers evidently supposed that they had arranged for enough such votes to do the business, but they figured a little too closely, and the independent nominee slipped in by a small plurality. For Tax Receiver the League candidate ran much further ahead of the Democratic, but he was overwhelmingly defeated by the Republican nominee. The only encouragement to be drawn from the results is suggested by the *Ledger*, which points out that the Democratic organization in Philadelphia for several years has been utterly useless as a restraint upon the dominant party, and considers it "a matter of congratulation that in the place of this discredited organization there has arisen a real minority party, which, though not yet strong enough to cope with the office-holders and placemen, is, nevertheless, the nucleus of a minority party that in better days may be summoned by the people to take charge of the city government."

Late news from Nicaragua brings discouraging accounts of the progress of the survey for the canal. A letter in the *Tribune*, dated San Carlos, January 23, says that Mr. Brown's party began work on the 7th and found great difficulty in establishing a base-line. After cutting a pathway through wood and swamp for a mile it was found impossible to set up a transit. "The men sank to their armpits in the mire without getting solid ground under their feet." Eventually a base-line was established, but there was no open country to work in. "Every inch of the line had to be cut." Just as they were ready to begin work from the base-line a difficulty of a totally different kind was met, Mr. Brown being recalled to the United States as a witness in the court-martial of Capt. Carter at Savannah. The remainder of the surveying party are going ahead as well as they can, but they have found that the appropriation for the work is much too small. Capt. Ludlow, who made the previous report—the one that Senator Morgan so flouted in the debate a year or more ago—had said that at least $350,000 would be needed to make a proper survey. Congress appropriated only $150,000. But, according to the *Tribune's* letter, the work will cost $500,000, judging from the scale of expense already incurred. There is a humorous side to the survey, according to this writer, growing out of the prepossessions of different members of the party touching the amount of rainfall in Nicaragua, which is a matter of prime importance. Although only a very little progress has been made, enough has been done to show that the passage of the Morgan bill in the last Congress would have involved the Government in an untold expense, without any certainty of ever getting the canal built at any cost.

While Brother Henry is striving desperately to beg or borrow coal enough to get his ships to Kiao-Chau, the German newspapers are poking sly fun at him and Consecrated William. Of course, they cannot do it openly; there are jails as well as judges in Berlin. But they have taken to studying the Chinese classics with prodigious zeal. What can be more natural or praiseworthy? If the Germans are going to colonize China, it is absolutely necessary for them to know the ideas of the Chinese people. So the German editors have been going deep into Confucius, and they solemnly bring out for the edification of their readers such solid chunks of wisdom from the philosopher as these:

"A man of weight blushes in fear at the thought that the echo of his words may be louder than the fame of his deeds.

"The wise man is overcome with shame at the loud and extravagant clamor of words, at vain and boastful behavior, and at exaggerated demands for slavish obedience.

"Noisy pageants, pomp which has only a fleeting influence upon the senses, and scenic effects, have never contributed much to the happiness of nations."

Of course, nobody mentions the word Kiel, or says anything about the braggart speeches there or the ostentatious departure for China; it is all a simple-minded citation of Confucius. But one can imagine the chuckling.

What Zola's trial is bringing out most distinctly is that there is something concealed, and something which the military authorities wish to keep concealed, for some unrevealed reason. The plea that you must rely, as to this reason, on the honor of the military authorities, would probably be triumphant but for the fact that a man's liberty and career are involved. If it were a good reason in this case, it would be a good defence for secret trials, in all cases in which the judge's character stood high. Zola's position is that no judges, military or civil, stand high enough to try a man in secret, or to keep secret their reasons for condemning him; and the more he can keep this proposition before the public, the more ground he gains. But he is fighting against one of the most deeply rooted principles of French jurisprudence—the principle that an accused man is probably guilty. The old ante-Revolutionary parlements were led by this into dreadful atrocities, and it more than aught else brought them under Voltaire's lash in the last century. The Revolution brought about great changes in the judicial machinery, but it brought little in the character of criminal prosecution, beyond abolishing torture and breaking on the wheel. It left the popular mind still under the hideous theory that when a man falls into the hands of justice, the public has no further concern with him, and that whatever the judges do with him is probably right. In fact, the French pénal system has undergone no réal reform since 1789. It is only within a month or two that the complete seclusion and secret preliminary examination of accused persons before the "juges d'instruction" were abolished. So that Zola is really fighting for more than Dreyfus. He is fighting, whether he is conscious of it or not, for every man's right to public trial. After this we doubt if any man, "militaire" or "pékin," will ever lose his civil rights through secret inquiry.

A TEST OF NATIONAL CHARACTER.

The bearing of a man in the presence of a startling and crushing calamity yields a searching test of his character, and the same is true of a nation. If reason prevails over hysteric alarms, if dignity and coolness and fortitude in disaster keep down unmanly cries and panic fear, the mental and moral stuff is shown to be sound, and the purpose firm and resolute will shine out the nobler for the trial. Such a trying of our national temper has come to us in the mysterious and appalling loss of the *Maine* in Havana harbor. All the antecedent circumstances were of a sort to make one dread a wild outburst of blind rage in Washington and throughout the country; but happily the event has disappointed both those who dreaded and those who desired and labored for such an outbreak.

To Capt. Sigsbee's calm dispatch are we indebted more than to any other one thing for the general disposition to wait and hear before striking. His situation was excruciatingly painful, but he kept his head. He was telegraphing not only under the first keen sense of disaster, not only conscious that he stood responsible for the loss of his ship and his crew until inquiry should relieve him of all suspicion of negligence, but fully aware that one word, one hint, from him would set this country aflame. The self-possession and the good judgment of his dispatch were, under these circumstances, simply admirable. With the voice of reason heard so audibly from him, it was easier for it to make itself heard in Washington and throughout the land. We owe this cool-headed officer much. He deserves well of his country, and is entitled to adopt the motto, *Sævis tranquillus in undis.*

And we must say that the cabinet and (as a body) Congress have borne themselves well. They have acted only as they should have done; but we have heard too much harum-scarum talk from our public men, and seen them too often fall into a frenzy, in connection with foreign complications, not to be duly grateful when they conduct themselves with the dignity of rational beings. The thing is the more gratifying because we have had six or eight years of constant Jingo excitement to make our national temper irritable and suspicious. We have had dark plots and designs of foreign nations held up before us as bogies. National good faith, the sincerity of a desire for peace, the sanctity of treaties, the strength of diplomatic methods and moral forces—all have been scouted as the delusions of lethargic and luxury-loving citizens or the inventions of malicious enemies. We have had prayers offered in Congress that we might be "quick to resent insults." A hectoring, jealous, fault-finding, touchy, and quarrelsome spirit has been steadily preached to us, by many powerful organs of public opinion, as the true grandeur of a nation; and it would not have been strange if such a dramatic occurrence as the destruction of the *Maine* had been chosen as the occasion for great fuming and posturing and crying to high heaven at Washington.

But we are glad and proud to say that reason asserted herself. The danger was that something rash would be done in the first confused moments. When once we began to think quietly about the affair, the rest was easy. It was at once evident that the chances were enormously in favor of the theory that the blowing up of the *Maine* was due to accident. But suppose it were shown that she was destroyed by foul play, by treachery from within or by secret attack from without—what would that prove? That we should instantly declare war against Spain? By no means. It is simply inconceivable that the Spanish authorities in Cuba, high or low, could have countenanced any plot to destroy the *Maine*. Make them out as wicked as you please, they are not lunatics; and official connivance in torpedoing the *Maine*, or in firing a mine under her, would have been an act of madness far more fatal to Spain than it could possibly be to this country. The only possible conclusion, if it should appear that the *Maine* was blown up from the outside, would be that the work was done by some irresponsible miscreant for whose actions no country, no officer, could be held accountable. The perception of this truth no doubt restrained the authorities at Washington from taking any rash step or even forming any hasty conclusion.

We think a slightly sobering effect on the professional Jingoes may be observed. Senator Morgan, it is true, was hot for having two battle-ships ordered at once by joint resolution to take the place of the *Maine*. We must show the world, he said (using a fine image to convey his idea that the country is best thought of as a devil-fish), that when one of our tentacles is cut off, two new ones immediately grow in its place. Later, Senator Mason of Illinois made a degrading spectacle of himself, by insinuating that an investigation undertaken by the naval authorities would not be a fair and truthful one—that it would conceal facts in order to shield somebody, presumably the Spanish Government or some Spaniard, from punishment for the awful crime of blowing up an American ship in time of peace. But on the whole this tragedy of the navy in time of peace has made Congressmen pause and think what might happen in war. A foreign war, especially a naval war, has been pictured as such a jaunty, holiday affair for national picnic-makers, that this stroke of the grim reality, this sudden eruption of the volcano, which, in Senator Hale's phrase, a modern war-ship is, has distinctly appeased the Jingo appetite for gleefully fighting all creation.

The first effect, then, of this shocking calamity upon the nation has been salutary. It has discovered in us a reserve of sanity, of calmness, of poise and weight, which is worth more than all our navy. If we are able to display these qualities throughout, the world will think better of us, and our own self-respect will be heightened; and, despite the Jingoes, it is better to have foreign nations admire us than dread us, better to be conscious of strength of character than of strength of muscle.

WONDERFUL LAWMAKING.

Senator Ellsworth has had some difficulty in inducing anybody to take a serious view of his bill "to prohibit and punish the publication and dissemination of licentious, indecent, and degrading papers," but he found one man who was able to do so at a hearing last week upon the measure, and the result is likely to prejudice him against further treatment of that sort. Mr. Ellsworth, as chairman of the Senate judiciary committee, presided at the hearing, impressively sustained by Senator Lexow as chief member of it. Nobody appeared in defence of the measure, and the chief argument against it was made by ex-Congressman Franklin Bartlett of this city. Mr. Bartlett took up the bill seriously, as a measure which had been conceived in intelligence and designed to constitute real law, though this is a view of it which few persons who have ever given thought to the subject have found themselves able to take. Indeed, we doubt very much if Mr. Ellsworth was able to take it after Mr. Bartlett had concluded.

Mr. Bartlett grouped his objections under three heads, first, that the legislation proposed is unnecessary; second, that it violates every principle of natural justice; and third, that it is unconstitutional and void, and hence beyond the power of the Legislature to enact into binding law. Every one of these objections he sustained with such an overwhelming array of fact and argument that even Ellsworth was unable to defend his bill except by saying that its intention was different from what its text implied. Mr. Bartlett showed, in reference to the first objection, that there were at present in the penal code ample provisions against obscene literature and libel. One would imagine, he said, from reading the bill, "that we had no libel law on our statute-books, no law against obscene literature." Ellsworth evidently imagined as much, for on no other theory can the composition of his bill be explained. Mr. Bartlett said he had been asked not to oppose the bill because it was designed especially to apply to prurient publications; and then he proceeded to show its

author that these publications were already forbidden by the penal code. He made it very plain that if this was the object of the bill, there was no excuse for its existence.

He then went on to prove that it was aimed at the natural liberty of the citizen by imposing upon the business of publishing a newspaper such obligations and penalties as would amount to prohibition in case the courts were to sustain them. In the first place, "the main crime is to have anything whatsoever to do with the printing or publishing of a newspaper—not that it is corrupt, degraded, depraved, or indecent, but that by some construction in the minds of some jury somewhere in one of the sixty counties of the State it can be held to have a tendency to corrupt the morals of some one person, or to degrade that person, or to injure him." Upon conviction of this crime, the offender can be punished by a fine of not more than $1,000, or imprisonment for not more than a year, or both fine and imprisonment. For a second offence, he may be imprisoned for five years, and his paper suppressed for all time, the use of the name even for a new paper being made a crime. But this was not enough to satisfy Ellsworth. Said Mr. Bartlett:

"That was not sufficiently drastic. That doesn't strike the press of the State enough, so the second section goes on to create an absolutely new crime, unheard of in the annals of any State or in the records of any Legislature. And that is what? It makes it a misdemeanor to fail to publish the name of any one connected with the newspaper. It applies to every paper sold or circulated throughout the State of New York. The first provision declares that every paper circulated in this State shall contain a printed statement setting forth the names of every owner, proprietor, publisher, and editor of such paper; and if it fails to do this, every person connected with the paper is guilty of a misdemeanor."

These are only sample provisions of the bill. There are others equally ridiculous. Mr. Bartlett went to the trouble of quoting the opinions of the founders of the republic, Madison and Hamilton, and others on the right of freedom of the citizen and the press, but it was a sheer waste of time. If Ellsworth never heard of them before, it is quite useless to call his attention to them now.

Mr. Bartlett's argument that the bill is clearly unconstitutional was as unanswerable as that which he made on the other two points. There is not the slightest chance that, if made a law, the bill would be sustained by the courts. Neither is there the slightest chance that a jury could be empanelled that would bring in a verdict under it if it were to be put in force. It is a wild absurdity from beginning to end. What its author had in mind when he was drafting it we cannot imagine. Possibly he thought he was pleasing Mr. Platt and Mr. Croker, both of whom are seriously troubled by the license of the press and its treatment of great men. Ellsworth tried to make some response to Mr. Bartlett's arguments, but his observations revealed, as his bill does, dense ignorance of the whole field of libel law and the purpose of such law. The gifted Lexow sought to help him out, but with indifferent success. When Mr. Bartlett said that the bill erred in attempting to establish a general crime instead of a specific one, and declared that "you cannot punish people for general badness," Lexow asked, "Why is it not right to punish a man who carries on the business of corrupting morals?" Mr. Bartlett's reply quieted the great man permanently: "I would do so, but you must try him for a specific offence."

The chief value of this incident is the revelation which it makes of the quality of mind which the Platt system of government brings to the front in the Legislature. Ellsworth and Lexow are the legal luminaries of the Senate, the first members of its judiciary committee. Their libel bill is a fair sample of the kind of law they would give us if they had their unimpeded way. They draft new measures without any regard for, apparently without any knowledge of, existing statute or fundamental law, and propose to "jam" them through on the simple, elementary principle that "the old man wants them." If we had not a constitution and courts, existence in the State would soon become intolerable, for we should have no law or government save what the boss gave us.

THE CITIZENS' UNION.

The "committee on permanent organization" of the Citizens' Union has made its report. It recommends, in brief, a central committee, a district association, and a central committee for the boroughs, composed of delegates from each borough. Membership in the district associations is to be obtained by signing a declaration approving of the principles of the Citizens' Union, and expressing an intention to act with it in city affairs, but reserving freedom of action in national and State politics.

The report states that the committee had to choose between imitation of the Democratic and Republican machines, or a campaign of political education simply, through such an organization as it recommends:

"The supporters of this view pointed out that it would be the height of unwisdom for the Citizens' Union to devise a complete scheme of political organization, for purposes of show or of symmetry, that was in advance of local sentiment or that local sentiment could not support; that neighborhood sentiment in favor of the principles and policies of the Union must first be stimulated and allowed to develop naturally, in its own way, about the personalities of its own voluntarily chosen and trusted leaders; that in the immediate future the opportunities for political action are very few and relatively unimportant, while the opportunities for a campaign of education are constant and obvious; that, therefore, a simple form of organization is all that is required at the moment, one that will preserve the continuity and maintain the prestige of the campaign organization of 1897, and that will also inspire and guide the development of neighborhood sentiment in all parts of the city, and provide for the more formal organization of the supporters of the Union for campaigning purposes as soon as local sentiment will fully warrant and support such further organization."

The wisdom of this must be apparent to every one who has any familiarity with the history of politics in this city. The voters have to be taught a good many things before there is any use in enrolling them. They have to be taught in the first place that the city has interests of its own, separate from, and in many cases to the residents, higher than, those of the State or nation, and that these interests cannot be properly cared for without a mental discrimination on the part of the voters. The general diffusion of this view is going to be the hardest part of the reform work, because it is the view against which the machines of both parties have most sedulously contended. Their principal effort at every election has been to make the city appear a mere counter in the federal game, and its tickets merely auxiliaries to the Presidential contest. They had been so successful in this that they had almost until last year produced among the people of the city a sort of incapacity to conceive of the city as a body corporate, or to understand the relation of its government to the primary conveniences of life. Tens of thousands went to the polls every year, indifferent to the effect of their vote on health, education, and police, or local taxation, as long as it promised to put a tariff or an anti-tariff man in the Presidential chair. To break up this habit of mind is far more important than the creation of a good nominating machine, because, until it is broken up, it makes little difference how we nominate.

We are glad to see that the committee did not make enrolment a leading feature in their plan. This passion for "enrolment" is one of the relics of the old party organization, the least adapted to any new order. It was undoubtedly intended in its origin to put on record in black and white the names of the persons whose fidelity to the party entitled them to an office or favors, when the party got into power. At all events, this is what it has become in the hands of the Boys of both parties. Originally it may have been designed as a list of the genuine and honest party men. It has for more than a generation ceased to be anything of the kind. Not one-tenth of those who support either party in this city ever "enroll." How many of those who supported Mr. Low, for instance, wanted to take part in nominations? Not 2 per cent. What they wanted was good candidates to vote for, to be supplied by some honest body, like the central committee. Supply such a body, and you need not drag the citizen from his fireside to put his name down anywhere or to attend meetings. By no endeavor will it be possible to get meetings, whether district associations,

good-government clubs, or others, in a great city, attended by the bulk of the voters continuously for any lengthened period. They will read your papers, and give you their adhesion, but they will not leave their homes to listen to the harangues of the somewhat dull persons who are apt to be the principal speakers at such places. Therefore, we believe the committee of the Union is wise in confining its organization to two good committees, and as many district associations as naturally come into existence, but we wish we could see why a man should "enroll" or sign "declarations" in order to join the association. The declaration will not bind him to vote the committee's ticket, and if this ticket is ever to win, not one in twenty of those who vote for it will ever have gone to a meeting or signed any pledge.

All our reform organizations shudder a little over the idea of "raising a standard to which the wise and honest can repair," to use Washington's phrase, and trusting simply to goodness to bring the good men to its support. They must have a ponderous machine, needing a whole army of "workers" to keep it going, before they can make nominations, and the machine is so troublesome that little by little the working drops into the hands of a few, who attend to it for want of any honest calling. The Low movement is a striking illustration of the readiness of the community for something new in the mode of selecting candidates. It indicated clearly the line on which any organization which is to be successful in New York must travel. The object it must aim at is the selection of candidates so plainly good that people will vote for them without putting down their names anywhere, or interrupting their daily occupations. Reformers must remember that government was never meant to be an absorbing occupation. It is a human convenience, like clothes or tools. We have made it very much what travelling by stage was said to be in parts of the South before the war. You paid high for a seat and then started on the journey on foot, carrying a fence-rail to prise the coach out of the mud when it got stuck.

THE ANGLO-FRENCH IMBROGLIO.

It is not easy to understand the proceedings of the French in Africa. There are two opinions about them current in England. One is that the French Ministry desires to keep a foreign question going, without bringing on a crisis, in order, if possible, to divert public attention from internal troubles, in reliance on two things—Lord Salisbury's timidity and the Queen's reluctance to have her closing years troubled by a great war. The other is that the French really wish to fight the most unpopular Power in Europe, and the one with which complications would be least likely to bring them into collision with the only Power they really dread—that is, Germany. Germany would probably witness an Anglo-French conflict with pleasure, and could be relied on now, as she could not have been even ten years ago, to keep her hands off.

There are evidently two currents of opinion, too, in the British cabinet. Lord Salisbury, as always, shrinks from war; but the Chancellor of the Exchequer is evidently full of fight, and so is Mr. Chamberlain, within whose jurisdiction the French trouble clearly comes. Chamberlain has during the past twenty years produced a great many projects which have come to nothing. He probably never was so popular as during the short period when there seemed some likelihood of trouble with Paul Krüger and with Germany. At one time it seemed likely he would be able to parade Paul in triumph, fairly tamed and subjugated, through London streets; but Paul was too shrewd for him, and would not come, and produced those dreadful telegrams. The subsequent African inquiry did not turn out well either. Nothing was proved against Mr. Chamberlain, but nothing was proved for him, and his certificate of character for Rhodes did not give satisfaction to moralists. The scheme of subsidies to the West India sugar men, also, does not please British taxpayers. They may have to submit to it, but no one will win popularity by it. As a specimen of the way to "improve neglected estates," it does not seem worthy of as clever a man as Mr. Chamberlain.

Under these circumstances the Colonial Secretary would, of course, be glad of anything which would again make the Colonial Office the centre of excitement and intelligence, as in the old Krüger days, and Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, as a Gloucester squire of the olden time, probably inherits a strong disinclination to "stand any nonsense" from Frenchmen. The French have not been lucky in their colonial wars. This fight for colonies was begun in India more than a century ago, and was continued as a fight for America, and in both cases with unfortunate results. The fight for Africa would probably end in the same way. Upon the merits of the African dispute it is not easy to pass, so uncertain are boundaries in a wilderness, and so vague a thing is a "sphere of influence." Each Power is probably ready to take and keep whatever the other is willing to yield, but in any resort to force, the French would probably be promptly cut off from all succor by the British maritime superiority, if anything can be confidently asserted about the future of naval warfare.

Nobody seems able to foresee how the next naval war will go. If we rely on ingenuity of construction and thickness of armor, we are told that a single shot may dislocate the elaborate machinery of the costliest ship-of-war and make her comparatively helpless in the hands of the best of sailors. If we rely on seamanship, we are told that the result of a naval fight does not depend any longer on seamanship, but on manœuvring, and that all sailors can do is to watch and wait until engineers bring them into a good position to get a shot at the enemy. So there may be said to be as yet no authorities on naval warfare. The past furnishes no lessons about it. What seems most likely to the unprofessional eye, is that there will be a great deal of "going to the bottom," and that the Power which has most ships is most likely to be the victor at sea. But the old Napoleonic scheme of throwing a large force on the English shores might to-day be revived by a Power in command of a large land force, with chances in its favor such as Napoleon never had. At the same time it must be remembered that warlike and fond of war as the French are, not since Rocroi have the French arms enjoyed any considerable success, except under an Italian of genius. Under Louis XIV., even, they were treated to a great deal of what the late Gen. Kearney called "beautiful fighting," yet his wars left France unsuccessful and impoverished. His successor was, as a military man, unfortunate, except at Fontenoy; and after the Revolution, wherever Napoleon was absent from the scene, even his veterans began to give ground.

In any event, war would probably be the end of the republic, if victorious. What would happen if it were beaten, the boldest prophet might well shrink from predicting. The foundations of no permanent régime have yet been laid in France. The revolutionary spirit has been compelled to confine its expression to shouting and "manifesting," and all prospect of a constitutional monarchy may be said to have finally disappeared. But the republic of the future, a republic in which the government will be loved and respected, as well as put up with, can hardly be said to have been founded as yet.

THE MAKING OF THE OXFORD DICTIONARY.

LONDON, February, 1898.

One of the most interesting excursions taken by the American Librarians who attended the International Conference held in London in July last, was, unquestionably, that made to the city of Oxford. There, roaming among the antique colleges and their delightful surroundings, those pilgrims from the New World could get an idea of the oldness of Old England such as no other town in England could afford. One of the entertainments given to the visitors was a reception by Mr. Byron Nicholson, the Librarian of the Bodleian. At this gathering an observer would have noticed a number of the visitors grouped around a man of

mature and vigorous appearance, with a long head and a massive forehead, whose eyes sparkled with intellectual light, as he held forth to his listeners upon a subject that evidently interested them greatly. This striking personality was Dr. James A. H. Murray, editor of the Oxford Dictionary. When the knot of listeners dispersed, they were promised by Dr. Murray that he would show them, on the day following, the Scriptorium, where the work of making the Dictionary is being carried on. Accordingly, about fifty librarians put in an appearance at the Scriptorium next day, instead of only fifteen, as Dr. and Mrs. Murray had expected. They had the pleasure of seeing, in his home life, the man who is the architect of a vast literary pile that will last as long as the English language has a literature of its own. At the same time they found in Mrs. Murray—a granddaughter of Ruthven, one of the pioneers of geology—not only a winsome hostess, but also an example of the helpful wife of a British savant.

The late Archbishop Trench of Dublin was an eminent philologist. His instructive little volume upon 'The Study of Words' would of itself have given him a reputation. When Dr. Trench was as yet Dean of Westminster, he read two papers to the Philological Society "On Some Deficiencies in our English Dictionaries." The Dean said it was the business of the dictionary maker to "collect and arrange *all* the words of a language." He pointed out that obsolete words were omitted from dictionaries, while there was no history given of existing words. As there was no institution in Great Britain analogous to the Academy in France, Dr. Trench urged upon the Philological Society that it should take the steps necessary to supply such deficiencies. His own idea was, that the best way of doing that would be by publishing a supplement to existing dictionaries. The Society adopted the suggestion, and it was decided that a supplement should be compiled. To carry this into effect an "unregistered words committee" was appointed, consisting of Dean Trench, Herbert Coleridge, Dr. Furnivall, Hensleigh Wedgwood, and Professor Malden. The two latter were responsible for etymology. The three former took the literary and historical side. Their commission was to "form a collection of words hitherto unregistered in the dictionaries of Johnson and Richardson." Seventy-six persons undertook to read various books, in furtherance of the objects of the committee. Among the best known of these were Dowden, Lightfoot, Lubbock, Lushington, Lord Lyttelton, Perowne, and Rossetti. During the first seven years about 1,500 works were read.

Within about twelve months' time, some of the members of the committee, having regard to the accumulation of materials, asked: "Why not collect for a new dictionary?" The question was discussed by the Society. Dr. Trench adhered to his original proposal for a supplement, but the Society decided to remodel the scheme, and a new dictionary was determined upon. Herbert Coleridge was in 1858 elected as editor. Slips were issued, books were bought and distributed among "readers," for the proposed work, and twenty-six sub-editors were appointed, one for each letter of the alphabet. Readings went on for years. Then, the finds made by readers under the letters A, B, and C were sent in to Herbert Coleridge, who was most enthusiastic in the business. This ardent scholar actually met his death through his zeal for the cause. A memorial of him is preserved at the Scriptorium. It is a small stand of pigeon-holes, the size of which proves how greatly Coleridge, like others, underestimated the grandeur of the scheme proposed. The stand is capable of holding only about one-twentieth part of the slips that will be used in the compilation of the Oxford Dictionary.

Dr. Furnivall now became sole editor of the proposed Dictionary. In furtherance of the work in hand, he promoted the establishment of the Early English Text Society. Materials went on accumulating. Years passed, and readers asked, "When is the Dictionary to be begun?" Within the Society itself the proposal was made to hand over the collections to the British Museum, but the suggestion was not adopted. Then publishers were approached and invited to undertake the publication of the new dictionary as a commercial enterprise. To the late Mr. Murray it was especially proposed that he should publish a *concise* dictionary. But although big publishers set great store upon the publication of a dictionary by their firms, the vastness of the projected dictionary caused one and all to decline the undertaking. In 1876 Dr. Murray, who had joined the Philological Society in 1867, and had become an active member of that body, was consulted by the late Mr. Macmillan, the well-known publisher, with a view to his becoming joint editor, with the late Mr. Richard Grant White, of an 'International English Dictionary.' The idea had originated with the Messrs. Harper of New York, who proposed to Mr. Macmillan that he should adventure with them in the undertaking. Messrs. Harper's proposals limited the size to that of Webster. When Mr. Macmillan told Dr. Murray of this limitation, the latter said: "Within the compass of Webster you cannot do better than Webster has done." On Messrs. Harper being informed of Dr. Murray's opinion, they expressed their readiness to undertake the publication of a dictionary twice the size of that of Dr. Webster, but no further would they venture. Dr. Furnivall was then called into consultation by Mr. Macmillan. Specimens were set up of the manner in which the new dictionary should be compiled, on Dr. Murray's lines. These showed that the whole work would bulk out to four times the size of Webster's. Dr. Jack, a learned gentleman, a relative of the Macmillan family, then proposed the reduction of Dr. Murray's scheme to the extent of one-fourth, so that the new dictionary should not exceed three times the size of Webster's. In this arrangement Dr. Murray concurred, but Messrs. Harper were not prepared to go so far, and the negotiations came to an end.

The conservation of energy is well illustrated by the proceedings that led up to the undertaking of the Oxford Dictionary. The specimens which had been prepared for the Macmillan-Harper project were submitted to the members of the Philological Society, and met with high appreciation. The interest so awakened led to an enthusiastic determination that every effort should be made to promote the production of the desired dictionary. Two publishers, in turn, were approached, but these, as others before, shied at so vast a risk. Dr. Furnivall, whose name must always be held in high honor on account of his great share in promoting the undertaking of the *magnum opus*, now determined to approach "the studious universities." Himself a Cambridge man, he first applied to the Syndics of the Pitt Press. That body duly considered the proposal, expressed high approval of the grand scheme, but could only avow their regret that want of means disabled them from engaging in it. To Oxford Dr. Furnivall then turned. His application was carefully considered by the Delegates of the Clarendon Press—a body which then numbered among its members such lights of learning as the late Mark Pattison and Dr. Stubbs, the present Bishop of Oxford. Dr. Murray had then, in 1879, become President of the Philological Society. In connection with the deliberations of the Delegates of the Clarendon Press he made three visits to Oxford. In the end the Delegates decided to undertake the publication of the New English Dictionary on Historical Principles, provided that Dr. Murray would himself agree to edit it. When this decision was communicated to Dr. Murray, he held the position of second master of Mill Hill School, the Wesleyan Eton. He asked for a fortnight within which to give his answer. At the end of that time he accepted the honorable and laborious office of editor of the Oxford Dictionary, with the concurrence of the authorities of Mill Hill School. By arrangement with them, Dr. Murray was at first relieved of one-third, and later on of one-half, of each day's duty; he, on his part, surrendering a proportionate part of his tutorial salary.

When, in 1879, the Oxford Dictionary was cradled at Dr. Murray's house, he was living just outside the grounds of Mill Hill School. His residence, called Sunnyside, stood on the top of Hammer's Hill, just over against the Three Hammers Public House. Thither were brought, from Dr. Furnivall's house, the accumulations of twenty years of toil on the part of the various "readers" for the Dictionary. The bulk of this mass of literary stuff was so great that its dead weight was more than two tons. Mrs. Murray gave up her drawing-room for its accommodation. Later on an iron building was put up in the garden of Sunnyside, and was called by Dr. Murray the Scriptorium. In this laboratory the serious work of making the Dictionary was really begun. There were about 3,000,000 slips to be sorted into pigeon-holes under the respective letters of the alphabet, and to be distributed under their relative words. This was done by assistants paid by the Clarendon Press. The 3,000,000 quotations not being sufficient, Dr. Murray called for 1,000,000 more. About 800 persons in the United Kingdom and about 500 in the United States became readers for the Dictionary. Directions were printed for the guidance of these voluntary workers. The two most important rules were:

"Make a quotation for *every* word that strikes you as rare, obsolete, old-fashioned, new, peculiar, or used in a peculiar way."

"Take special note of passages which show or imply that a word is either new and tentative, or needing explanation as obsolete or archaic, and which thus help to fix the date of its introduction or disuse."

In America as in Great Britain there were some backslidings among those who had volunteered to be readers. Not so with two Americans residing in England, who are thus referred to by Dr. Murray at the close of the preface to his third volume: "But above all, we have to record the in-

estimable collaboration of Dr. Fitzedward Hall, whose voluntary labors have completed the literary and documentary history of numberless words, senses, and idioms, and whose contributions are to be found on every page; also the unflagging services of Dr. W. C. Minor, which have week by week supplied additional quotations for the words actually preparing for press."

In 1885 Dr. Murray removed from Mill Hill to Oxford. The building used by him as the first Scriptorium was presented to Mill Hill School, to the grounds of which it was transferred. It is now used by the boys of the school as a reading-room. The new Scriptorium was built in the garden of Sunnyside, the house in Banbury Road, Oxford, which has for the last twelve years been the sunshiny home of the Murray family. In that period the total number of slips has increased from 4,000,000 to 5,000,000. Dr. Murray estimates that another million of quotations will be needed for the completion of the work.

After each part of the Dictionary has been printed, the slips used in making it are put together, and sent off to the Delegates of the Clarendon Press, to remain in their possession for twelve years, when they will be handed over to the Philological Society, whose property they will become. Moreover, that society may not use those materials for the making of another dictionary until a number of years have passed after the completion of the Oxford Dictionary. Even then any dictionary that may be published by the Philological Society must be not less than four times the size of that which is now becoming one of the chief literary glories of the university by the Isis. The copyright of the Oxford Dictionary belongs, of course, to the Delegates of the Clarendon Press, who are themselves the representatives of the University in matters of printing and publishing.

Of recent years Dr. Murray has enjoyed the benefit of the assistance of Mr. Henry Bradley, a born philologist, whose genius was first disclosed in his article in the London *Academy* reviewing a portion of the Dictionary that had been published. The letter H is now going through the press, and Dr. Murray hopes to have it out in October. It will then have been one year and ten months in hand. The letter I will take about a year and six months. J and K will take about four months each. The editor hopes to finish K by the 31st of December, 1900. Should he accomplish this, he will have compiled more than half the Dictionary. The remainder may, if too many treacherous slips do not turn up, be worked off by 1910.

Dr. Murray was born in 1837, at Denholm, near Hawick, in the border county of Roxburgh. On his father's side he claims descent from Sir Andrew Murray, the friend and companion of Scotland's hero, Sir William Wallace. On his mother's side Dr. Murray descends from the border family of the Scotts of Boonraw, cadets of the Scotts of Harden. Educated at Cavers, Minto, Hawick, and Edinburgh, he adopted the profession of a teacher in 1855, as assistant master at Hawick Grammar School, becoming headmaster of Hawick Academy in 1858. From 1870 to 1885 he was chief assistant master at Mill Hill School, as well as examiner in the English language at the University of London from 1874 to 1878. While at Hawick he was one of the founders of the local Archæological Society, of which he was the first Secretary, an office he filled for several years. He was happily married, in 1867, to Ada Agnes, eldest daughter of George Ruthven of Kendal, Westmorland. Since 1870 Dr. Murray has been a member of the Council of the Philological Society. He was President of the Society from 1878 to 1880 and again from 1882 to 1884.

Edinburgh had already conferred her high distinction upon Dr. Murray before he became editor of the Dictionary. Durham alone, of British universities, has recognized the value of the philological labors of the lexicographer as being those of a man of science rather than of a "harmless drudge," as Dr. Johnson defined a maker of dictionaries, according to the notion entertained by the vulgar. Neither Harvard nor any American university has yet entered the name of James Augustus Henry Murray on its beadroll. Oxford and Cambridge are in a similar position. On the other hand, some learned bodies on the continent of Europe have done honor to the editor of the Dictionary. It is to the credit of the American Philosophical Society of Philadelphia that that body, so far back as 1881, enrolled Dr. Murray as one of its foreign members.

D. D.

MAZZINI'S EARLY LETTERS, 1834-1840.

FLORENCE, February, 1898.

We have some very interesting letters of Mazzini's, hitherto unpublished, which cast fresh light on his life in Switzerland during the years that intervened between 1834 and 1837, *i. e.*, after the failure of the expedition to Savoy up to his arrival in London. The first series, published by Prof. Carlo Cagnacci, and entitled 'Joseph Mazzini and the Ruffini Brothers,' are in fact letters of the two exiles, Agostino and Giovanni Ruffini, to their mother, to whom also those of Mazzini are addressed. Unjustly but not unnaturally, the brothers regarded Mazzini as the cause of Jacopo's suicide and of their own exile. Now, in the first place, Jacopo possessed far more worldly wisdom than Mazzini; in the second, he was warned and might have escaped had he not refused to do so while yet there was time. We learn, too, that the eldest of the family had also committed suicide without any apparently adequate cause. Jacopo killed himself on finding that one of his dearest friends had betrayed him, fearing that he might himself become a traitor. Mazzini, though blameless, was haunted by a life-long sorrow for the martyrs of Young Italy, and considered it his duty to act towards the two exiles as a father. He had promised their mother to watch over them, and did so faithfully; but the slight difference in their ages, the immense difference in their characters, rendered his task a difficult one. Great, however, is their admiration of his genius, and for the first time we are assured of what we always suspected, viz., that, after the failure of the Savoy expedition, when his followers were dispersed and the hopes of the entire party dispelled, when all save himself despaired of attaining independence, to say nothing of unity, Mazzini returned to his old idea of using literature and the press as a means of national redemption.

The second collection of letters issued today by L. Ordono de Rosales is entitled 'Mazzini and Some of his Fellow-Exiles to Gaspare Rosales,' Rosales being a wealthy Lombard patriot who barely escaped arrest by the Austrians. They sequestrated as much as they could of his property, while he spent most of his remaining fortune in succoring the exiles, and even supplying the sinews of war for fresh expeditions doomed to failure. Rosales was faithful to this system until 1859-60, when he accepted the monarchy of the plébiscite and his correspondence with Mazzini ceased; but, in his autobiography, the latter speaks of him with gratitude and admiration. Both collections should be read together, as the letters to Rosales often explain points merely hinted at in those addressed to "Signora Elena," the mother of the Ruffini. The brothers always speak of Mazzini as "Antonietta, the cousin," etc.; we will keep to his well-known name of Pippo. On the 5th of August, 1834, from Berne, Giovanni (later the well-known author of 'Lorenzo Benoni' and 'Doctor Antonio') writes:

"At last I have read Pippo's drama; it is beautiful from beginning to end, and has several incomparable scenes." "August 13. Pippo is in a high fever of composition; he dreams of nothing, does nothing, but his drama." "August 19. Don't worry about Pippo; he is neither cast down by the unflourishing state of his affairs, nor by any thought of his future. His are artistic preoccupations which make him happy instead of miserable, and carry him up to an ideal sphere thousands of leagues away from this low world; he is always good and pure (*santo*), but his moods are utterly changed. He sees nothing, hears nothing, takes interest in nothing but in the creations of his own imagination. His is a true artistic egotism. He is now in ecstasy, having succeeded in getting a sum of money for the publication of his first work."

On the 26th of August, 1835, Agostino, who became professor of Italian in Edinburgh in 1840, writes: "Pippo starts to-day for Vienna, there to publish his 'Alessandro Medici.' Yesterday we sat up till midnight in the dark, singing the pieces of music that we liked best." "October 3. Pippo has returned; the printing of his drama goes on slowly, but he must succeed!" Alas, the drama was never published. Still, on the 17th of December: "Pippo has written a second drama entitled 'Anna,' full of interesting scenes and in a charming style. There are no allusions to politics, nothing that can bring it into disgrace with the censor. It is not historical; purely imaginative." Of neither of these dramas has any trace been found. We have the 'Foi et Avenir,' written in French in 1834, and Saffi, after endless research, recovered more than twenty articles written by Mazzini for the *Jeune Suisse;* perhaps he destroyed or lost the dramas when he returned to his conspiracies, his expeditions.

In his letters to Rosales during 1834-'5 Mazzini speaks of translating Lamennais's 'Paroles d'un Croyant' with a preface

"which will not be a tirade against tyranny, but rather a free philosophical discussion concerning the progress of the popular humanitarian symbol. I shall omit the so-dreaded name of Young Italy to please the Lombards, but retain the motto, Liberty, Equality, Humanity. Would Ruggia [a Lugano publisher] undertake it? See James [Giacomo Ciani, a wealthy generous exiled patriot]. If we could earn 100 lire [$20] it would be a godsend, at the end of our tether."

Then he speaks of the necessity of founding the Young Switzerland, and if this succeeded for a brief period, then the Young Europe, which is to save Switzerland from annihilation "and make of her an independent republic with the addition of Savoy;

Savoy, Switzerland, the Tyrol to form a confederation of the Alps." These letters are signed Strozzi. Meanwhile he continues the publication of the *Young Italy* journal, and speaks of his own article on Italian unity, of a religious article by Gioberti, another giving an account of the Savoy expedition; but he has not the wherewithal to pay the printer, and is much exercised how to smuggle the papers into Italy. Usiglio, one of the few who remained faithful to Mazzini, writes to Rosales in the same year: "Your affection is necessary to him. The other day he said to me, 'If his affection were to fail me, I should doubt all men, doubt Italy; I might even believe that some day my own mother's love would fail me." On October 1, 1834, Mazzini sends Rosales extracts from a letter of Lamennais's:

"Ce que vous avez fait, portera ses fruits. Vous avez organisé la lutte de l'esprit contre la matière, de la liberté contre la tyrannie; on ne saurait douter à qui la victoire restera. La cause que vous soutenez a pour auxiliaire le berceau et la tombe—la tombe qui dévore le passé, le berceau qui contient les germes de l'avenir. Prenez courage, monsieur; les mères enfantent pour vous," etc.

Rosales is disheartened; Mazzini reproaches him:

"These ideas of ours, you say, are mere dreams, but they are sublime dreams and will become realities in the future. Are you worn out with three years of delusions? Did not you, I, all of us, know when we accepted our mission that three centuries of delusions, of servitude, of inertia lay behind us? What is changed? Not the sanctity of our principles. What has success or failure to do with our faith? How can misfortune change our duty to our country? Come what will, let glory or infamy surround my grave, I care not. My voice, weak through tears, will be heard, will thrill through my brothers. And I know that the future dwells in my voice. Whether I shall see that future, matters not. Brother mine, be comforted, let your isolation itself comfort you. The finest type of man is he who from the midst of ruins foretells a brighter future."

All through 1835 this indomitable courage keeps him up. He receives the works of Giordano Bruno, of S. Simon, of Lessing, which he intends translating from German, "not trusting to French translations." He collects all Foscolo's works, and commences the "Dramatic Library," the first number of which, according to Agostino Ruffini, is to contain articles on "The Literature of the XIXth Century," on "Literary Materialism in France," on "Byron and Goethe," on "The German Dramatists: (1) Werner." This for the literary part. Then the social condition of woman is to be considered; music—"Robert le Diable," "I Puritani," "Chatterton."

They hoped to publish their review in Genoa, but the veto of the Piedmontese minister frustrated all their hopes. Mazzini, nothing daunted, proposes to found a review of European Literature, and submits to Rosales his first essay. Some of the articles did appear in a *Rivista Repubblicana*, and I have just found in Vieusseux's unique library a rare copy of the volume entitled 'L'Italiano,' published ostensibly in Paris, in which appear Mazzini's articles on Music, and others signed "E. J." Concerning these attempts, Mazzini writes in the third volume of his published works: "If this series had succeeded, it was to have been followed up by a work on Epopees, a work on the various religions of the world. Of the proposed dramas, Werner's '24th of February' was chosen. Agostino Ruffini translated it admirably [Mazzini himself wrote the essay on fatality]. But the experiment failed." "Byron and Goethe," one of Mazzini's finest literary productions, was printed "somewhere" in France. Of this a mangled translation appeared in the 'Literary Writings of a Living Italian,' was reproduced in the *Morning Chronicle* in 1839, and can now be read in perfect English, corrected by Mazzini himself, in the "Camelot Series," with an introduction by William Clarke. It is strange that neither Mazzini nor Saffi included this fine essay in the eighteen volumes of the Italian edition of his works.

The year 1836 was the bitterest of all the bitter years of Mazzini's life. Reduced to poverty, abandoned by those he loved best, the "tempest of doubt" assailed him as he tells us in his brief autobiographical notes (vol. iii.). Out of this tempest he came as one purified by fire, never again to hope for personal happiness, yet never again to doubt the sanctity of his mission, nor flag in its fulfilment because of the obstacles, the misery, the dangers that beset his path. The letters give a vivid glimpse of his early life in England, but we have space only for a few extracts from his to Signora Elena, whose sons continued for some time to live with him in London, but who were growing more and more intolerant of his persistence in his ideas, and anxious (naturally) to hew out each his own path. Some misunderstanding had suspended the correspondence; on the 9th of April, 1837, two months after their arrival in London, Mazzini writes:

"In your letter to my mother you say, 'Tell Pippo to love my sons always, because I know that his affection is necessary to their very existence, nor have they proved themselves unworthy.' So you have forgiven me and restored your friendship to me? You believe me to be unhappy but worthy of your esteem and affection? As to your request, listen to what I say, to what I swear by all that we both hold most sacred, the memory of our dead martyr [Jacopo]. I love your sons as I loved them when we were near one another [at Genoa before the catastrophe]. I shall love them as long as I live, whether they return my affection or no, because I am incapable of ceasing to love. Whenever (I speak of recent times) I have feared that they were changed towards me, I have wept, shed real tears even in their presence, and now I weep for no other cause. But all change, save you and me. In one thing your sons change not—that is, in their love for you. That love is holy, is immutable. Might I only come second to that love! But, whatever befalls, I love no other as I love them."

All these letters to Signora Ruffini, whom to the last Mazzini loved as his second mother, are worthy of translation, as they give us the real Mazzini. But the whole man will be revealed to us only when his letters to his own mother are published. These she herself gave to Signora Emilie Hawkes Venturi, who passed them on to Saffi for publication. Saffi died in 1890, just as he was commencing it; the letters were passed on to the committee, one of whose most active members died in the same year. The surviving members promise to issue the long-looked-for volume from year to year, but it is still a hope deferred. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

TRUMPERY SUITS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your recent comments on the English libel law and the proposed amendments requiring the plaintiff, whenever he is reasonably suspected of being a bankrupt, to furnish in advance security for costs, suggests the pushing of the same principle a little further. There seems no good reason why defendants in other actions in tort should not be offered the same protection.

In Illinois no security of costs is required except in case the plaintiff is a non-resident of the State. But even in that case the "costs" consist only of the fees of witnesses, the sheriff, the clerk of the court, etc., which constitute but a small part of the expenses of litigation. The practical result is, that an irresponsible person is at liberty to bring a "trumpery suit" and subject the defendant to a heavy outlay in necessary preparation for the trial, and then, when the suit has been thrown out of court, the defendant is left without any means of adequate reimbursement. This burden, for example, is particularly onerous when the defendant in a damage suit for personal injuries happens to be a charitable corporation which has no fund available for expensive litigation.

In a recent case in point, such a suit, without any foundation in justice, was instituted against a hospital, and, after a delay of some years, during which the defendant had been obliged to appear by its attorneys several times in court, to take the depositions of distant witnesses, to collate other evidence, and to incur considerable expense, the suit was called for trial and was promptly "dismissed for want of prosecution." Surely, justice to worthy plaintiffs does not require that every eleemosynary institution should be at the mercy of any bankrupt that can beg, borrow, or steal $12 or $15 for initial costs, and of any one of the ignoble army of lawyers that are ever ready to jump at the prospect of a "contingent fee," no matter how unmeritorious the cause.—Yours very truly,

S. R. T.

Chicago, February 18, 1898.

A VERSE VULGARISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "F. T., Jr.," writing under the heading "A Verse Vulgarism" in the *Nation* for February 17, says, though with some hesitation, that he believes Keats to be free from rimes in -ng: -n.

Permit me to call his attention to one case at least, in the Sonnet "Written . . . at the end of Chaucer's Tale of the Flower and the Life." The closing couplet contains the rime sobbings, robins.—Very truly,

E. P. H.

February 17, 1898.

Notes.

'The Vitality of Christian Dogmas, and their Power of Evolution,' from the French of Dr. A. Sabatier by Mrs. L. Christen, will shortly be issued by Macmillan Co. They announce also 'My Life in Two Hemispheres,' by Sir Charles Gavan Duffy, in two volumes; 'A Handbook of Nature Study,' by D. Lange, of the Central High School, St. Paul; and Zola's 'Paris,' translated by Alfred Vizetelly.

The Continental Publishing Co., No. 25 Park Place, is about to publish in an edi-

tion of 1,250 numbered copies a 'Holland Society Art Edition of Vondel's Lucifer,' the poem to which Milton is credited with some rather indeterminate obligations. The work will be profusely illustrated by an able Dutch artist, John Aarts. The translation is by Leonard C. Van Noppen, an American, into blank verse, except for the lyrical portions.

A new novel, 'Young Blood,' by E. W. Hornung, will soon be published by Charles Scribner's Sons.

A new edition, revised to date, of 'Chambers's Biographical Dictionary,' Snyder's 'Comic History of Greece,' and Dr. Horace Howard Furness's Variorum edition of "A Winter's Tale" are on the eve of publication by J. B. Lippincott Co.

'From Tonkin to India,' a narrative of travel and adventure by Prince Henry of Orleans, will soon appear with the imprint of Dodd, Mead & Co.

During the coming month, William Paul Gerhard, C. E., No. 36 Union Square, will publish for himself a volume on 'Sanitary Engineering.'

Herbert S. Stone & Co., Chicago, have nearly ready Whigham's 'How to Play Golf,' 'Priscilla's Love Story,' by Harriet Prescott Spofford, and 'The Londoners,' by Robert Hichens.

Ginn & Co. are about to bring out 'The New Century Speaker,' selected and adapted by Prof. Henry Allyn Frink of Amherst College.

Richard C. Badger & Co. have in press 'Rational Home Gymnastics,' by Hartvig Nissen, and 'Poems,' by Philip Becker Goetz.

"The Library of Literary History" is the newest undertaking of T. Fisher Unwin, London. The first volume will be 'The Literary History of India,' by R. W. Frazer, LL. B.

What may be designated as a breast-pocket edition of Kipling's "Recessional" has been neatly printed by M. F. Mansfield, No. 22 East Sixteenth Street, with a conventional Victorian Jubilee embellishment by Blanche McManus.

An altogether tasteful and well-printed edition of George Borrow's 'Lavengro' comes to us from G. P. Putnam's Sons (London. George Newnes). Without undue compression, this gypsy and open-air classic is contained in one duodecimo volume of 532 pages, and offered at a very moderate price. It forms part of a series called "The New Library."

'The Story of Marie Antoinette,' by Anna L. Bicknell (Century Co.), is a charmingly illustrated holiday book, consisting of a number of papers from the *Century*. The pictures are more noticeable than the story, many of them being from well-known portraits, especially those of Mme. Vigée-Lebrun. The author has a clear style, and her narrative of the life of the unfortunate Queen has many biographical merits. The story is one which the process of popularization does not injure. No matter how it is told, nor for what sort of an audience, it remains one of the great tragedies of history; the domestic side of it, on which, perhaps, the most stress is laid in the present instance, is, of course, the most painful. One of the chapters is devoted to the affair of the diamond necklace, and a reproduction of this ornament, one-third the original size, is given.

The volume contributed by Dr. Hinsdale to the "Great Educators" series, 'Horace Mann, and the Common-School Revival in the United States' (Scribners), deals with a subject of deep interest to every American, for the questions agitated and the controversies engaged in by the New England reformer are even now not all settled. But, aside from the practical importance of the work and permanent influence of Horace Mann, his uncommon moral and mental traits, the pathetic incidents of his private life, and the dramatic events of his public career, leading up to the tragic catastrophe at Antioch College, are fascinating in the extreme. Prof. Hinsdale has succeeded admirably in giving in comprehensive, compact and, withal, very readable form, all the essentials of the life and main work of the great educator. The general reader, we feel inclined to suggest, might start at once with chapter iii., leaving for subsequent reading the first two chapters and the last, dealing respectively with common-school affairs before and after Horace Mann. This plan, while spoiling the chronology, will heighten the interest.

Dr. L. L. Forman's 'Index Andocideus, Lycurgeus, Dinarcheus,' published by the Clarendon Press (New York: H. Frowde), belongs to that self-denying class of work which combines a maximum of plodding labor with a minimum of attractiveness to the ordinary public. Dr. Johnson's Dictionary was comparatively light and fascinating reading. Yet the columns of references speak to the understanding of the expert, and are packed with curious information as to matters of style and usage. The uses and arrangement of the articles and pronouns, of the prepositions, and of particles like ἄν, ὅτι, ὡς and μή, are skilfully and elaborately registered and classified. In the matter of idiom and phrases, the work does not attempt those very interesting and complete summaries which make Dr. Van Cleef's 'Index Antiphonteus' so valuable and instructive; but this is not a thing to complain of, inasmuch as the scope of Dr. Forman's work is adequately carried out, and the small band of scholars to which it addresses itself are indebted to the liberality of the Delegates of the Clarendon Press for its publication.

The eleventh volume in the new series of Transactions of the Royal Historical Society, which has just been issued (Longmans), is hardly as substantial as we should like to see. The most valuable among its contents are the paper of Mr. Corbett on Elizabethan Village Surveys, which breaks new ground in economic history; Mr. Figgis's careful exposition of the political theories of the early Jesuits, in which some modern enlightened notions are shown to have strange antecedents; and the official narrative of the pursuit of English refugees in Germany by the agents of Queen Mary, annotated by Mr. Leadman. The other contents are mostly of the nature of exhortations—by Mr. Frederick Harrison toward a new historical bibliography; by Prof. York Powell toward the establishment of courses in palæography and the appointment of "certificated archivists." Mr. Lord's paper on Goree has already been published in a journal of wide circulation, and its inclusion looks as if the editor had been hard up for copy. All students of English history thankfully recognize the enormous improvement in the Transactions of late years. Now that the Royal Historical Society has incorporated with itself the Camden Society, which has done so much for the history of the seventeenth century, we shall expect even better things; more original material, more bits of fresh investigation, and fewer literary essays.

In view of the disordered condition of Cuba, Mr. Robert Combs's scientific work in that island during 1895-96 is certainly noteworthy. The results of Mr. Combs's researches are embodied in a paper entitled, "Plants collected in the district of Cienfuegos, province of Santa Clara," published in the current volume of the Transactions of the Academy of Science of St. Louis. A comparison of the flora of Cuba with that of Florida shows a difference greater than that existing between the floras of Florida and Canada. On the other hand, it is almost identical with the floras of Central and South America. The determinations of these plants were made by Dr. I. Urban of Berlin and Mr. J. M. Greenman of Cambridge.

The publication of G. O. Sars's 'Fauna Norvegiæ' has been rendered possible by a Government grant. This work is a continuation, under a more comprehensive title, of the 'Fauna Littoralis Norvegiæ,' by the late Michael Sars and others, of which three volumes appeared. The new volume contains descriptions of the Norwegian species at present known belonging to the suborders Phyllocarida and Phyllopoda. It is printed in parallel columns of Norwegian and English, and is illustrated by twenty lithographic plates.

'Nǿrronaskaller' is the title of a work by Justus Barth published by the Royal University of Christiania. The author describes one hundred and sixty-one crania found in the ancient towns of Oslo and Tǿnsberg, and now deposited in the Anatomical Museum of the University. They are thought to be at least five hundred years old, and are typical of the ancient inhabitants of the southeast part of Norway, being markedly dolichocephalic. Ten plates accompany this work.

The Boston Public Library has begun, in its February Bulletin, a Bibliography of Boston, to consist of a list of the publications relating to the city in the library and "to a certain extent, also," in the neighboring libraries. In this first instalment are the official documents of the town, arranged in chronological order under different headings, as by-laws, town meetings, watch, etc. It is noteworthy that the first of the few documents relating to schools bears the late date 1789. The earliest printed document which we have noticed is a letter "To Sr. Edmond Andros Knight," printed in 1689, and now in the library of the Massachusetts Historical Society.

A special bulletin just issued by the State Library of Massachusetts has an interest far wider than the boundaries of that commonwealth. It is a classified Bibliography of Works on Taxation, and has been compiled by Ellen M. Sawyer, Mr. Tillinghast's principal assistant. It takes no account of works on the tariff and internal-revenue. Articles in periodicals, as well as books and pamphlets, are recorded.

In the last (January) number of Wiedemann's *Annalen*, Röntgen's entire work as discoverer and promoter of the X-ray analysis is given in his own words. His first contribution of December, 1895, its continuation in March, 1896, and his recent work as summarized in his paper of March, 1897, are here reprinted in full. It is interesting to see

how little, beyond details of construction and application, has been brought out by the thousands who have repeated and sought to extend his work, since the publication of the original papers.

The *Zeitschrift für den Physikalischen und Chemischen Unterricht* celebrates the completion of its tenth year and volume by a very strong January number, opening the eleventh volume. The responsible editor, Dr. Poske, strongly reaffirms his old contention of the humanistic character of all rightly directed physical instruction, and warns teachers against overmuch theory and hypothesis in teaching children. Dr. Mach, one of the associate editors, and a very able and luminous writer, emphasizes the same points in some interesting notes upon the "Historic Development of Optics." Van't Hoff has an important paper on Stereochemistry, and the number is otherwise full of good matter. This publication can be most heartily commended to teachers of the physical sciences in secondary schools. Julius Springer of Berlin publishes it.

We read in recent issues of the *Egyptian Gazette* (January 22-25) that the building of the new museum at Kasr el-Nil has been suspended for three months, in view of some question about the remuneration of the engineer in charge; that Mr. John Ross of Alexandria has asked for the Government's license to excavate a site in the desert about two days' journey to the southwest of Cairo, he bearing all the expenses, and dividing with the Government any treasure that may be found; and that Sir Benjamin Baker is on his way to Upper Egypt to ascertain if the waterfall at the cataracts is available for industrial purposes.

—The State Historical Society of Wisconsin will not let this jubilee year of that State pass away without a harvest of historical research. Finding that most of the seventy counties propose to have local celebrations preparatory to the chief one in the capital, it has already published and scattered abroad in each of them four semi-centennial circulars. In these papers the formation of as many local societies as possible is urged, and suggestions are given for making them as efficient as possible. Many lines of observation are mentioned with the hope of awakening a pervasive interest in all departments of history. Thus, the study of foreign groups in Wisconsin, as German, Swiss, Scandinavian, and others, already begun in the published Collections of the State Society, will be extended. Material to serve for future historians will be gleaned and garnered from many quarters and corners hitherto unknown or only slightly exploited. Much must come from pioneers, some of the first of whom are still able to tell their own stories. Even better than any present memories are the diaries which many kept from their first settlement, and which, while a household treasure to their children, have been hidden from the public. Account books, advertisements, and unprinted anniversary sermons are worth resurrecting. Letters written by first-comers to one another or to friends at Eastern homes, which were brought West again when those friends followed on the emigrant trail, are numerous and invaluable.

—The circulars point out how much may be ascertained by scrutiny of local official records, as of courts, schools, and churches. They also show how much remains to be done in supplementing past searches relating to Indian mounds and cornfields, tools of stone and copper, etc. Relics of the French régime—a mine long explored—are set forth as still to be unearthed. As a motive to accuracy and veracity, investigators are reminded that errors must be inevitably exposed, and that though "he that is first in his own cause seemeth just, his neighbor will come and search him." With a view to their guidance, a select bibliography is given of books, booklets, and monographs which are best suited to assist their labors, and help is asked for rendering this catalogue more complete. It is hoped that the gleanings of each county presented at its local celebration in May will be bound up in a sheaf by a county historian, and brought with similar sheaves from all other counties to Madison at the general celebration in June. They will then be the Kohinoor of the Historical Society's fire-proof building already half finished, and the septuagint of brief chronicles when printed will form a memorial volume more many-sided than any State has yet produced.

—In a letter to a friend, the Duke of Wellington once remarked, with gentle resignation, that the fate that had made him Vice-Chancellor of the University of Oxford had placed him "in other situations much exposed to authors." Surely if there is any portion of a famous man's work from which he might hope to avert the attentions of the over-zealous admirer, it is that which he does in the character of a busy magazine editor. Charles Dickens, dashing off in his gay, trenchant, rather slipshod manner, the ephemeral notes on all subjects "from poetry to the dry rot" that were called for during his long editorship of *Household Words* and *All the Year Round*, was perfectly willing to let them remain anonymous and at rest in the back numbers of those magazines. Not so Mr. F. G. Kitton. By means of "careful research among the manuscripts at South Kensington Museum and elsewhere," he has triumphantly identified and brought to light some fifty of these occasional contributions, and now publishes them under the unhappily suggestive title, 'Old Lamps for New Ones' (New Amsterdam Book Co.). It is a queer farrago of letters to the newspapers, book reviews, editorial notes, and articles in self-defence. In a letter to Macready, Dickens indicates the manner in which he composed these spirited compositions: "I hope you have seen my tussle with the *Edinburgh*. I saw the chance last Friday week, as I was going to read the 'Carol' in St. Martin's Hall, instantly turned to then and there, and wrote half the article, flew out of bed early next morning, and finished it by noon. Went down to Gallery of Illustration (we acted that night), did the day's business, corrected the proofs in Polar costume in dressing-room, broke up two numbers of *Household Words* to get it out directly, played in 'Frozen Deep' and 'Uncle John,' presided at supper" —and so on. The first essay, which gives the title to the collection, is a very foolish attack on the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, written in 1850. Among the signed contributions is a letter to the *Daily News* denying the report that the novelist would stand for Finsbury, and another to the committee of the Metropolitan Drapers' Association regretting his inability to be present at their meeting. One's passion for Dickens must amount to mania if one does not find this sort of thing unspeakably tedious. A note of non-acceptance may in some hands come near to literature, but Charles Dickens had not the peculiar fascination of style that can gild these trifles. The lively description of a Chinese junk that was anchored in the London docks has already been printed, in part, in Forster's 'Life.' The paper advocating the "Guild of Literature and Art" is of especial interest at the present time, when a private bill is before Parliament the object of which is to wind up the "Guild" and transfer the existing stock to the Royal Literary Fund and the Artists' General Benevolent Institution. But the papers, taken as a whole, will be read by the curious rather for the light they throw on passing politics and social evils than for any literary merit.

—According to reports published by Dr. Paul von Salvisberg, editor of *Hochschul-Nachrichten* and Secretary of the Volks-Hochschul-Verein in Munich, the success of the university-extension movement in German cities and in the Austrian capital is very encouraging. In Vienna, where the efforts of individuals and associations have been substantially aided by the Government, more than 8,000 persons have registered for the various courses. In the German States, with the exception of Hamburg, no subvention has been asked for or granted. The Humboldt Academy of Berlin in 1896-97 provided for 177 courses of lectures (*Vortragscyklen*), which were attended by more than 5,100 hearers; during the quarter beginning in October last, 79 courses were given, and a branch association has begun its work in Potsdam. In Munich, according to Prof. Dr. Lujo Brentano's 'Erster Jahresbericht des Volks-Hochschul-Vereins' (Munich, 1897), although the association did not open its courses till February, 1897, 1,440 persons were registered as hearers during the first quarter, about one-third being laborers and mechanics and about one-fourth women. The readiness and unselfishness with which many of the leading instructors in the University and the Technische Hochschule took charge of the courses deserves recognition, the more so as the Bavarian Ministry refused the use of the lecture-rooms and laboratories of those institutions, leaving it for the city authorities to furnish the required assembly halls. Good beginnings in the same direction have also been made at Königsberg, Hamburg, Frankfort, Mannheim, Jena, and Nürnberg. In Frankfort, where the lectures are given under the auspices of the Chamber of Commerce, as well as in Munich and Mannheim, young business men and employees of banking and commercial establishments furnish a large contingent of the audiences in courses of especial interest to themselves.

—Japan's "Grand Old Man," with name of bright omen, is Fukuzawa (Happy Valley). He is editor, author, educator, observer of the winds of public opinion, and the "intellectual father of one-half of the young men who now [1891] fill the middle and lower [and in 1898, not a few of the higher] posts in the government of Japan." He has declined all tenders of office and still rules the minds of millions. He edits the *Jiji Shimpo*, one of the ablest daily newspapers in Tokio, and is president of a school which is the one worthy rival of the Imperial University. A new edition of his voluminous writings of astonishingly large circulation has just been issued in Tokio, in

the preface of which he tells the story of his unique success. In 1859, having learned Dutch and a little English by means of Dutch, he settled in Yedo. His first work was a small dictionary which gave in Japanese *kana* the English pronunciation of Chinese names. In 1861 he accompanied the embassy proposed by Townsend Harris, and spent twelve months in seeing America and Europe. Determining that the progress of which he was spectator should be seen in Japan before many years had passed, he wrote on his return the famous 'Seiyo Jijo' (Foreign Matters), of which over 250,000 copies have been sold. We have met scores of Japanese who dated their conversion from "well-frogs" to citizens of the world from their reading of this book. It opened millions of eyes. Fukuzawa had no practical knowledge of fire-arms, but noticed that in the civil war between the Yedo Government and the Choshiu clansmen, the latter won through their superiority in using American rifles. Finding a Dutch monograph on the subject, he translated it. One of his readers was Murata Shosho, later Colonel, and inventor of the renowned Murata rifle, whose attention was first drawn to the subject by this tyro's brochure. His next work, a 'Guide to Travellers in the West,' enabled thousands of the hermit-islanders to see Christendom. Having cultivated and mastered a clear, simple, and flexible vernacular style, he composed works on physics, military tactics, parliamentary debate, and the geography of the world. A popular encyclopædia, something like Chambers's 'Information for the People,' in seventeen small volumes, reached a circulation of 3,400,000 copies. It was furiously attacked, and the author's life put in danger, because he ridiculed *hara-kiri*, and denounced suicide as cowardly and worthless. On the day of the battle of Uyeno, instead of rushing to the bloody fray, he gathered some companions and studied Wayland's 'Moral Science.' Other books followed on ethics, foolish customs (such as blackening the teeth), the change of calendar, bookkeeping, debating and public speaking, foreign civilization, political economy and the rights of the people. A true creator of public opinion, a destroyer of things useless, and a builder of noble institutions, Fukuzawa's career is that of a nation's teacher. His fortune, made wholly by the pen, has been invested largely in improving and enlarging the University which he controls.

NEWELL'S KING ARTHUR.

King Arthur and the Table Round; Tales, chiefly after the Old French of Crestien of Troyes, with an Account of Arthurian Romance and Notes. By William Wells Newell. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

It has long been matter for regret that the poems of Chrétien de Troyes should be the exclusive property of scholars—inaccessible to readers at large and, indeed, scarcely known by name to one in a thousand of them. Ever since Sir Thomas Malory's 'Morte Darthur' was in 1816 and 1817 brought within the reach of all in three modern editions, the press has teemed with 'Tales of King Arthur,' in prosé and verse, for old and young. We have even had a play on the subject, a serious (not to say dull) attempt at a tragedy in due form, with a ludicrously sentimental distortion of the catastrophe and a "Rule Britannia" moral attached to the sword Excalibur. In all this, Sir Thomas Malory has been, to all intents and purposes, the sole guide, so that he has come to be regarded in England and America as the canonical authority on the Round Table and its knights. Tennyson's delightful 'Idylls of the King' did much to perpetuate this misapprehension; for, though Tennyson had occasional recourse to Lady Guest's agreeable translation of the so-called 'Mabinogion,' and in this way made everybody familiar with the substance of one of Chrétien's poems, yet his chief source was still Malory. And this was unfortunate for the 'Idylls.' Malory's compilation could afford no better materials than those which the worthy knight found in the French texts which he followed—late and debased versions, most of them. All the ennobling touches which the laureate gave the old romances cannot quite compensate for one defilement which, following Malory, he has attached to it—one fears, forever. We mean, of course, the dishonoring of Gawain, the flower of chivalry. It was an evil hour when Tennyson selected from the 'Morte Darthur' the tale of Pelleas and Ettarre, the latest offshoot of an immemorial literary conspiracy against the good fame of Sir Gawain, and invested it with the charm of his eloquence and poetry.

Scholars, to be sure, have repeatedly asserted the untrustworthiness of Malory's book and the haphazard character of his sources. But habit, the haunting charm of Sir Thomas's style, and the supreme felicity of certain favorite passages, have, we fancy, led most readers to regard such protests, when they have chanced to hear them, as amusing evidence of an antiquary's preference for the mustier of two manuscripts. Under these circumstances, we cannot think of any works that more imperatively demanded translation than precisely these poems of Chrétien de Troyes, of which Mr. Newell has given us so charming a version. For Chrétien has not merely the historical importance attaching to those who give definite literary form to an important body of poetic material, or a definite turn to a powerful literary movement: regarded simply by himself, he merits, in all soberness, the title of a great poet, and, if that be perversely or provincially denied him, he must still take rank as one of the best narrators and purest stylists "whereof this world holds record."

Five of Chrétien's poems have come down to us. Three of these, the "Erec," the "Chevalier au Lion," and "Perceval li Gallois," Mr. Newell translates with substantial completeness. In the "Erec" he has omitted only the episode known as the "Joie de la Cour," and this is summarized in the notes. In the "Chevalier au Lion" he has given the first part of the story in a condensed form, which, however, is so well proportioned that the reader who does not know the original will miss nothing. In the "Perceval," the work of Chrétien's continuators is disregarded, but the poet's own account of Perceval is given in its entirety, along with one adventure of Gawain. From the "Cligés" the story of Alexander and Soredamor is selected for translation. The "Chevalier de la Charete" is, with excellent judgment, omitted entirely, except for a brief summary in the Notes. To these versions of Chrétien are appended translated selections from the French prose romances of 'Merlin,' 'Lancelot,' and the 'Queste du Saint-Graal,' and the whole closes with the stories of the Maid of Escalot and the Death of King Arthur, adapted from the Middle-English 'Morte Darthur' published by Dr. Furnivall in 1864. These supplementary extracts illustrate different phases of the Arthurian legend in the course of its development. They also serve to round out the story and to bring it to a fitting conclusion. In selecting them from the huge mass of accessible material, Mr. Newell has given evidence at once of his wide reading and his discriminating taste.

In "Erec and Enide" we have a tale already familiar in Tennyson's 'Enid.' Its initial interest for most people will doubtless come from a purpose of comparing it with their recollections of the "Idyll"; but this adventitious attraction will surely be forgotten after the first two or three pages, and the reader will go on for pure delight. If, at the end, he reverts to his comparison with Tennyson, he will doubtless agree with Mr. Newell that the advantage is not altogether with the modern poet. In one respect the poem of Chrétien is certainly superior to the Idyll, and that is in the motive of the whole. Geraint, it will be remembered, suspects his wife's truth; it is

> "the pang
> That makes a man in the sweet face of her
> Whom he loves most, lonely and miserable,"

which sends him out on his new course of knight-errantry. Between Geraint and Enid there is a complete misunderstanding, and the action of the knight is not free from an illogical pettishness. In Chrétien, on the contrary, there is no misunderstanding and no suspicion. Erec, on learning that he has incurred the unknightly reproach of uxoriousness, rides out in angry pride to clear his name. Not only is the "scheme of the French poet" in this regard "more delicate and human," as Mr. Newell remarks, but it is far less conventional and more artistic. Tennyson's error is due to an ambiguity in the unknown writer who turned Chrétien's poem into Welsh prose, for in this instance the laureate's source was Lady Guest's 'Mabinogion.'

The episode of "Alexander and Soredamor," selected from the "Cligés," is not only a beautiful story in itself: it is a typical example of Chrétien's art. If it were remarkable for nothing but its exquisite literary finish, it would still deserve a place in Mr. Newell's book; but it is not less distinguished as a picture of the psychological refinements of courtly love in the twelfth century. Chrétien's analytical method is admirably reproduced by Mr. Newell. The "Cligés," we may remark in passing, formed no original part of "the matter of Britain"; its Arthurian relations are due entirely to Chrétien. On this point there is no controversy. If now the "Cligés" be compared with those works of the same author which are commonly thought to be referable to Celtic sources, the essential difference will be found striking, and, in our opinion, significant. We could wish that Mr. Newell had gone into this matter in his Introduction, to which we shall revert in a moment.

In "The Knight of the Lion" we have an admirable specimen of what one means by a "romance of the Round Table." The story is, as Mr. Newell suggests, in some ways a counterpart and complement to that of "Erec and Enide," but he pushes the comparison too far—so far, even, as to leave the impres-

sion that he believes the design to have been primarily ethical. What we particularly miss in his discussion is a definition of the real nature of the implacable Lady of the Fountain. Had he turned his efforts in this direction, Mr. Newell, with his minute and extensive knowledge of folk-lore, could have found no difficulty in the problem. The Lady is, of course, a *fée*, whose fate it is to marry whoever can overcome the (eldritch) Knight who guards the well in the forest. But her husband can retain her favor only on terms of obedience and fidelity. Just as actual unfaithfulness to a fairy wife or fairy mistress always brings disaster and sometimes death, so, in this softened and rationalized form of the tale, the forgetfulness of Iwain and his failure to keep his day come near costing him the love of his lady. Her implacability is originally an essential trait of her fairy nature, though Chrétien himself may not have understood it in this way or have been aware that she was a *fée* at all, any more than Shakspere fully understood the mythological antecedents of the Scandinavian Norns whom he found in Holinshead's account of Macbeth.

Of all the stories in Mr. Newell's volumes the "Perceval" will probably command the readiest attention, from its relations with Wolfram's "Parzival" and with the whole subject of the Holy Grail. Mr. Newell has translated all that part of Chrétien's work that has to do with Perceval, and he has included the first of Gawain's adventures—the tale of the "Damsel with the Narrow Sleeves." This last episode is inexpressibly charming. There is nothing with which it may be so aptly compared as the story of Nausicaa in the 'Odyssey.' As for Perceval himself, such of our readers as know him only from Wolfram von Eschenbach or from Wagner will no doubt be surprised at the insignificant rôle which the Grail plays in his adventures as recounted by Chrétien. Yet, with whatever expectation they take up the story, the feeling with which they lay it down will hardly be one of disappointment. There is no religious symbolism in it, to be sure—no trace of the sublime mysticism which later gathered about the sacred chalice and the holy lance—but the air is pure and the sun shines, and one is relieved for a space to escape from dim religious light and the heavy odor of incense.

For Mr. Newell's translations we have nothing but praise. Feeling that the limpid fluency of Chrétien's language would scarcely endure rendition into English verse, he has turned the French poet's short couplets into prose. It was a hazardous experiment, but it has succeeded to admiration. When condensation was necessary, he has condensed the original, and at times, as we have seen, he has reproduced an episode in outline merely; but in all these processes he has carried so sure and even a hand that the result is consistent, symmetrical, and in a high degree felicitous. That a translation should reproduce all the charm of the original is, of course, not to be expected, but we are satisfied that only those who know Chrétien well will miss anything except metre, and that those who know him best will be the first to acknowledge the merit of Mr. Newell's rendering. It is a great service to letters to have introduced Chrétien to English readers at all; it is a very great service to have introduced him in so worthy a form.

To his first volume Mr. Newell has prefixed an essay on "Arthurian Romance" which challenges careful examination. The propositions therein developed are in several respects strongly opposed to prevalent theories. "The views enunciated are," in Mr. Newell's own words, "given as individual opinions, which to the writer appear probable and reasonable." Even a brief summary of these views would require more space than is at present at our disposal, and to state our objections to them would carry us quite beyond the limits of a review. We must be content with remarking that Mr. Newell seems to us too incredulous with regard to Celtic sources, and that, in our opinion, he ascribes too much to the creative literary activity of Chrétien in the matter of plot. Our dissent in these particulars, however, in no way decreases our regard for the book as a whole or the warmth with which we welcome its appearance. That part of the Introduction which deals with literary criticism contains many just and acute observations.

We cannot close without giving a word to the mechanical execution of these volumes, which is of the highest order. The printing, in particular, is hardly susceptible of improvement: the letter is clear and handsome, and the arrangement of the pages shows the acme of typographical good taste.

AUDUBON.

Audubon and his Journals. By Maria R. Audubon. With zoölogical and other notes by Elliott Coues. Two vols., large 8vo, plates. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897.

In setting out to write the life of America's greatest field naturalist and prepare his voluminous journals and other manuscripts for the press, Miss Audubon undertook a very large task. She states in her brief introduction: "I have tried only to put Audubon *the man* before my readers, and in his own words so far as possible, that they may know what he was, not what others *thought* he was." This being her avowed purpose, she has reduced the account of his life to a minimum, and has not allowed herself to dilate or eulogize, no matter how strong the temptation. Thus the biography proper covers only seventy-two pages out of more than a thousand, and even here, so far as practicable, Audubon is made to tell his own story. The same plucky determination and tireless patience that characterized the labors of her illustrious grandfather are conspicuous features of Miss Audubon's search for the original letters, journals, and other papers utilized in the preparation of the volumes under consideration. The circumstances attending the recovery of some of these long-lost documents are little short of the miraculous, and would make a chapter as full of interest as any in the book. Miss Audubon has done her work well. She has produced a book which is a credit to herself, her sex, and the honored name she bears; she has made an important contribution to the historical and zoölogical literature of America, and has erected to the memory of Audubon a useful and enduring monument.

In preparing the work for the press Miss Audubon was fortunate in securing the assistance of Dr. Elliott Coues, the well-known ornithologist and writer, who has added numerous footnotes, under his initials, explaining or amplifying statements in the text. Most of these are zoölogical, geographical, or biographical. In the case of the Missouri River journals these footnotes are of special value, for Dr. Coues, both from his personal experiences in the West and from his labors in bringing out the recent three-volume edition of the Lewis and Clark expedition, was peculiarly well fitted for the task, and the book has profited largely at his hands.

Audubon was born in Louisiana some time between 1772 and 1783—the exact date is unknown—and died in New York in January, 1851. His boyhood was spent in France, after which his father, then a retired Admiral in the French navy, sent him to an estate he owned on Perkiomen Creek, in eastern Pennsylvania. On an adjacent estate lived William Bakewell, an Englishman, whose daughter, Lucy, Audubon married in April, 1808. As a young man Audubon was gay and fond of dress, but the sober business of earning a living for his growing family changed all this, and in later years he spoke of his early vanity as "an absurd spectacle." While still in France he had learned to paint birds, and on coming to America he continued painting them at intervals, as a pastime and in a desultory sort of way, until the habit grew to be the ruling passion of his life. But he was not merely a great painter; he had the instincts and tastes of a naturalist. The purely technical details of the science were distasteful to him, and in this part of his work he secured the assistance of others. At the same time, few specialists are better acquainted with the characters of their species than was Audubon. His physical strength and powers of endurance were phenomenal. He habitually rose before daylight and worked continuously until night; and then, apparently, attended to his correspondence and wrote up his copious notes and journals. Four hours is said to have been his allowance for sleep; and when painting birds and mammals in England, he mentions the surprise expressed at his habit of working fourteen hours a day without fatigue. He combined the grace, culture, and pleasing manners of the French with the candor, patience, and earnestness of purpose of the American, and there was something about his personality which appears to have been irresistibly charming. His friend Dr. Bachman of Charleston tells us that people considered it a privilege to give to him what no one else could buy.

Considering the times in which he lived and the facilities for getting about, Audubon was a famous traveller. He visited Texas, Florida, and Canada, conducted special expeditions to the rugged shores of Labrador and the then distant Yellowstone, and crossed the ocean a number of times; and in the eastern United States, from Maine to Louisiana, he travelled thousands of miles on foot. In the daily journals of his expeditions to Labrador, the upper Missouri River, and the Old World, we are permitted to feel his presence and enthusiasm from day to day as he traversed distant and little known lands and saw for the first time new birds and other animals. In his European journals we have entertaining accounts of his experiences and emotions among the naturalists and savants of England, with glimpses of their lives which in several instances throw light on contemporary events in the field of natural science. The Labrador trip, made in 1833, was for the sole purpose of obtaining additional material for the 'Birds of America,' then in course of publication. The elephant-folio plates of this magnificent work,

described by a well-known bibliographer as "by far the most sumptuous ornithological work ever published," originally appeared in eighty-seven parts running from 1827 to 1838. The text, entitled 'Ornithological Biography,' was not begun until 1830, and appeared in five volumes between 1831 and 1839.

In his old age, having completed and published his *magnum opus*, Audubon became interested in mammals, and, in conjunction with Dr. Bachman, undertook the preparation of the splendid work entitled the 'Quadrupeds of North America.' Renowned the world over as a painter of birds, he was enabled, by means of his long training and skill with the brush and the versatility of his genius, to achieve if possible even greater distinction as a painter of animals. But he felt the need of personal acquaintance with the quadrupeds of our Western plains, which it was necessary for him to study and paint from living and freshly killed specimens. In order to do this he planned, and in 1843, when nearly seventy, carried out, an expedition to Fort Union, later known as Fort Buford, near the junction of the Missouri and Yellowstone Rivers. He was accompanied by his friend Edward Harris of Philadelphia, and took with him as assistants John G. Bell, the famous New York taxidermist, Isaac Sprague, the botanical artist, and a young man named Lewis Squires.

The journals of this trip are of surpassing interest. To the historian and student of Americana they furnish glimpses of early frontier life, and notes, interspersed with prophetic visions, of commerce and conditions along the Missouri River; to the ethnologist they give truthful pictures of the appearance, dress, and character of the Indians; to the naturalist they offer entertaining accounts of the discovery and habits of new or little known species, of the abundance and manner of hunting wolves, buffaloes, and other big game, and observations concerning the former ranges of animals no longer found in the region. Two days after his arrival at Fort Union, Audubon witnessed one of those remarkable feats of horsemanship for which our Western riders are renowned.

"After dinner," he writes, "Mr. Culbertson told us that if a Wolf made its appearance on the prairie near the fort, he would give it chase on horseback, and bring it to us alive or dead; and he was as good as his word. It was so handsomely executed that I will relate the whole affair. When I saw the Wolf (a white one), it was about a quarter of a mile off, alternately standing and trotting; the horses were about one-half the distance off. A man was started to drive these in; and I thought the coursers never would reach the fort, much less become equipped so as to overhaul the Wolf. We were all standing on the platform of the fort, with our heads only above the palisades; and I was so fidgety that I ran down twice to tell the hunters that the Wolf was making off. Mr. Culbertson, however, told me he would see it did not make off; and in a few moments he rode out of the fort, gun in hand, dressed only in shirt and breeches. He threw his cap off within a few yards, and suddenly went off with the swiftness of a jockey bent on winning a race. The Wolf trotted on, and ever and anon stopped to gaze at the rider and the horse; till, finding out the meaning (too late, alas! for him), he galloped off with all his might; but the horse was too swift for the poor cur, as we saw the rider gaining ground rapidly. Mr. Culbertson fired his gun off as a signal, I was told, that the Wolf would be brought in; and the horse, one would think, must have been of the same opinion, for although the Wolf had now reached the hills, and turned into a small ravine, the moment it had entered it, the horse dashed after, the sound of the gun came on the ear, the Wolf was picked up by Mr. Culbertson without dismounting, hardly slackening his pace, and thrown across the saddle. The rider returned as swiftly as he had gone, wet through with a smart shower that had fallen meantime; and the poor Wolf was placed at my disposal. The time taken from the start to the return in the yard did not exceed twenty minutes, possibly something less."

The book is attractive and well made. Some of the illustrations are from unpublished drawings by Audubon himself; of the others, no less than twelve are portraits of him at different periods of his life. In addition to the biography and journals, the work contains his famous 'Episodes.' These, no less than fifty-eight in number and filling more than three hundred pages, cover a wide range of topics, such as "The Prairie," "The Earthquake," "Colonel Boone," "Natchez in 1820," "A Tough Walk for a Youth," "Niagara," "The Burning of the Forest," "A Long Calm at Sea," "Death of a Pirate," "Wreckers of Florida," "A Moose Hunt," "The Eggers of Labrador," "A Ball in Newfoundland," "Scipio and the Bear," "A Kentucky Barbecue." They show, perhaps better than his more formal writings, the keenness of his appreciation of human nature, the kindness of his heart, the power of his imagination, and the vigor and versatility of his pen.

Life and Letters of Harriet Beecher Stowe. Edited by Annie Fields. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

Mrs. Fields's contribution to the making of this book is, as the title-page denotes, that of an editor. We feel her presence less than in her charming sketch of Mrs. Stowe, which was published in a volume with other things a year ago, but that is probably because there is less of her relatively here than there. She has been able to avail herself freely of Mrs. Stowe's Life, as written by her son while his mother was still living, and of the Life of Lyman Beecher, many passages in which, written by Mrs. Stowe, give the best possible account of her own childhood and youth. It is interesting to find the death of Byron making much the same impression in the Litchfield parsonage as in the Somersby rectory, Alfred Tennyson, aged nine, going about moaning "Byron is dead!" and carving it upon the sandstone ledge, and Harriet Beecher, aged seven, crushed by her father's "Byron is dead—*gone*," and lying down in the pasture and wondering what had become of his soul. It was characteristic of Lyman Beecher that he thought if Byron "could only have talked with me and Taylor, it might have got him out of his troubles." His intensity was a bad thing for his daughter Harriet, who wore herself out with morbid introspection while she was still a child. At the tender age of twelve we find the Hartford minister examining her for church membership, and asking her, "Do you feel that if the universe should be destroyed, you could be happy with God alone?" She answered "Yes," but may have been thinking at the time of the relative satisfaction of being much alone with her sister Catherine, who was nothing if not exigent in her demands upon her. It was Catherine's life-long sorrow for a lover whom she believed to be eternally lost that furnished Mrs. Stowe with the *motif* of her 'Minister's Wooing.'

The experience of the child in one respect was prophetic of her maturity. From Litchfield she went to Boston, from Boston to Hartford, from Hartford (following her father's star) to Cincinnati. It was so all her life long. She was continually on the move. Her domestic life was without any local permanence, and it abounded in disturbing elements. From Cincinnati she went to Brunswick, Me., from there to Andover, from there to Hartford, and each separate place had its own incidents of upheaval and unrest. When she was not broken down her husband often was. She no sooner gets back from a long absence from him at a water-cure in Vermont than he must go to the same place for fifteen months upon a stretch. It was a kind of Castor and Pollux life they lived. The kindest things are said about him, but, for all her miserable health, she seems to have been the oak and he the clinging vine. Mrs. Stowe imagined that Casaubon in 'Middlemarch' was intended for Mr. Lewes, but her own Dr. Stowe was much more like that futile scholar. He once mistook his wife for a ghost, and in general he could but imperfectly distinguish between things real and visionary. Nevertheless, while his family, like that of the real Casaubon, "augmented itself annually," or frequently, he united with the wolf at the door to urge Mrs. Stowe into a literary career, and had the good sense to advise her to drop her original middle name (what it was we are nowhere told) and become famous as Harriet Beecher Stowe.

At Cincinnati there was much pecuniary anxiety and much sickness and depression. The same conditions persisted in Brunswick and further on, her literary earnings never keeping pace with the demands upon her purse. Meantime her household cares were heavier than she could bear, and she was so organized that even the literary work, to which her gravitation was pronounced from her youth up, brought her as much pain as pleasure. It kept her in a perpetual fidget, her agreement to do any specified thing having a paralyzing effect upon her mind. Altogether our general impression of her life, as revealed in this book, is that it was restless and unhappy. Great sorrows combined with petty troubles and profound anxieties to make it so. Her son Henry, the apple of her eye, a student at Dartmouth, was drowned; her son Frederick, who had done service and been wounded in the war, mysteriously disappeared in San Francisco, and was never heard of more; worst of all was the misery caused by the scandal in which her brother Henry was involved. By all means the most affecting document in the book is her long letter to George Eliot concerning that frightful business. It is a pity that one who did so much for others' happiness and for the freedom of the slave should not have reaped the satisfaction from the doing of these things which she so well deserved, and we would gladly be persuaded that our impression is not justified either by Mrs. Fields's disclosures or by the facts in their entirety which lie back of these.

The importance of Mrs. Stowe's life to literature and politics was such as to justify a much fuller presentation than Mrs. Fields has given us. We have everywhere a sense of her detachment from the course and meaning of those events of which 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' was one of the most significant. For example, where she is telling the story of the Cincinnati life, there is not a

word concerning the secession of Theodore D. Weld and his anti-slavery coadjutors from Dr. Beecher's seminary. When we come to the writing of the great book, we miss the atmosphere of the time; and yet perhaps it is better so than to have gone too far the other way. There is a good letter to Frederick Douglass, pleading for the churches against his arraignment of their pro-slavery spirit. As in all previous accounts of Mrs. Stowe's life, we feel almost painfully her lack of preëngagement with the subject of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' We feel it less now than before, yet still much, and wonder that so little observation and so much of divination went to the making of the book. It looks very much as if "the cry of the children" inspired it primarily, and only secondarily the cry of the slave. Mrs. John T. Howard furnishes an account of its production strangely at variance with Mrs. Stowe's. 'Dred' was pronounced a better work by the most competent critics, but the public did not agree with them. The fact is, that Mrs. Stowe's genius was less artistic than it was ethical and humane, and in proportion to her confidence in it as such was her success.

Her visit to England after her first great success was a triumph which put her simplicity to the severest tests, but it was equal to them all. This had an amusing illustration, in another sense, when she offered some of her husband's theological writings to the *Christian Union* at the same rates as her own. So much has been written of her belief in spiritualism that it may be well to notice that she said of it, "Sadly and soberly we say that, if this be communion with the dead, we had rather be without it." The Byron episode is touched only lightly by Mrs. Fields. The explanation given is that "she always spoke and behaved as if she recognized herself to be an instrument breathed upon by the Divine Spirit . . . to the prejudice of what appeared to others a wholesome exercise of will and judgment." From her youth up she had strange "fallings from us, vanishings," and the last years of her life made these continuous in an aggravated form, leaving her friends the merest shadow of her proper self to love and cherish.

A Short History of Modern English Literature. By Edmund Gosse, Hon. M.A. of Trinity College, Cambridge. D. Appleton & Co. 1898. 12mo, vi and 416 pp.

Mr. Gosse has neither the accuracy of a first-class scholar nor the insight of a first-class critic, but wide reading and long practice of the art of criticism combine with a good deal of originality to render this treatise of interest and value to all readers. Mr. Gosse's errors are oftener the result of inattention than of ignorance of the latest authorities. No doubt the questionable taste of many of his metaphors is partly due to haste of composition and the strain of saying something new. We notice, for instance, Sir Thomas Browne "dancing on the tight-rope of style," as Tennyson rising to a "rose-flushed ecstasy of plastic beauty." Some critics may reply that the former expression is suggested by the opening sentence of the 'Christian Morals,' a treatise of which it is a not inappropriate criticism. We should, however, prefer a simpler style throughout in an historian of literature.

Two chapters treat of pre-Elizabethan literature. Ten Brink is generally followed, and with excellent results. We regret a marked contempt for the Middle Ages which mars many of the appreciations. Of course, anything valuable concerning Chaucer as an exponent of ideas peculiarly mediæval could come only from a closer study than Mr. Gosse has given to the period. Sir Thomas Malory is praised with true feeling. To Sackville the author is more severely just than Saintsbury, and we may also commend him for ranking Greene above Peele. But the general treatment of the drama is unsympathetic. Even Webster is very slightly treated; Ford is apparently reckoned his equal. If Randolph is mentioned at all, it should be as the author of "Amyntas," one of the very few charming pastoral dramas in English. Jonson is attacked, root and branch, without mention of the 'Sad Shepherd,' the exquisite lyrics, or the noble prose of 'Timber.' The last was praised by Swinburne above Bacon's 'Essays,' and with this estimate Mr. Gosse might agree, for he says of the "sagacious 'Essays' ": "No work in the English language has been praised with more thoughtless extravagance." It is unfortunate to discuss Drayton only for his 'Poly-Olbion,' and a little misleading to call Daniel and Skelton "laureates" without further explanation. We could wish for more than the bare mention of William Browne of Tavistock, and a little less ferocity towards the poetry of John Donne. Hooker and Jeremy Taylor receive sympathetic appreciations.

The founding of the Royal Society after the Restoration is admirably treated. Wycherley is stamped as "a ruffian of genius," but the treatment of Dryden is a little inadequate. In the eighteenth century Mr. Gosse is thoroughly at home, and parallels between French and English literature are copious and suggestive. We may object, however, to the statement that, "during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, common sense had been by no means characteristic of the English race." It is the author's great familiarity with the eighteenth century that predisposes him to make the following suggestive remark: "For all his excessive attachment to revolutionary ideas, Shelley retains more of the age of Gray than either Keats, Coleridge, or Wordsworth. . . . Sweep away from Shelley whatever gives us exquisite pleasure, and the residuum will be found to belong to the eighteenth century."

The usual tribute is paid to the difficulty of selecting from Victorian authors, but, in his limited space, Mr. Gosse has done well. We miss Clough, and among the many excellent criticisms that of George Eliot is conspicuously poor. We are glad to find Mr. Huxley recognized as a master of English prose, and it is something to have contrasted Browning and Tennyson in an original way. The Epilogue is a plea for the doctrine of evolution as a canon of criticism.

We have observed the following misprints: *seventeenth* century for *fifteenth* (p. 43); *Malcore* for *Maleore* (p. 53); and *John* Davenant for *William* (p. 175). The book is simply and attractively bound, and has an index.

Die Allgemeine Zeitung, 1798-1898. Beiträge zur Geschichte der deutschen Presse. Von Ed. Heyck. Munich: 1898. Pp. iv, 353.

As early as 1793, the publisher, J. G. Cotta, had planned the issue of a daily newspaper, under the title of *Allgemeine Europäische Staatszeitung*, under the editorship of the poet Schiller. Indeed, about a year later, after much discussion, a contract was duly signed, in which "Hr. Hofrath Schiller" agreed to edit the proposed journal at a fixed salary of two thousand florins and other possible perquisites, dependent upon the financial success of the enterprise. Soon afterward Schiller reconsidered the matter, repented of the engagement, which he had entered into with reluctance, and was released from its obligations on the plea of ill health. An additional, if not the principal, reason for withdrawing was his absorbing interest in the projected literary periodical *Die Horen*, which he conducted from 1795 to 1797. Cotta then entered into negotiations with Dr. Ernst Ludwig Posselt, a man of some reputation as a jurist and historian, and with decided talent as a publicist, and on January 1, 1798, the first number of the journal appeared at Tübingen, under the title of *Neueste Weltkunde*. It was a very small affair compared with a newspaper of to-day, being a single sheet of four pages, divided each into two columns about eight inches long and three inches broad. The contents consisted of the first half of an editorial on the state of Europe, with reflections on the glorious results of the French Revolution since 1789—an event, the writer declares, which has produced as great a convulsion in the political world as would be produced in the physical world if the Alps from Mont Blanc to Istria should plunge into an abyss, England be swallowed up by the sea, the Rhine and the Danube disappear, and Africa be rejoined to Spain by an upheaval of the land. The new journal was heartily in sympathy with these political changes, and rejoiced at the impotence of the old despotisms in their efforts to establish a *cordon sanitaire* in order to prevent their subjects from being infected by the contagion of the principles that had proved so fatal to tyranny on the Seine. "No wall of bayonets will be thick and strong enough to resist the passage of opinions."

That a paper expressing such liberal sentiments should soon come into conflict with the censorship was inevitable, and, in a little more than two months after its first appearance, Austria and Russia began to complain of its "audacious conduct," and finally succeeded in compelling the Duke of Würtemberg, "for the preservation of public order and tranquillity imperilled by such writings," to issue a decree for its suppression. This decree took effect on September 8, 1798, and on the following day the paper appeared at Stuttgart under the title of *Allgemeine Zeitung* and the editorship of L. F. Huber. Its publication was not interrupted nor its character changed in the slightest degree. On October 13, 1803, it was again prohibited, and in consequence of this procedure transferred to Ulm, which then belonged to Bavaria. Seven years later the Peace of Schönburg assigned Ulm to Würtemberg, and on September 1, 1810, the *Allgemeine Zeitung* was removed to Augsburg, and thence in 1882 to Munich, where it still remains. That the journal survived all efforts of the censors to kill it is due to the strong particularistic spirit which then prevailed in Germany, and rendered each petty potentate jealous of all the others and eager to protect the victims of their tyranny. This narrow provincialism, although a source of political weakness, tended unquestionably to foster a certain degree of intellectual li-

berty and individual independence, which a single autocratic sovereign would have easily and effectually destroyed. The paltry despotisms, by thwarting each other's aggressions, unwittingly promoted the growth of freedom and the gradual formation of an irresistible current of public opinion, which finally swept them away.

It may be said without exaggeration that the history of the *Allgemeine Zeitung* reflects more fully and faithfully than that of any other journal the history of German civilization during the past century. There was no great movement during that period in art, literature, science, religion, or politics, whose progress may not be traced and character appreciated by a careful study of its columns; and there was hardly a man eminent in letters or in any department of research, or prominent in public affairs, who did not belong to its numerous body of regular and occasional contributors. Of these one of the earliest and most distinguished was Goethe, whose first contribution appeared October 12, 1798, and his last January 9, 1832, less than three months before his death. About the only notable exception to this rule was Schiller, who, although taking a lively interest in the journal, as his correspondence with Cotta shows, seems to have sent but a single communication to it, namely, a personal puff in the form of a short notice that on September 4, 1803, the drama of Wallenstein was represented at Weimar "in the most high presence of their royal majesties of Sweden," and that "the author of the piece and of the History of the Thirty Years' War received from the King a costly diamond ring."

Prof. Heyck's centenary *Festschrift* gives a very interesting and instructive account of the growth and influence of the *Allgemeine Zeitung* during the early stages of its development, but the execution becomes more and more sketchy and inadequate as the work progresses, and does scant justice to the subject, and especially to the *Beilage* as an organ of culture in recent times. Scarcely any mention is made of the many leading men of science, like Liebig, for example, who used this journal as the best medium of communicating the results of their researches to the general public; and the conspicuous part it took in the discussion of the Vatican decrees of 1870 by Döllinger, Friedrich, Johannes Huber, Reinkens, and other rejecters of papal infallibility is strangely ignored. But with all its deficiencies, particularly in the cursory treatment of the events of the last forty years, the volume is a valuable contribution to the history of the German press and of German culture. The paper's circulation reached the highest point in 1848, when it had 11,155 subscribers; but its influence in moulding public opinion always depended on its superior social and intellectual quality, rather than on the number of its readers. It may be said to its credit that it never indulged in sensationalism of any sort, or pandered to popular prejudice for pecuniary gain, but always pursued the high and even tenor of its way without even asking whether such a course would pay or not. On this point the publishing house of Cotta, through three generations, showed no sign of wavering, and cheerfully preferred any deficit in revenue to the slightest defection from principle. The same spirit animates their successors since 1889.

La Préface de Cromwell. Par Maurice Souriau. Paris: Lecène, Oudin & Cie.

Twelve years ago M. Maurice Souriau published an admirable work under the title 'De la Convention dans la Tragédie Classique et dans le Drame Romantique,' in which he took an impartial view of the æsthetic and literary value of these two opposite forms of the drama, and brought out, with singular acuteness and accuracy, their characteristic differences. Without allowing himself to be carried away by enthusiasm for the one or the other, he showed clearly the beauties of each and wherein the Romantic drama had improved on the tragedy. At that time such impartiality was not common among writers. Romanticism had been displaced by realism, and naturalism was busy gaining the ear of the public. Now M. Souriau gives us a new book, still more interesting, and composed in the same spirit of critical impartiality and independence of judgment—'La Préface de Cromwell.'

The volume is divided into two parts. first, an introduction, in which we have a careful study of the influences which acted on Victor Hugo, then a young man; and, secondly, the text of the Preface itself, copiously annotated and commented on. The work is serious, well wrought out, and in the highest degree useful to a proper understanding of the real Hugo and his influence on the whole literature of France in the nineteenth century. We have here none of the malevolent bitterness and gall which mark the "biographie haineuse" of Biré, nor, on the other hand, anything of the extravagant praise of Paul de Saint-Victor or Théodore de Banville. It was time, indeed, that we should have a critical study of one of the most important works of the great poet, written dispassionately and with a single eye to truth. The example set by M. Souriau may well be followed henceforth by all critics and students of Hugo.

M. Souriau meets at the outset the reproach so often addressed to the poet of having changed his opinions with his years; of having never had any stable views on literature or art; of having one moment adored certain principles, and the next having utterly cast them from him with unspeakable contumely. He shows, on the contrary, what reasonable students of Hugo could not help perceiving, that instead of brusque and inexplicable changes of view, there took place in the poet's mind a slow but sure evolution of thought, the germs of which are evident in his very earliest works, and that he was never fettered by opinions and never allowed himself to be interned within a form or a theory, because he consistently pursued one purpose, and, as the light became clearer to him, he went forward more resolutely. This is in direct contradiction to the plan adopted by Biré, which consisted in putting the very worst construction possible on everything the poet ever wrote or did; but Biré determined to blacken Hugo's character and to destroy his reputation as a man and as a writer. His is a *parti pris*, and so evident, so plainly hostile, that it happily loses much of its force, though it cannot be denied that he succeeded in damaging Hugo in the eyes of a large number of people.

It will come in the nature of a surprise to many to learn, on the authority of the passages quoted and referred to by M. Souriau, that Hugo "never allowed himself to be imprisoned within the pale of Romanticism," for if there be one belief deeply rooted in most minds, it is that Hugo was a rabid Romanticist to the end of his days. The truth is, that Hugo kept of Romanticism what was permanently good and useful, and discarded the rest; that some of his disciples, having carried the Romanticist principles too far, he was held responsible for their errors. This is always the case with the leaders of great schools in literature; Ronsard in the sixteenth and Voltaire in the eighteenth century being familiar examples.

Another reproach which has been hurled at Hugo, which was hurled at him by the critics of 1827, as well as by the Biré brood, is that the famous 'Preface' is a mere rehash of ideas already in common circulation in his day, and that it lacks any originality whatsoever. This also is refuted by M. Souriau, who is not content with dogmatic assertion, of which, indeed, we find little trace in his book, but uses the only convincing method, that of proofs drawn from facts plainly evident to all unprejudiced minds and from the consequences of the publication of the 'Preface' itself. Undoubtedly the ideas of Chateaubriand and De Staël are to be met with in the 'Preface,' and equally surely are other ideas, in the air, as the saying is, at that time, to be met with; but the man who gave expression to those of the latter class is Hugo, and none else. And this is no slight claim to originality, as even Boileau, the uncompromising critic of the seventeenth century, allowed. The presentation of the ideas of Chateaubriand and De Staël, in a way at once new and forcible, gave these a power they had not previously possessed. But, apart from these facts, M. Souriau shows conclusively that the 'Preface' contains many ideas purely Hugo's own.

This critical edition has an added value in the very full notes and references, in which the erudition of M. Souriau is never suffered to exhibit itself for its own sake, but is always applied to the task of enlightening the reader and facilitating the researches he may be induced to make. The book is, in brief, one of the most valuable additions to the literature on Hugo and Romanticism which we have had for many a long year.

Select Documents Illustrative of the History of the United States, 1776-1781. Edited with notes by William MacDonald. Macmillan. 1898. 8vo, pp. xiii, 465.

In this attractive and well-arranged volume Prof. MacDonald has brought together the texts of ninety-seven documents, of which all but four belong to the constitutional period. His aim is to furnish a collection of texts available for class use. The need of such a collection is impressed on the minds of teachers of history in colleges and high schools, for text-books and lectures abound in allusions to or abstracts of documents which can really seem living only to those who read the texts.

The value of such a work as Prof. MacDonald has prepared depends on four factors: such a selection of texts as may illustrate the chronological succession of important events; such a selection as may fairly represent the various kinds of documentary material; the choice of really essential extracts; and the accuracy of transcriptions. The first of these criteria may safely be applied to this book: if the reader lets his mind run through the

succession of important events in the public, official history of the nation, he will find no large episode which has not illustration here in some typical document. The ground is well covered, and special effort has been made to illustrate the slavery conflict. The range of material is by the author's plan limited. A third of the extracts are from statutes and treaties; another third from executive messages and reports. The rest is made up of congressional documents, state documents, and five special documents, viz., Taney's contract with the Girard Bank, the Constitution of the American Anti-Slavery Society, the Dred Scott Decision, the Amendment of the Peace Congress, and the Confederate Constitution. Perhaps some diplomatic material might well have been included, such as the Orders in Council and Decrees of 1807; but on the whole the choice is very sensible, and there is sufficient variety in the subjects of the texts.

That such a collection is somewhat arid lies, perhaps, in the nature of things. Documents which, like most of these, set forth accomplished facts, in careful detail, are hard to read and hard to remember. Prof. MacDonald has introduced some texts like Adams's message on the X Y Z, the Report of the Hartford Convention, the Webster-Hayne Debate, and the Ostend Manifesto; but most of the extracts have the solid weight of the statute-book. Even the immortal Declaration of Independence, Articles of Confederation, Ordinance of 1787 and Constitution are printed in so many places that one grudges the tenth of the book given up to them. On the other hand, we could wish that one or other of the declarations in justification of the South Carolina ordinance of secession, virtual preambles, had been published in connection with it.

The authorities used are few, most of the extracts coming from congressional documents of various kinds, where verification is simple. Several of the treaties are taken from the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia instead of from the official Treaties and Conventions. While the text of the early constitutional documents prefixed to the Revised Statutes of the United States is legal and may be quoted in courts, an exact transcription from the originals of some of the verbatim reprints would have been more suitable for an historical collection like Prof. MacDonald's. The introductory notes are readable and helpful. In general the book is well chosen, well fitted together, and likely to serve a useful purpose.

British Central Africa: An attempt to give some account of a portion of the territories under British influence north of the Zambezi. By Sir Harry H. Johnston, K.C.B. With six maps and 220 illustrations. Edward Arnold. 1897. Pp. xix, 544. L. 8vo.

"A Cinderella among the Protectorates" is Sir Harry Johnston's quaint way of indicating at once the present insignificance and the future prominence of the country which he has governed with such ability and now in this work describes so well. It is a singularly comprehensive book, containing a mass of well-digested information about the land, its appearance, resources, fauna and flora, inhabitants, their languages and history. Though there are necessarily many dull details of facts and dry scientific lists, yet much of the text possesses a geniality and originality which we have found quite captivating. His description of the physical features of the Protectorate, for instance, is supplemented by graphic pictures of characteristic scenes—a river flowing between banks of palm-trees; the tropical forest, wonderful for its lush vegetation and gorgeous color; the high, grassy plateau with its grazing herds of antelopes, a native village, an Arab town, and a mission station. To a useful catalogue of the outfit of an intending white settler, and the diseases to which he will be liable and the best methods of treating them, he adds an entertaining series of imaginary letters written by a young man to his friends in Scotland. In them he tells at length of his experiences in his journey from the coast to the interior, his life at Blantyre, on a coffee plantation, in buying and clearing land, in hiring native laborers, his hunting adventures, and his inevitable fever. The chapter on missionaries frankly states their mistakes and failures from the author's point of view, yet describes their far greater successes, and closes with a charming account of the reception by a missionary of a white traveller who, at the end of a long journey, comes to the station fever-stricken and exhausted with toil and privation. It is one of the most beautiful and touching pictures of some phases of mission life—not without its shadows—which we remember to have read, and is doubtless the faithful representation of some of the author's personal experiences.

The historical chapters are something more than a bald record of events. There is a sketch in miniature of the way in which the British Empire has been and is being built up. It shows with what pains, what courage, what unselfish devotion, and at what cost of valuable lives a great territory, rich in natural resources but unfruitful because of the ignorance and savagery of its inhabitants, is slowly but surely being made productive, the home of a peaceful and industrious people. British Central Africa consists of all the British possessions north of the Zambesi; but the Protectorate, about which this work is chiefly concerned, includes only the Shiré Highlands and the adjacent territory on the south and west shores of Lake Nyasa. Its meagre history begins, practically, with the advent of Livingstone in 1856, though the first white settlement, by missionaries, was not made till a few years later; and consists largely in the struggle, only just completed, with the Arab slave-hunters and their native allies. Sir Harry's summary of results since the organization of the Protectorate is more interesting from the promise which they give for the future than for their present magnitude. Still, 390 miles of road and 80 miles of broad path; a revenue exceeding $100,000, and a trade of more than half-a-million; a postal service with twenty offices and 500,000 pieces of mail matter annually; the slave-trade exterminated, and native laborers paid no longer with cloth and beads but in cash, and having bank accounts—all this, with soil fit for raising cotton, coffee, wheat, or for grazing, and with untold riches in gold and iron, certainly justifies Sir Harry in looking forward to a time when India will be reproduced in British Central Africa.

If in the first half of his book the author has shown himself a capable administrator and historian, in the second he makes it evident that he is a keen and diligent observer and collector of plants, birds, and animals, and that to an intimate scientific knowledge he joins the appreciation of the artist for beauty of form and color. These chapters on the botany and zoölogy of the country are also enlivened by personal touches which show his interest in and sympathy for everything in nature—with one exception, the insects. Against them he inveighs with amusing vehemence as things seemingly "created for an almost evil purpose." His account of the natives gives in minutest detail facts of great interest to the ethnologist; and if it seems to show that the negro of south central Africa has been retrograding for some centuries past, yet it furnishes reason also to hope that an upward turn has come, which "may, with steady strides, bring him upon a level at some future day with the white and yellow" man. That in individual cases this level has been reached is shown by a remarkable prize essay, printed in an appendix, on the useful trees of British Central Africa written in the Ci-nyanja language by one of the native scholars of the Blantyre Mission School.

The attractiveness of the volume, as well as its usefulness, is greatly enhanced by the numerous illustrations (some of the most beautiful being reproductions of the author's own drawings and paintings) of characteristic scenes, notable types of the fauna, flora, and native races, dwellings, and native industries. There are also portraits of those Europeans who have been foremost in aiding Sir Harry in his work of organizing and upbuilding. Some admirably clear maps show the physical features, rainfall, distribution of native tribes, administrative divisions, missionary stations, and foreign settlements. Several botanical and zoölogical appendices, vocabularies, and an excellent index complete the enumeration of the merits of this work, which is an important contribution to the highest class of the literature of Africa.

The Subconscious Self and its Relation to Education and Health. By Louis Waldstein, M.D. Scribners. 1897. 8vo, pp. 171.

This suggestive little book decidedly repays perusal. We do not say that its psychology is always clear or sound. By *subconscious* perception, Lewes, who introduced the term, meant *subliminal* perception, perception not amounting to sensation, but of an obscure kind. But Dr. Waldstein applies the word to any feeling which, without an unusual effort, cannot be brought to the focus of attention. The general theme of the essay is stated in a passage which we abridge, as follows:

We make a distinction between *conscious* impressions and others associated with them, though not within the narrowed circle of our attention, the *subconscious* impressions. We are active and selective relative to the conscious, passive only in respect to subconscious impressions. But the latter class is, however, permanently registered, and forms a constituent part of memory. Impressions here called subconscious are by far more numerous than those designated as conscious. The accumulated contents of our memory govern our emotions, our thoughts, and actions, and therefore that portion of our memory made up of subconscious impressions, and their aggregate must necessarily play a great part in our individual life.

The author goes on to describe a "mood" (what the Germans call *Stimme*) very much as psychiatrists have done, tracing it largely to unfocussed organic sensations. Indeed, in many passages he seems to assume that

the distinctive character of emotion, or at any rate of emotionality, is the exaggeration of the unfocussed consciousness; but this is riding his horse too hard. Moreover, quite in contrast with most psychologists, he often allows himself to speak as if associations were particularly prominent with unfocussed ideas, forgetting that this is only half the truth, since those associations which do act, act more strongly with the focussed ideas. Upon this general theme the author descants in a very interesting manner; and even when his argument is open to suspicion, his conclusions are wise. We all know that the soundest wisdom is not always the best reasoned. There is a kind of "horse sense" upon which we learn to rely all the more that it springs from the larger and "subconscious" part of our nature; and with this Dr. Waldstein is well equipped.

Sans Mari. Par Mme. V. Le Coz. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

Sale Juif! Par Louis Dollivet. Armand Colin & Cie.

Nouvelles Grecques. Par D. Bikélas. Paris: Didot.

Andronike, the Heroine of the Greek Revolution. By Stephanos Theodoros Xenos. Boston: Roberts Bros.

Vivette; or, the Memoirs of the Romance Association. By Gelett Burgess. Boston: Copeland & Day.

Mme. Le Coz's 'Sans Mari' is another of the series "Pour les jeunes filles," and shows that the French are stepping bravely along the path opened for them by our many writers of stories for girls, such as Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney; without, however, so much of the sentimental religious tone into which we are apt to fall. The tale of the young girl's convent life and of her plunge into gay society is well enough told, but as we do not sit down to mourn hopelessly if our daughters are not married at twenty-five, the point of view borders on the ridiculous to an American. This story is not as good as some of the others in the series.

Were Louis Dollivet's 'Sale Juif' a well-composed book it might be much to the point just now, intending to show the deep-lying hatred of the Jew in Paris; but though it begins with some pretty pictures of bourgeois life in that city, the little romance of the Jewish surgeon and the Catholic girl is so flatly quenched that one does not care to follow the hero in his hasty and inconsequent wanderings among foreign hospitals and his coreligionists. In fact, he is stupid. And so is the book.

Bikélas's short stories are written with a graceful touch, a gentle humor and pathos which show the most pleasing side of the Greek character, its childlike simplicity and confidence. They are truly Greek and not French, however much the translation may make them seem related to the Gallic tale, and the illustrations strengthen the national flavor. Here are the devoted priest; the charitable peasant and the doctor; the timid, self-sufficient young lawyer who fancies that he can be a soldier among the fierce Cretans, and learns better—in short, the tragedies and the kindliness of limited communities of any nationality, only that here we seem to see something like the gentle softness of the fawn with an occasional glimpse of the slyness of "Brer Rabbit."

Such quiet, gray tones contrast strongly with the scarlet glare of the next work on our list. Prof. Grosvenor has given us a readable translation of Xenos's historical novel, which tells the events of the revolution of 1821, so similar, as he says in his preface, to the scenes of the melancholy war just ended. In our prosaic, civilized world it is difficult to believe in the possibility of so many hairbreadth escapes by flood, fire, and sword as the heroine experienced, Athena-like as she appears; but some scenes in the book make it worth reading as illustrative of more general history. Such are the beautiful descriptions of Scio and its people, and the fearful tragedies of the conquest of the Islands; the vivid pictures of the sieges of Missolonghi and the battle of Navarino, and the terrible desperation to which the wretched nation was reduced before the tardy recognition of its rights was granted. Everything is a strange and seemingly involuntary confirmation of what has just been before us—the devotion of the masses of the patriotic peasants, and their betrayal and sacrifice again and again by avaricious, treacherous, and cowardly leaders. There runs through the story a strain of sorrow, bitter, truly, but unprejudiced, and the weakness as well as the heroism of the national character is exposed; so that our sympathies for the unfortunate people are enlarged and our hopeless feeling that they are as caught in a net is reinforced. And what the fowler will do with them we know not. The death of Andronike in a convent, whither she had fled under the protection of the Russian Empress, and the beauty of the last moments when she sinks down though crowned with flowers to celebrate the freedom of her country, is a fine climax; and we leave her with more of human feeling than has perhaps attached to her during all the course of her almost superhuman struggles.

Such of the present generation as have time seem to enjoy amusing their fancy with fantastic impersonalities like Vivette and her companion, the director of the Romance Association. To keep up with such a very nimble wit, most people need a more sustained wing than the flutterings of the Lark. However, a gentle sarcasm and merry dialogue relieve the book somewhat of its aimlessness, and an idle half-hour may be enlivened by glancing through 'Vivette.'

Hindu Manners, Customs, and Ceremonies. By the Abbé J. A. Dubois. Translated from the author's later French MS. by Henry K. Beauchamp. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. Two volumes, 8vo, pp. 730. 1897.

This interesting and useful work is a translation of an account of the condition of India at the opening of the present century, as given by the French missionary Dubois in the time of his long residence among the Hindus (1792-1823). Most of the Abbé's life in India was spent in the Madras territory; the coloring is therefore rather that of southern India. The picture which he draws is vivid and it is sometimes painful in its details; but it sheds much light upon the people of Hindustan in his day, and it contributes in large measure to a better understanding of the spirit of older Indian literature. After his return from the East, the Abbé lived almost as a recluse in Paris, and died there in 1848. The book he has left is a monument to the zealous Christian worker's memory. The fervid earnestness, the straightforward honesty, and the genuine modesty of the writer awaken sympathy and lend a certain attraction, or even charm. The description of the suttee, or widow-burning, which the Abbé witnessed with his own eyes on two memorable occasions, is most exciting.

Dubois's book has been accessible before in English, but only in an imperfect form; the present version gives, for the first time, the complete work which the author himself revised in 1815, and it is now edited with notes, corrections, and a biography of this early pilgrim to the East. Last, but not least in importance, the prefatory note by Max Müller, introducing the volume, also lends an interest to these volumes, which the larger libraries should acquire, which lovers of travel and of life in foreign lands will enjoy, and which students of India will read to their advantage.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Grace B. Water-Color Painting. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Ancient Sacred Scriptures. Putnams. $2.
Bailey, L. H. Garden-Making. Macmillan. $1.
Bailey, L. H. First Lessons with Plants. Macmillan. 40c.
Bennett, Prof. W. H. A Primer of the Bible. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Bodley, J. E. C. France. 2 vols. Macmillan. $4.
Borrow, George. Lavengro: The Scholar—The Gypsy—The Priest. London: George Newnes; New York: Putnams. $1.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 3, 1898.

The Week.

Gen. Sherman dropped in upon a gathering of clergymen in Washington, ten or twelve years ago, and was rallied a little on venturing among so many heralds of peace. He rejoined, in his swift, incisive way, "You gentlemen in black coats are the men who make war. We of the army and navy simply end the wars which you bring on." It cannot be said, however, that the clergy as a whole are now adding anything to the war fury, except as their words are distorted by lying newspapers. Nearly all the references from the pulpit to the *Maine* disaster are moderate and calming in tone. The President himself listened to a peace sermon in Washington on Sunday. Certainly if ever the ministry feels itself called upon to withstand the active powers of darkness, the need of opposing and exposing the diabolical newspapers which are trying to lie the country into war must be obvious. The trouble is that the lying is so devilish that it perverts even words of truth and soberness that any sane and honest man may speak. It seems impossible to give the lie to these venal and unspeakable sheets in so explicit a form that they will not twist it into an explicit endorsement. Luckily, the lying has been done on such a monstrous scale that nothing these papers say is now credited by any rational man without independent confirmation. A long course of lies, which, like the father that begat them, are gross as a mountain, open, palpable, is at last working out the natural result of breeding universal distrust of anything seen in print. But the liars go jauntily on their way to the lake of fire prepared for them, and

> "——blind and naked Ignorance
> Delivers brawling judgments, unashamed,
> On all things all day long."

Nothing could be more curious than the contrast between the wild aspect of the first pages of our penny dreadfuls and the calm demeanor of the persons who are seen reading them. If half of what the "scare" headlines reveal were true, the first impulse of the reader would be to remove his family to a place of safety, dispose of his property as best he could, and make arrangements to leave the country. A few years ago the mere sight of a newspaper got up in this extraordinary style, with headlines in bill-poster type reaching quite across the page, would have started a panic. People would have inferred that nothing less than a most dangerous condition of affairs could have led the editor to such unusual demonstrations of alarm. Now they are read with entire passivity, even although they declare war to be imminent, and indicate that a majority of the American people, including those of them who are in power, are either lunatics or maniacs. The new journalism has been steadily raising the tone of its yelling till it has reached the highest limit possible. The louder it shrieks, the less attention is paid to it. What would remain for it to do in case of real danger, or a real war, it is difficult to imagine. The resources of type have been about exhausted. Nothing in the way of larger letters can be used, unless only a single headline is to be given on the first page. Red ink has been resorted to as an additional element of attraction or terror, and if we had a war, the whole paper might be printed in red, white, and blue. In that case, real instead of imitation lunatics should be employed as editors and contributors.

The chief trouble between the United States and Spain at the present time is not the disaster to the *Maine* in Havana harbor. Nobody really thinks that the Spanish Government or its military or naval officers caused that disaster or intended that it should take place. If it was caused by a private person, we have no means of knowing whether he was an adherent of Spain or of the Cuban rebellion. He may be an insane person. He may have perished in the explosion. Leaving that disaster out of the reckoning, the preëxisting trouble remains; that consists of a mutual misunderstanding, and therein lies the danger. The two nations do not look at the same facts in the same light. The Spaniards think that we want to acquire the island of Cuba. It belongs to them. It was theirs centuries before we became a nation. They think that we want to take it from them for our own use and behoof, and that all our disclaimers of such a purpose are hypocritical and false. In point of fact, we do not want the island at all. One of the most powerful deterring influences which have held us aloof so far is a reluctance to become responsible for the future social and political condition of the island if it were wrested from Spain by us. Moreover, it angers us to be charged with a selfish motive in reference to Cuba. This is the way Spain misunderstands us.

We misunderstand Spain in a different way. We look upon her first as a monarchy. Our knowledge of the monarchical governments of Europe as they exist to-day is extremely vague, and of Spain the vaguest of all. To the great mass of Americans—to those who have not travelled abroad or who have not had the advantage of schooling in political science under modern masters—the Spain of to-day is the Spain of Cortez, of Pizarro, of Philip II., of the Armada, and of the Inquisition. More Americans have had their conceptions of Spain moulded by the writings of Prescott and Motley than by all other influences taken together. These writings are true of the time to which they relate, but not of the present time. They are true just as the speeches of Burke and Chatham were true of the Government of George III., but not of that of Victoria. Perhaps as many Americans fail to distinguish between the England of 1776 and that of our own time as between the Spain of Alva and that of Castelar. We can remember a time, during a former rebellion in Cuba, when Charles Sumner thought it necessary to make a speech against our interference, pointing out the fact that Castelar was then at the head of the Government of Spain and that the world contained no better republican than he. Castelar still lives, and his voice has been heard in remonstrance against the misconceptions that we have formed concerning Spain and Cuba.

It is to be remembered, by people who think at all about consequences, that the Cuban trouble would not end with the expulsion of the Spanish. We should then find ourselves in possession of an island desolated by war, and inhabited by a mongrel race unused to self-government, grossly ignorant and superstitious. Consequently, any one who is working out a plan of campaign, should work out at the same time a plan for the reorganization of civil society in the island by the United States. We are not saying this by way of joke or sarcasm. We mean seriously that the performance of some such task will be one of the inevitable consequences of victory; and if we are to dispose of the Spaniards as easily as we think we are, it is not a bit too soon to begin to think about it. If Cuba is to be a dependency of ours, how are we to govern it? What class of men are we to select for the purpose? Are we to allow popular suffrage to have any share in it? If we admit the island as one, two, or three States of the Union, what kind of addition will these States make to the Senate? What effect will this have in producing further annexations—Hawaii, other West Indian islands, Mexico, and the South American states? The doctrine that "all will come out right in the end," on which Americans have in the past relied so much, and with so much success, was, it must be remembered, based on the fact that our problems were dealt with by a ho-

mogeneous population, possessing a common political training and traditions. As soon as we began to admit another race to a share in the work, things did not "come out right in the end." The admission of the negroes, for instance, to a share in our government, indispensable as it was as a guarantee against their oppression, has not come out right yet. Its very advocates at the North have actually abandoned the assumptions on which they supported it, as seen in their scheme for the annexation of Hawaii. They now say that men of an inferior race need not be consulted about their political destiny.

Prime Minister Sagasta's assertion that Spain cannot consent to refer the Cuban troubles to arbitration is only what was to have been expected. Some sanguine people have been hoping that if the worst came, and war seemed inevitable, England or Germany might interpose with good offices and ask that arbitration be resorted to instead of arms. But Sagasta declares that the Government of Spain will "reject every act tending to cast the slightest shadow upon the indisputable sovereignty of the nation, or to diminish its liberty of action in any territory over which the Spanish flag floats." We cannot blame Spain for this. She regards Cuba as a part of her inalienable territory just as truly as we consider Florida a part of ours, and will no more hear of discussing the question of giving up Cuba than we should of surrendering Florida. Moreover, Spain's attitude towards arbitration is only what we have taught her. We have ostentatiously declined to consider arbitration applicable in cases touching territory or honor. We had a treaty of arbitration pending with England, and then so mangled it out of shape with restrictions and qualifications, tending to make it ridiculous and to prove that we did not believe in arbitration at all, that the whole thing was finally thrown overboard as an offence in the nostrils. We had our boasted project of pan-American arbitration, but brushed it contemptuously aside when the Chilian flurry occurred. It does not lie in our mouths to find fault with any nation for being unwilling to arbitrate international difficulties. We have had the opportunity of giving arbitration new sanctions and dignity, and flung it away with a Jingo whoop. Now we cannot complain if that chicken, with many others that have gone out of our own Jingo hennery in the past eight years, is coming home to roost.

The Administration evidently has ceased to push the Hawaiian annexation scheme with the zeal which it manifested at the opening of the session. The President appears to have learned that it would be a very bad thing for the party if he should carry through what is really a personal project, not justified by the platform upon which he was elected, repugnant to prominent Republican Senators and prominent Republican leaders in the House, and condemned by public sentiment. The movement to secure an early adjournment of Congress helps the opposition to annexation, since if the Senate can be kept busy with other matters, the Hawaiian scheme can be held in the background until it is too late to pass even a joint resolution. Considerations of party advantage operate to the same end. The Republican managers in the House naturally shrink from having an Administration measure come up in that body which is earnestly opposed by Speaker Reed, Chairman Cannon of the appropriations committee, and many other Republicans who sympathize with Representative Johnson of Indiana in his earnest protest against it last week. The *Maine* incident has also served to injure the chances of annexation. Once men began to think of war as possibly near, they realized how much better prepared for war the nation is without Hawaii than with it. If there should be a conflict with Spain, we should want all our war vessels for use in it, and should be handicapped if we were compelled to keep some of them in Hawaiian waters for the defence of those islands.

The incident serves to emphasize a lesson which the developments of the last few weeks have been teaching—the value of discussion to a democracy. It is now three months since Congress met and the Senate took up the treaty for the annexation of Hawaii. The treaty was sent in by a President who had but recently been inaugurated and who made annexation an Administration measure. The vast power that a new executive possesses in the early part of his term, through the control of the patronage, combined with the natural inclination of partisans to sustain the head of their organization in a policy to which he had sought to commit it. Various motives of self-interest impelled hesitating members to yield to the insistence of the President. Nobody doubts that if the advocates of annexation could have forced a vote without discussion early in December, the treaty would have secured the requisite two-thirds vote, and the irrevocable step would have been taken. To-day the most sanguine among them admit that the treaty cannot be ratified, and the opponents of the scheme believe that they can defeat the attempt to reach the same end through the passage by both branches of a joint resolution. Three months of discussion have sufficed to show that public sentiment is overwhelmingly against the scheme, and the prospect for its defeat after deliberation is now as good as was the outlook for its success before such deliberation.

Congressional proceedings on Washington's Birthday usually are either suspended entirely, or are humdrum and perfunctory in their nature. But the session of the House last week was rendered notable by a striking speech from Mr. Johnson of Indiana, a Republican member, which was most appropriate to the anniversary. Mr. Johnson improved the opportunity which the rules permit to discuss questions of general public policy while an appropriation bill is up, to make an emphatic and impressive protest against the annexation of Hawaii. He opposed the scheme because the people of Hawaii, outside the small governing class, are against annexation; because the population are ignorant, and it is absurd to take in a large body of such ignorance at the very time when we are legislating against the admission of individual immigrants who are ignorant; because our system of government is not adapted to a colonial policy; because annexation of Hawaii would establish a bad precedent, which we should be urged to follow at an early day, and the cry of to-day, "Give us Hawaii," would be to-morrow, "Give us Cuba," and the next day, "Give us Samoa"; and because "the internal reforms which our country demands present a field broad enough to enlist our best efforts. The purification of the ballot, the crushing of the rings and Trusts which plunder our people without stint, the restriction of immigration, the establishment of a fixed and stable standard of value, and the reform of our banking laws, afford work enough for us to do." Mr. Johnson closed with an earnest appeal that, if the Senate shall send to the House a joint resolution for annexation, the Representatives may "have the moral courage to say 'No' to a policy which will lead, God alone knows where." Significant as was such a protest by a leading Republican Congressman against a policy advocated by a Republican President, its plauditory reception by the body to which it was addressed was still more significant.

South Carolina feels keenly the shame of the frightful crime by which the colored postmaster at Lake City was killed, and members of his family killed or wounded, by a mob of whites who had set their home on fire in the middle of the night. Nothing could be asked for more appropriate to the occasion than the editorial expressions of the Columbia *State*, and the Charleston *News and Courier* has been equally outspoken in condemnation of the atrocity. The murder of the postmaster is the sixth lynching that has occurred in South Carolina since the beginning of the year, and the Charleston editor holds the State authorities indirectly responsible for the latest crime because "they have made practically no effort whatever to stay the hand of violence." He goes still fur-

ther, and welcomes the opportunity now presented for the federal Government to interpose, as "the State authorities have demonstrated their inability to deal with such crimes against the law." Time was when scarcely the preoccupation of impending war could have kept the Republicans in Congress from vociferating for such interposition, even in a case not distinctly federal, like this.

Croker's declaration in favor of the constitutional amendment providing for biennial sessions of the Legislature insures its passage by the Assembly as already by the Senate. The Democratic members from the interior of the State have been favorably disposed towards it from the start, and, with Tammany supporting it, there will be hardly anybody outside of the Albany representatives in opposition. Much speculation is indulged in as to the cause of this change of base, the Tammany members having only last week recorded themselves against advancing the measure. The really significant feature of the incident is the light which it throws upon the dummy character of the modern legislator under the boss system. His only business is to obey orders, and this he must do even when it requires him to oppose one week the very thing that he argued in favor of the week before. It is no wonder that men of character and ability are not found in the Legislature under such a system.

We have now four bosses, two in each party, who are seeking openly to direct the Legislature at Albany. Platt and Black are doing this work for the Republicans, and Hill and Croker for the Democrats. All four take the common ground that the members of the Legislature have no individual will or desire in the matter; that they are sent to Albany, not to deliberate upon matters of public interest and legislate to the best of their ability for the good of the State, but to obey "orders" from the bosses. Platt comes on from Washington on Sundays and gives his orders in person to the leaders of the Republican majority in the two houses. Black summons the Republican members to his office and tells them what he wants them to do with measures for reforming primaries and securing biennial sessions of the Legislature. Croker writes a formal letter to Senator Cantor, which the latter gives to the press, telling him what he wishes the Democrats in the two houses to do. It matters not a particle that the course which Croker favors is exactly opposite to that which the Democrats have been pursuing. Cantor promptly calls a caucus, and it is taken for granted that the Democrats will turn around. The only doubt which exists about it lies in the fact that Hill, who issues his views in the form of bulletins through the press, is opposed to Croker on some points, and may take some of the rural Democratic members with him.

The receipts, bar and other, at Mr. Croker's club are likely to be small for some time to come, owing to the "squeezing" which many of the members have suffered in Wall Street during the last few days. This misfortune, coming on top of failure to get the civil-service regulations broken down in order to turn the minor places in the municipal departments over to Tammany, is likely to precipitate a crisis in the Club's finances. The decision not to move into a new and larger club-house was made just in the nick of time. Mr. Croker reached it, it is said, because the income of the Club was not proving to be so great as had been anticipated. The members, as a body, having parted with the greater part of their ready money in paying their initiation fees and buying their dress suits, had little money to spend in drinks and dinners and suppers. If they could all have got "places," as they hoped to do, this would not have been the case, but the damnable civil-service law has proved to be an insurmountable obstacle, for a time at least, to such possession. Now, as if this were not hard luck enough, comes the war-scare, with the slump in Wall Street sweeping away all the profits that had been made through the "tip" on rapid transit, and carrying with them a lot of money in "margins" which the rank and file of Tammany had put up on what they supposed was a "sure thing" in elevated railway and Metropolitan stock. What is the good of a club membership and a club suit if you have no money in your pocket, and the credit system cannot be worked? If you pawn your suit, you cannot go to the Club without danger of giving offence to Mr. Croker. If you retain the suit and go to the Club, filled largely with members, like yourself, impecunious, what enjoyment can you look for? What is the inevitable consequence? Why, the Club is deserted, and members are forced back into the saloons where they can "take something" on the proceeds of their sold or pawned club suits.

The new Irish local-government bill seems to give general satisfaction to all parties. It is a much greater triumph for the popular party than the English County Councils were. In England, it is true, the county government was taken away from the gentry, but the gentry were men of the same race and religion as the people, and on excellent terms with them. In Ireland the counties have been governed by the grand juries, made up almost exclusively of Protestant landlords chosen by the sheriffs, and as hostile to the Catholic masses as they could well be. As far as honesty in the spending of county money went, it has been tolerably good government for the last sixty years, but one utterly indifferent to popular opinion. What the English Tory ministry feared, as Mr. Balfour's bill of five years ago showed, was that, if the voters got hold of the machinery of county governments, they would punish the landlords by unfair or excessive taxation. Accordingly, in that first attempt at Irish local government, the new County Councils were surrounded by restrictions and had less real power than our Municipal Assembly. It was accordingly withdrawn amid general laughter. The Irish members would have none of it. The difficulty has been got over in this bill, in the Tory way, by paying half the landlords' taxation by grant from the imperial treasury. With this the landlords are, of course, much pleased, and the Radicals hardly less so, because it brings English money into the country. Consequently, all parties have hailed it with approval. Behind all this, however, lies a still more potent reason for satisfaction. Mr. Balfour has consulted the Irish in drawing the bill. This used to be considered by Englishmen as "foul scorn," of which nobody but Gladstone could be guilty. In O'Connell's day a consultation with him by the Whigs was treated by the *Times* as little short of a compact with criminals. Time and experience have brought wisdom. The Conservatives have begun to treat Irishmen as having something to say about the management of their own affairs. May be it will be the dawning of a better era. May be some of the Tammany men will go over, and show the natives how to astonish the world by corruption and rascality.

The French Government has evidently embarked on a policy of repression as rigid and as intolerable to free men as the prosecutions set on foot by the German Emperor. He considers slighting reference to his sacred person treasonable; in France it is the army which it is *lèse-majesté* to breathe a word against. Crime for crime, we think the German is less fantastic, less fraught with danger, than the French. There may be excuse for holding that the Head of the State so stands for law and order and national dignity that railing accusations against him cannot be tolerated; but the army is another affair. In the Zola case the army has been represented by officers who, whatever their military virtues, have shown themselves most inimical to the paramount civil virtues—respect for truth and for law and a desire to do justice. When a wretched roué and intriguer like Major Esterhazy can insult the court and go out into the street to be greeted with frantic cheers of "Vive l'armée!" we get an idea of the baseness and very unworshipful nature of the majesty before which France appears willing to prostrate herself.

EXCITABILITY.

If we examine closely the cause of the success of our yellow journals in the lying business, we shall find it almost invariably in the excitability of a portion of our population. It is to minister to this excitability, to increase it, play on it, and get money out of it, that most of their lies are told and their pictures published. In fact, it may be said that they live by it. They could not make money in this way out of a calm, phlegmatic public. It would be like asking a grandfather or old uncle to have a game of marbles or figure at a masked ball. The reasons why so many of us are excitable, and therefore fall a ready prey to the trade liar, are not far to seek. We come in the main of a very serious race, and have grown up from generation to generation under a very solemn view of life and death. We were probably, down to the close of the last century, as grave, as hard to rouse into overwhelming emotion, as either the English or Dutch from whom we sprang. But the astonishing prosperity of the country after the close of the Revolutionary war threw the whole community off its balance, and begot the "peculiar people" theory, which made the experience of mankind seem of little value to us, and threw the homely Poor Richard wisdom of the olden time completely into the shade. It seemed as if our nation had been brought into the world in order to show the worthlessness of precedents and the emptiness of ancient saws. Hope began to fill the air as it had never before done in human history. Life seemed to lose half its anxieties, through the general confidence that every year would bring its own prosperity, that comfort was at last to be had without too much frugality, competence without too much toil. Recovery from disaster became so easy that the old-world fear of bankruptcy and other misfortune seemed silly. Population and wealth increased in a degree unknown to financiers and statesmen. Simple ability began to have rewards poured in on it as never before. And this exhilaration was intensified by the quality of the atmosphere. American air and sunshine seemed to have been devised for a new race of men, who knew nothing of gloom either of the soul or of the weather.

Naturally enough, man began on this continent to adapt his manners to his surroundings. Calm, caution, hesitation are the characteristics of people who doubt, who have had misfortunes, who grow less well off as they grow older. They did not become the denizens of the New World. It began to seem "un-American" to be cast down, to be disheartened by any mischance, or to refuse to be easily elated. In fact, easy elation, quick action, indisposition to deliberation, became rapidly cherished national characteristics. The American boy was brought up to be easily excited, but always in the direction of joy and hopefulness. He was not to lament or wail over anything. Fires, battles, insolvency, were always to touch new springs of strength and vigor. His eagle was always to scream and flap its wings on the smallest provocation. He was to remain always young. He was to be afraid of nobody and nothing. He was always to be able to conquer in war and do the wise thing in peace.

This beatific condition lasted until the rebellion, and after it. The war was in some degree sobering, but the falsification of nearly all the hostile vaticination about it deprived it of the educational effects which wars usually have. We became pleased with the rebellion because it was so big, and with the debt because it was so heavy. We began paying it off with merriment, as if paying national debts was a "raising bee," and we almost refused to get back to specie payments, because this seemed commonplace and a sign of doubt. The tariff men were the first to take advantage of this tremendous cheerfulness. They said: "See how jolly and hopeful they are. Let us make them pay up. They won't complain, no matter what duty we clap on their clothes and tools. They will say, it is American to have things dear; that love of cheapness is a fad of the fusty Old World." So they began to try their tariff on us, and made it heavier and heavier as the years rolled by, but we never squealed. It would have been European or English to squeal, so we bid them pile it on, and see how Americans could bear taxation and how they revelled in dearness.

That the press liars forbore so long to follow the example of the tariff men is surprising. We seemed just the material for lying newspapers to make money out of, a hopeful, credulous people, fond of wonderful stories about our own strength and prowess, and as boastful about our own capacity as the old bards about the exploits of their chiefs. "Let us stuff them," at last said the Liars; "they will buy and believe anything we invent." Our success in the war of 1812, when any trading schooner could be converted into a man-of-war by putting guns on board of her, and when we learned to fight on as long as the carpenter could stop up the shot-holes, prodigiously fostered our readiness for naval warfare. But the invention of the iron-clad, with its electrical, clock-like machinery, its exposure to shells bursting between decks, its tendency to be sunk by unseen torpedoes, is a serious blow to us. The iron-clad is essentially a solemn machine. It inspires gravity. It is essentially a kill-joy. There is no room for jollity on it. Then the quick-firing guns are hostile to valor. There seems to be only one way to show contempt for them, and that is by letting their bullets into your body. But it is an ill wind that blows nobody good. They are worth double the old wooden ships to the lying newspaper reporter. He can weave ten yarns about an iron-clad for one about a brig, or sloop-of-war, or a frigate, or a first-rate. There is a mouthful in the term "battle-ship" to which neither frigate nor first-rate can lay claim, and for boys and loafers it is a mine of mystery and wonder. So between the iron-clads and eagerness for excitement, the lying newspaper, following on the greedy tariff man, has been able to make a pot of money out of our excitability.

But his good times are going. As our problems multiply and our sky becomes more overcast, the vainglorious and happy American of Jackson's day grows rarer. Unwillingness to believe becomes more general. Impossibilities increase. We are less sure of the future. The newspapers begin to find that there is money in preaching calm as well as in denouncing caution and calling for revenge. We hear more and more that judgment is a thing to be "suspended" until you know the facts; that, in truth, judgment is mainly meant for suspension, and that if it is not suspended, it ceases to be judgment. We are entering, in fact, on another world, in which the new American smiles gravely over the jigs and hornpipes of the old one. *Tempora mutantur et nos mutamur in illis*, as Croker would say.

THE SITUATION IN SPAIN.

It was announced on Friday that a royal decree was at once to issue dissolving the Spanish Cortes and fixing the election of Deputies for the new Cortes on March 23. The half of the Senate chosen by popular vote will be elected on April 3, and the Cortes summoned on April 25. Cuba and Porto Rico are to choose their representatives in the national Parliament at the same time.

No one, of course, has the slightest doubt what the result of these elections will be. In Spain the Government always wins. This is one of the "cosas de España" of which natives will speak to you with wide-eyed wonder that you should find them strange. The whole thing is arranged most amicably in advance. The Minister of the Interior, as we should call him, sends for the leaders of the opposition party, tells them how many seats the Government has decided it must have, how many are to be conceded to them, asks them to name the notabilities of their parties they would like returned, and from what districts, and the affair is arranged with the best of feeling on all sides. And the agreement is executed to the letter. Once or twice a minister has had the chagrin to see the voters in Bilbao, Barcelona, Madrid, and a few other stirring centres of population succeed in electing candi-

dates of their own; but such accidents are rare. In the existing Cortes the Conservatives had about 275 Deputies, the Liberals of all shades 110, the Carlists 10. The composition of the next Cortes is already announced in advance of its election. It seems the Liberals have decided that they must have 300 Deputies, in order to show a sweeping popular approval of their course. They will graciously allow the Conservatives a matter of 70 seats, the Carlists their 10, the groups of Republicans a score or so, if they do not, as in the last election, refuse to vote at all. The Socialists, who have pretty steadily refrained from taking any part in what they call, not without warrant, "the political comedy," are proposing to put forward candidates in several of the cities.

If Spain had no graver difficulties to face than that of renewing her Cortes in this facile way, men might call her happy. But her finances are confessedly worse than confused. Even before the Cuban war her debt was burdensome, her deficit chronic, and her credit impaired, and the frightful drain of men and money to which she has been subject in Cuba for three years past has driven her to loan after loan, on harder and harder terms, until now it is credibly reported that she can borrow no more, and that there is grave donbt if the interest on her former loans will be punctually paid. Yet Marshal Blanco's demands from Cuba are urgent in the extreme. He requires $8,000,000 a month for war expenses. He asks also for $4,000,000 a month on account of arrears due the army, navy, civil servants, pensioners, and contractors. These arrears amount to $80,000,000.

There can be no question that Spain is financially embarrassed. In an annual budget of $150,000,000 to $160,000,000, interest on Spanish debts absorbs nearly $65,000,000. This is an alarming state of affairs. Then there is the war debt piling up every day. How is that to be taken care of, even supposing the war to end speedily? Ruined Cuba cannot for years at least pay even as much as she was paying before; and the added indebtedness incurred on Cuban account must amount to $300,000,000. How to provide for this, how to apportion the shares of Spain and of Cuba, is so tough a problem that no attempt was made to solve it in the new scheme of Cuban autonomy. The difficulty was met by adjourning it to some indefinite time in the future.

These facts about the political and financial situation of Spain should delude nobody into thinking that Spain will not fight if forced to. In fact, the more desperate the plight of a nation, the more likely it is that she will fight. She has nothing to lose. Indeed, it may be plausibly maintained that Spain has much to gain, even by going into a war where she would know herself predestined to be beaten. The Cuban indebtedness is variously estimated at from $400,000,000 to $500,000,000. This debt, if Spain were to lose Cuba by war, she would undoubtedly repudiate, or scale to a vanishing minimum. There is her great money stake even in a losing contest. She would have, besides, the powerful motive of mantaining her ancient proud bearing, of yielding only to a nation of five times her population and twenty times her resources, instead of to a handful of rebels, and of demonstrating that Spanish pride and spirit remain unbroken if beaten.

Senator Sumner, when spoken to by "Bull Run" Russell about the possibility of the South taking up arms, was contemptuously incredulous. "Never!" he exclaimed. "They are too crafty. Bullies! Braggarts! They would be assassins, some of them, if they dared—but fair fight, never!" We hear no little magnificent scorning of the Spaniards in just that vein, and it is as lamentably mistaken. The Spanish people are as patriotic a race as ever lived. The impulse of a splendid past is still upon them. Traditions of national valor, dating from a time when their infantry swept Europe and their navies drove the dreaded Turk from the Mediterranean, are a part of their life-blood. Threatened bankruptcy, certain defeat in the long run, will not for a moment deter that proud nation from fighting for its honor. It was a Spanish paper, the *Imparcial*, which said defiantly some months ago that a bankrupt nation might still be a fighting nation. We must not deceive ourselves on this point. Spain is no doubt anxious for peace. She will no doubt make every concession to us or to the Cubans compatible with her dignity and honor as a nation. But if driven into a corner she will unquestionably fight.

A NEW KIND OF PRIMARY.

The bill which the advocates of honest primaries in this city have prepared and sent to Albany is a decidedly revolutionary measure. It does away entirely with the old style of primary, so far as the great political parties are concerned, and substitutes in its place an election under control of State officials and at the expense of the State. It proposes to take away the control of the primaries from the political organizations almost as completely as the new ballot system has taken from them the control of elections. Instead of being, as at present, subject to no law except the will of the boss, primaries will be held under legal regulations closely resembling those which apply to our elections; and the boss and his Boys will be deprived of all those privileges which at present make the primaries the centre of their activities and the chief seat of their power, for both the enrolment of voters and the balloting at primary elections will be removed from their control.

The bill proposes to put the primary elections of all parties in cities of the first and second class under a primary law. It provides that any voter, on any of the four days set apart for registration preceding an election, shall be given an opportunity to enroll himself as a member of a political organization. After he has registered his name as a voter, he will be asked by the registration officials if he wishes to enroll for the purpose of participating in a primary election. In case he does he will name the political party with which he expects to act, and his name will be placed upon its rolls. In case his right to enroll with a party is challenged, he must sign a declaration or answer certain questions to show that he is in general sympathy with the principles of the party which he has named, and that his present intention is to vote with it at the ensuing election. The declaration is in the most liberal terms, and affords ample opportunity for any voter, who wishes to have political affiliations, to ally himself with one party or another. In case a voter who, for any reason, has failed to enroll himself during the four days of registration, desires to do so, he can do so subsequently at any time, except the period of thirty days immediately preceding the official primary days, by filing with the proper custodian of the rolls a written statement embodying the declaration required, in case of challenge, on regular registration days.

All voters, enrolled in either manner, are entitled to take part in the official primary elections which are to be held on what will be known as primary day, which is to be the seventh Tuesday before the general election. This would place it early in September. When delegates to State conventions are to be chosen, an additional primary day is fixed on the Tuesday following the first Monday in June. The elections on primary day are to be conducted in much the same way as regular elections. They are to be in charge of the regular election inspectors, and the members of all parties are to vote in the same room. The polls are to be open throughout the day, so that there will be no meeting at any particular time. Official ballots are not required, but all ballots are to be of a prescribed size and shape, and each party is to have an easily distinguishable color. Each voter is required to prepare his ballot in a booth, to fold it in such a way as not to reveal its names, and to deposit it in the box set apart for the ballots of the political party to which he belongs. The conduct of the elections is to be in all important respects like that required at regular elections, which includes, we infer from the text of the bill, the keeping away from the polls of all electioneering and bulldozing persons, or those whose chief

business in politics has been the running of primaries. The vote is to be counted under the same conditions as at regular elections, with watchers in behalf of the parties and candidates, and announced officially when the result is reached.

The bill also provides for revision by the courts of all the proceedings taken under it, and gives the Supreme Court summary jurisdiction, upon complaint of any citizen, as to the neglect or misconduct of any official acting under it. Violation of the act is made a misdemeanor, punishable by a fine of not less than $100 nor more than $1,000, or by imprisonment of not less than three months nor more than one year, or by both fine and imprisonment. Political parties which polled less than 10,000 votes at the last preceding election are exempt from the law in so far that they are permitted to hold unofficial primaries, subject to certain regulations.

These are the main features of the bill; we have given only an outline of its general provisions. There are matters of detail which are of more interest to politicians than to the general public. The great advantages of the bill are, first, that it abolishes the old primary utterly in abolishing a meeting of any kind; second, that it insures publicity for the rolls of all parties, which are to be open at all times for inspection, and published in the same manner as the registration lists are; third, that by giving all voters an opportunity to enroll on the day upon which they register, thus putting the question before them at a time when it is most likely to receive favorable consideration, and not requiring special effort on their part, like going out in the evening to some unknown place, the chances for obtaining a large enrolment are greatly increased; fourth, that by having an entire day devoted to primary voting, the hours extending from eight A. M. to eight P. M., and having all the danger of a conflict with the Boys removed, the average citizen will be far more likely to attend to his primary duties than he has been heretofore.

The measure may not be a perfect one. It is entirely possible that it has defects which might enable the bosses and their men, in case they allow it to become a law, to "beat" it, and use it for their own purposes. But, admitting all this, it is an experiment in the right direction, and a trial of it would furnish a very interesting study. It would serve as a test of the disposition of the average citizen to bear his part in this branch of the business of government.

FRENCH CRIMINAL PROCEDURE.

A good deal of astonishment and some laughter have been excited by the Zola trial in Paris, and a large number of Frenchmen have been annoyed by the general disposition of the Anglo-Saxon world—that is, the public of America and England—to sympathize with Zola, and condemn or ridicule the procedure under which he has been convicted. This is not unnatural. We probably do not completely understand French feeling in the matter; but it is plain, on the other hand, that many excellent Frenchmen do not understand ours. A little explanation, therefore, may do good.

In the first place, there is no use in trying to justify to an American or Englishman a secret proceeding, by which a man is deprived of life, liberty, property, or reputation. A large number of officers of high standing pledged their word of honor in Paris that Dreyfus had been properly convicted and was guilty. One general asked leave to address a few remarks on this subject to the jury before he gave his testimony. We are asked, in short, to believe that Dreyfus is guilty because so many men of high character say so. Here is where the Anglo-American and the French public first part company. If in America or in England all the clergy and all the citizens of highest repute were to come forward and offer to swear that a man who had been secretly tried and convicted deserved his fate, they would be received, as the French generals have been received here, with shouts of laughter. The reason is that for two centuries, in Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence, a "fair trial" has meant a public trial, and the submission to the public, in the presence of the prisoner, of all the proofs against him. At least two hundred years have passed since it was possible among English-speaking men "to go upon, or send upon" any one, to use the words of Magna Charta, upon evidence not produced in a court open to the public, or for any "reasons of state." Therefore, there is for us no getting over the secrecy of Dreyfus's trial. No certificate of fairness from any one, were it the Pope of Rome, will satisfy the public that a man was lawfully ruined or executed if he was tried in secret. An offer of one by anybody sounds to us like a joke.

In the next place, we are startled by the fact that the French not only have no "rules of evidence" like ours, but have none at all. A trial like Zola's, therefore, without rules of evidence strikes us as comic. Here is Fitzjames Stephen's account of the difference in the matter of evidence between the French system and ours:

> "These leading rules, though qualified by important exceptions, are rigidly enforced in practice, and their enforcement gives to English trials that solid character which is their special characteristic. They seem to be quite unknown in French procedure. Witnesses say what they please and must not be interrupted, and masses of irrelevant, and often malicious, hearsay, which would never be admitted into an English court at all, are allowed to go before French juries and prejudice their feelings. The old rules of evidence, which were in use before the Revolution, and were drawn from the middle-age version of the Roman law, were exceedingly technical and essentially foolish. They were accordingly abolished absolutely, and nothing was put in their place, The essentially scientific though superficially technical rules of evidence which give their whole color to English trials, and which grew up silently and very gradually in our courts, seem to me to be just what is wanted to bring French trials into a satisfactory shape; but the evils of the old system were so strongly impressed on the authors of the 'Code d'Instruction Criminelle' that destruction was the only policy which presented itself to their minds." ('History of Criminal Law,' vol. i., p. 548.)

In fact, the investigation in a French criminal trial is carried on just as investigations are carried on in private life. If a private individual wants to form an opinion as to whether somebody, say in his own household, has done something, he gets information in any way he can from any quarter whatever. Hearsay, circumstantial evidence, the talk of interested persons, the gabble of children, are all collected by him, and on it all he forms his own theory of probability. Half of it would probably be rejected in a legal proceeding in our courts, but this is the way in which most men regulate their own conduct of life and carry on their own business. The French carry it into their legal proceedings for want of anything better. The *dossier*, which is made up by the *juge d'instruction*, about a prisoner when he is first apprehended, is very like the "story" which, with us, would be collected by a newspaper reporter. Everything that he can get hold of, good, bad, or indifferent, likely or unlikely, is tossed into the basket, and the prisoner is harassed by cross-examination on it by the judge. The consequence is that a French trial never seems to us fair or serious. The evidence of the generals in Zola's trial about the propriety of Dreyfus's conviction sounds like a comedy.

Moreover—and this is the worst of it—the popular excitement which has attended the trial about "the honor of the army" and about the Jews, reminds us here painfully of some of the great judicial tragedies of French history. We think of other cases in which French courts were undeniably influenced by popular clamor. It was the clamor of the Catholic populace which led the Parlement of Toulouse to convict poor old Calas of the murder of his son, although this populace was in the habit of celebrating the massacre of St. Bartholomew as a public festival. There was neither evidence nor a shade of probability against Calas. But the Parlement, of more than twelve judges, took the popular view, summoned all sorts of witnesses who shared it, extracted Calas's guilt from them by leading questions, broke the old man on the wheel, and expected his confessions under torture to furnish evidence to convict his sons and wife. When this failed them, they were compelled to discharge them, and when, under Voltaire's whip of scorpions, they were compelled to re-

verse their finding, and do what could be done to rehabilitate the afflicted family, one of the arguments against this scanty justice was that to reverse was to acknowledge mistake, and this would injure the prestige of the court.

The fate of the Chevalier de Labarre, a youth who was "roué" on evidence that would convulse one of our public schools, was a similar scandal. He was convicted of "irreverence" and "blasphemy" under popular and ecclesiastical clamor. In both these cases the courts convicted an innocent man mainly to safeguard some great public interest, which happened in both these cases to be what was called "religion." Remembering these things, and others like them, our public naturally asks whether this clamor against the Jews and frantic concern about the "honor of the army" has not led to the sacrifice of an innocent man. It asks this question, and nothing but ample publicity will appease its suspicions.

Let us say finally that the French procedure is simply the old English procedure. The trials of Throckmorton, of the Duke of Norfolk, and of Raleigh in the sixteenth century, were very much what goes on in a French court to-day. The judges, the Attorney-General, and the prisoner all "went for each other" as fiercely as they could, and with as little regard for rules. Most people remember the savage way in which Coke treated Raleigh. It was not till after the Revolution of 1688 that English criminal procedure became marked by the present order and decency, and that the presumption of innocence on the part of accused persons secured a lodgment in our jurisprudence. Stephen ascribes this to the growing strength of the Government, which gradually became so great that it became easy to be indulgent towards prisoners and captives. Whether this theory be correct or not, it would go some way to account for the continuance down to our day of the French presumption that an accused man is probably guilty. Ever since the Revolution, no French government has been sufficiently strong to give any indulgence to accused persons. The interests of the State seem to require that indicted men should be found guilty. And so deeply has this theory entered into the public mind that when "justice" gets hold of a man, there is little sympathy for him. His wrongs do not touch the popular imagination, and the judge and the procureur are allowed to harass him without mercy. The supposition that he is being sacrificed to protect some body or person in authority, does not rouse popular indignation.

M. RENÉ DOUMIC.

PARIS, February 15, 1898.

At the end of this week Prof. René Doumic sails from Havre for New York in order to inaugurate at the Cercle Français of Harvard University the lectureship on French literature recently established by Mr. J. H. Hyde of the senior class. As M. Doumic's name is comparatively new in the French world of letters (even the latest edition of Vapereau contains no mention of him), some account of him and his work will probably be welcomed in American university centres where he is about to appear—Yale, Columbia, Chicago, probably Cornell and other institutions, besides Harvard, will listen to him—and where I predict he will excite much admiration.

I begin, therefore, with what does not exist—a brief and strictly biographical notice of M. Doumic, including a list of his published books. René Doumic was born in Paris on March 7, 1860, so that he is not yet thirty-eight years old, and belongs himself to "les Jeunes" whom he celebrates in one of his latest volumes. He was educated at the Condorcet Lycée, perhaps the best of the Paris secondary schools. He has always been a hard and brilliant student, for he was graduated *licencié-ès-lettres* in April, 1879, with the highest honors, was first at the examination held in the same year for entrance into the Superior Normal School, and was again ranked first at the *agrégation* examinations of 1882. From 1882 to 1890 he taught literature in the lycées of the provinces and Paris, but has been on leave of absence since the last-mentioned year. In 1887 M. Doumic began to contribute to the newspapers and periodicals, in which year he was made dramatic critic of the venerable daily, the *Moniteur Universel*, continuing to fill this post till 1894. In the meantime he wrote for that highly respectable but ultra-conservative bi-monthly the *Correspondant*, and that once important weekly, the *Revue Bleue*. In 1892 he formed a connection with the quondam famous *Journal des Débats*, where he has ever since published literary *chroniques* and critical articles. It was in August, 1893, that M. Doumic made his first appearance in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, where, during 1894 and 1895, he had charge of the department of dramatic criticism, and where he has, since the last date, conducted, with so much authority, the *chronique littéraire*, succeeding, in this department, M. Brunetière. In 1896 M. Doumic was created a chevalier of the Legion of Honor in recognition of his literary merits.

M. Doumic's first volume was a schoolbook, 'Histoire de la Littérature Française,' and it has been followed each year by one or two volumes, until the series has attained the respectable number of eight, all of which have to do with literature or men of letters. The list is as follows: 'Portraits d'Écrivains' (1892), 'De Scribe à Ibsen' (1893), 'Écrivains d'Aujourd'hui' (1894), 'Les Jeunes' (1895), 'La Vie et les Mœurs au Jour le Jour' (1895), Études sur la Littérature Française, Première Série' (1896), 'Essais sur le Théâtre Contemporain' (1896), 'Études sur la Littérature Française, Deuxième Série' (1897). Nor are there any signs of M. Doumic's literary fecundity becoming exhausted. On the contrary, it is evident that even greater and better things are sure to come from his pen. He is even now engaged in writing the chapters on the drama in the nineteenth century for Petit de Julleville's 'Histoire de la Littérature Française,' a monumental work which has already been mentioned several times in your columns. For Hachette's series of the "Grands Écrivains Français," M. Doumic is to prepare the volume on Lamartine. And finally, these Harvard lectures, which M. Doumic has only just completed, are to form part of a work not yet finished, to be entitled 'Mouvement Intellectuel en France au XIXe Siècle.'

The Harvard lectures are devoted to French Romanticism. The first is of a general nature, a seeking after the origin of Romanticism, an attempt to define it and to mark the different stages of its development. Then will come three lectures on lyricism—on Lamartine and Alfred de Vigny studied only in their lyric poetry; on Victor Hugo's work prior to 1840, the date at which M. Doumic fixes the limit of Romanticism; and on Sainte-Beuve's poetry and that of Alfred de Musset. The drama of Romanticism will occupy two lectures, in which M. Doumic will deal briefly with the theories of the Romanticists concerning the stage and what they pretend to have borrowed from foreign dramatic writers. He will characterize the plays of Victor Hugo, will dwell briefly on those of the Elder Dumas and of Alfred de Vigny, and will enter more at length into an examination of the plays and proverbs of De Musset. Another lecture will be given up to a consideration of the *romans de passion* personified in George Sand, and still another to history, beginning with Augustin Thierry and ending with Michelet. In his final lecture, M. Doumic will give in full and in order his own views and conclusions concerning the whole subject of French Romanticism.

What these opinions will be it is not very difficult to divine, for, scattered through M. Doumic's published writings, is more than one dictum on this subject. In his study of the elder Dumas in 'De Scribe à Ibsen,' to give but one example out of many, we find him saying: "One of the dogmas dear to Romanticism teaches us that the requirements of art are incompatible with the conditions of a regular life. . . . But this theory is erroneous," he goes on to add, and then makes a vigorous thrust at all Bohemia. These two devices, so often attributed to Romanticism, "Le beau c'est le laid," and "L'extravagant vaut mieux que le plat," find no refuge in M. Doumic's mind, where order, beauty, and high morality rule supreme. It is safe to say, therefore, that he will not be an unqualified eulogist of French Romanticism, but, while admiring its many fine qualities, will ruthlessly condemn its faults, ridicule its extravagances, and even sometimes anathematize its fuglemen.

But not the least admirable feature of M. Doumic's performance will be its oratorical quality. That there will be good and high thinking in what he says cannot be doubted. His printed books and the success which has accompanied him both as a student and as a teacher, put this beyond question. When, in addition, he may be pronounced in several essential particulars a real orator, the treat which awaits his hearers will be seen to be no ordinary one. It is true that his thin, highly pitched voice may be against him, for it probably will not carry to the rear of our public halls or large college lecture-rooms, especially as he is accustomed to speak in the Lilliputian La Bodinière and Salle des Mathurins. Nor will his gestures contribute to his success as a lecturer. Seated in his chair, he keeps continually bending forward and backward, marking the end of every phrase, almost every word in fact, with a short, awkward little movement of the forearm and hand, which is rendered the more

stiff and ungraceful by his keeping the elbow pinned tightly to his side. This action goes on for five or ten minutes with the right arm, varied now and then with a more ample gesture with the two arms, and then the left forearm and hand go through the same motion while the weary member rests. The most expressive part of this act is in the fingers, which are all brought together at the end of the thumb, against which they are pressed more or less firmly, in order to give greater or minor emphasis to the speaker's words. But it is the excellent choice of these words, the brilliancy with which they are marshalled, the clearness and pointedness of the statement, the humor of the expression, and the occasional bursts of passionate eloquence (which strike with all the more force because they come from a rather cold exterior), that cause the hearer to overlook and even forget these shortcomings of voice and gesture. Then, too, M. Doumic's enunciation is very distinct and measured. He speaks slowly most of the time, so that even ears not much accustomed to the French language will be able to catch almost all that he says. When, however, he works himself up to a pitch, the words flow very rapidly, and then it is that many of his American listeners will have to content themselves, I fear, with his oratory rather than with his thoughts and language.

M. Doumic's tendency to indulge in humor, wit, irony, is pronounced. His lectures are thickly besprinkled with these turns, as are his books, whereas his conversation, curiously enough, is almost free from them—is, in fact, so sober as to be almost solemn. 'La Vie et les Mœurs,' for example, is one series of amusing and clever skits. But perhaps the chief reason why M. Doumic's lectures are so enjoyable lies in the fact that they are neither read from a manuscript nor committed to memory; memorizing, as he once remarked to me, "gives to the word something that is cold and without accent." He has two ways of proceeding. When he has to treat a question of the hour, a modern literary subject, M. Doumic writes his lecture in full in order to bring out clearly his ideas for his own edification, and he then delivers it on these same lines, reproducing the order and substance of the manuscript, but without confining himself to the exact penned words. When, however, he speaks on classical themes, with which he has become very familiar through teaching them for the past fifteen years, M. Doumic does not write out his lecture, but provides himself only with a few notes on a slip of paper, and trusts to improvisation for the rest. This is his constant practice in the classroom. In both cases he avoids as much as possible any reference to manuscript or paper, "always striving to keep in direct communication with the audience"—as he expresses it, "eyes looking into eyes."

M. Doumic, in his American tour, will reap considerable advantage from M. Brunetière's visit to our universities last year, for the latter has, in many respects, prepared the way for him. M. Doumic not only belongs to the same critical school* as M. Brunetière and resembles him in many respects, but has come forward into the literary arena under his protection and guidance. It is not rash to predict that when M. Doumic is received into the French Academy, as he surely will be in the not distant future, the editor of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* will be one of his "parrains." In fact, M. Doumic does not try to disown this high patronage. On the contrary, he appears ever ready to acknowledge it publicly and to show that he is even proud of it. Thus, the dedication of the first series of his 'Études sur la Littérature Française' is addressed to "My dear master"—that is, M. Brunetière—and runs as follows:

"In begging you to accept this dedication, I but recognize a debt, for it was you who, by calling me to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, offered me the occasion to write these essays. But besides this I have always drawn largely on your advice, your ideas, your works. These essays owe much to you. It is a pleasure as well as a duty for me to make this statement. I am happy to offer you this proof, feeble though it be, of my respect, my devotion, and my profound gratitude."

Like M. Brunetière, M. Doumic is opposed to schoolboy athletics (see his amusing skit, "Nouvelle Sorbonne," in 'La Vie et les Mœurs'). But Brunetière's influence, or, if you prefer it, the resemblance between the two minds, comes out strongest in M. Doumic's distaste for Zola and Zolaism, for this author's works and his methods. In the volume just cited is an excellent bit of ironical writing which dwells on the Barnum side of Zola's character, "whose art consists in making something out of nothing." Doumic is, again, a disciple of Brunetière in holding that eloquence has its part in the teaching of literature. In his essay already cited on Brunetière, M. Doumic praises him for having "restored to literary instruction a singularly discredited element — eloquence." That M. Brunetière practises what he preaches you had a good opportunity last year of confirming, and that M. Doumic follows in his footsteps in this matter has already been shown in this letter; and my opinion, I feel sure, will also be shared in a few weeks by the American university public.

"There exists a sort of hollow declamation," M. Doumic says in the essay just named, "made up of oratorical movements and bombastic phrases, by means of which some professors and many lecturers have succeeded in so disgusting studious listeners that they have forced them to prefer even impoverished dryness. But can any one believe that the grand university lectures which made the first half of this century famous would have produced such a deep impression on the public mind if Villemain, Guizot, Michelet, and the rest had contented themselves with a simple *exposé* of facts, without binding these facts together and without expressing their own opinion concerning them? To bear in mind not simply that what one says is of interest to those in search of mere instruction, but that it is also linked with the general welfare of humanity, and to express these truths with inward feeling based on patient study and carefully reasoned conviction—this is quite the contrary of mere declamation: it is eloquence."

Perhaps I may add in closing, that M. René Doumic will be accompanied in his American tour by his brother, M. Max Doumic, a well-known Government architect, who has undertaken a mission from the Minister of Fine Arts to study the architectural movement in the United States, and especially the installation of our libraries. M. Max Doumic, I may further say, received his first medal at the Salon of 1894, is the only French architect who has won the Salon recompense known as the Prix de Paris, and is occupied at this moment in executing some restorations for the city of Douai.

THEODORE STANTON.

*Here is M. Doumic's definition of criticism: "Criticism is not a science and it cannot become one. Between the object which criticism has in view and the object of all the sciences there exist fundamental differences which it would be exceedingly dangerous not to recognize. Science is general. The powers of science stop where the individual commences. Now, literary history has to do with the great writers, men of genius, for the very purpose of determining what there is in them that is individual and therefore irreducible. . . . You may compare a literary work to a plant, but it must not be forgotten that this is only a comparison, and that criticism is not natural history nor any other science. It is essentially an art." It is to be noted that this extract is from the essay on M. Brunetière in Doumic's 'Écrivains d'Aujourd'hui.' This same view will be found more than once in Brunetière's works, and especially in his 'Questions de Critique' and 'Nouvelles Questions de Critique.'

ENGLISH LITERATURE IN THE ENGLISH UNIVERSITIES.

LONDON, January, 1898.

The attempt to teach English, and especially English literature, as a separate subject is a comparatively new thing among the universities everywhere. That this attempt should be newer in England itself than elsewhere seems paradoxical enough, but it is a fact perfectly explicable from the traditions of English education and the ancient and ingrained conservatism of the older English universities. Changes, however, are rapidly coming on, even at Oxford and Cambridge, and the national literature, if not yet completely taught, has attained at Oxford at least recognition as a fit subject for examination, and thus, by implication if not otherwise, for teaching also.

Naturally it has long seemed an anomaly that of the hundreds of American students who annually go abroad to carry on advanced study in the English language and literature (the greater number of them in the German universities), so small a proportion should resort to England and the English universities. It is not surprising, perhaps, that Germany should attract the students of Germanics and Linguistics, but, with the recent widespread and rapid development of the college study of literature considered in its critical, æsthetic, and historical aspects, it is surely to be wished that the sounder traditions of English æsthetic feeling in matters of literature and the less scholastic tone of English literary criticism should be brought to bear and made operative in a school of literature in one or more of the English universities, where, among other things, especial provision should be made for the resort of foreign students who are seeking to study the literature of England in the land of its origin. I say that this is to be wished; but I suppose that, as a matter of fact, with the addition of a professor of English literature and some two or three assistants to render effective in actual instruction a plan which now exists, for all except Old and Middle English topics, chiefly on paper, the new Honour School of English Language and Literature at Oxford would come near to providing the opportunities desired. But Oxford now, as always, is in favor of making haste slowly, and a certain insular and reactionary element there opposes and retards the progress of the reformers. Cambridge would probably be found more well-disposed to the new ideas, but Cambridge lacks the means requisite for the carrying out of such considerable changes and additions as such reforms involve. Meanwhile, it is within the range of future possibilities that the new London teaching university, whose present establishment, in one form or another, seems to be practically assured, may take the lead of both Oxford and Cambridge in the new studies, and ultimately make London one of the world's

centres for advanced study in English as in other branches. Certainly the policy of the present university (with its affiliated institutions), while holding, with English insistence, to the overweighted examination system, has in other respects been generally the most liberal and progressive of all.

Outside of the older universities, among the numerous English colleges of recent foundation and in the Scotch universities, English studies are rapidly growing; and, while the number of courses and the amount of class instruction in English literature since Chaucer, except that which is of a comparatively elementary nature, seem to be still rather limited—the primary emphasis still being laid on the intensive curriculum and on the final tests by examination to which everything in English education is subordinated—it should be noted that these studies are based on a safe if somewhat obsolete educational tradition, and that a body of competent teachers, animated with progressive ideas, has these studies in charge. Moreover, the definite limitation of the curriculum, while lessening the stimulus to highly specialized research afforded by the more flexible and more ambitious courses in many German and some American universities, has the compensating advantage of leaving the teacher free, after once his routine is mastered, for independent and unfettered critical and productive work. Such work, of highly respectable quality and quantity, we are already beginning to receive from this class of English scholars.

The soul of a college is in its teachers, and the status and progress of recent English college work dealing with English subjects perhaps cannot be better exhibited than in the following list* of college instructors in English in Great Britain, most of whose names, attached to the title-pages of recent publications as authors or editors, are already known to American readers. The list exhibits fairly the comparative strength of the departments of English of the several colleges and universities concerned. (I have not attempted to account for any of the colleges for the teaching of women.)

OXFORD:
A. S. Napier, Merton Professor of English Philology.
John Earle, Rawlinsonian Professor of Anglo-Saxon.
W. J. Courthope, Professor of Poetry.
Jos. Wright, Deputy Professor of Comparative Philology.
E. de Sélincourt (University College), Lecturer in English Literature.
Rev. H. C. Beeching, Lecturer in English Literature.

CAMBRIDGE:
Rev. W. W. Skeat, Professor of Anglo-Saxon.
I Gollancz, University Lecturer in English.
Prof. E. Dowden (Trinity College), Clark Lecturer in English Literature.
Rev. J. H. Gray (Queens College), Lecturer in English Literature.
A. J. Wyatt (Christ's College), "Recognized Lecturer."

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON:
J. W. Hales, I. Gollancz, } Examiners in English Language, Literature, and History.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON:
W. P. Ker, Professor of English Philology.
T. Gregory Foster, Lecturer in English Language and Literature.

KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON:
J. W. Hales, Professor of English Philology.
C. D. Webb, Professor of English Philology.

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY:
(1.) *Owens College, Manchester.*
A. W. Ward, Principal.
T. N. Toller, Professor of the English Language.
Oliver Elton, Lecturer in English Literature.
(2.) *University College, Liverpool.*
Walter Raleigh, Professor of Modern Literature and the English Language.
R. Priebsch, Lecturer in the English Language.
(3.) *Yorkshire College, Leeds.*
A. J. Grant, Professor of Modern History and English Literature and Language.

MASON UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, BIRMINGHAM:
W. M. Dixon, Professor of English Language and Literature.
W. A. Brockington, Assistant Lecturer in the English Language and Literature.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, SHEFFIELD:
G. C. Moore Smith, Professor of English Language and Literature.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, BRISTOL:
Jas. Rowley, Professor of Modern History and English Literature.
C. Ord, Lecturer in Modern History, English Literature, and German.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, NOTTINGHAM:
J. E. Symes, Professor of History, Literature, and Political Economy.
F. E. Bumby, Professor of Anglo-Saxon and Middle English.

DURHAM COLLEGE OF SCIENCE, NEWCASTLE UPON-TYNE:
J. W. Duff, Professor of Literature.

RUTHERFORD COLLEGE, NEWCASTLE-UPON-TYNE:
J. Greenfield, C. Menmuir, } Classics and English.

UNIVERSITY OF WALES:
(1.) *University College of Wales, Aberystwyth.*
C. H. Herford, Professor of English Philology.
F. W. Moorman, Assistant Lecturer in English (until recently).
(2.) *University College of Wales, Bangor.*
W. L. Jones, Professor of English Language and Literature.
(3.) *University College of Wales, Cardiff.*
C. E. Vaughan, Professor of English Language, Literature, and History.
(4.) *St. David's College, Lampeter, Wales.*
Hugh Walker, Professor of English and Philosophy.

UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH:
George Saintsbury, Professor of Rhetoric and English Literature.
G. G. Smith, Lecturer in English.
S. A. Robertson, Examiner in English.

UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW:
Andrew C. Bradley, Professor of English Language and Literature.
Robt. Adamson, Professor of Logic and Rhetoric.
D. H. Crawford, Assistant in English.

UNIVERSITY OF ABERDEEN:
H. J. C. Grierson, Professor of English Language and Literature.
C. I. Beattie, Lecturer in English.
J. H. Lobban, Examiner in English.

UNIVERSITY OF ST. ANDREWS:
W. S. McCormick, Lecturer in English.
(Wm. Knight, Professor of Moral Philosophy).

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, DUNDEE:
W. S. McCormick, Professor of English Language and Literature.
R. K. Hannay, Lecturer in English Language and Literature.

THE ROYAL UNIVERSITY OF IRELAND, DUBLIN (Examining University):
Thos. Arnold, Jos. Darlington, S. J. MacMullan, Geo. F. Armstrong, Mary T. Hayden, } Fellow, English Language and Literature.

THE QUEEN'S UNIVERSITY OF IRELAND:
(1.) *Queen's College, Belfast.*
S. J. MacMullan, Professor of History and English Literature.
(2.) *Queen's College, Cork.*
G. F Savage-Armstrong, Professor of History and English Literature.
(3.) *Queen's College, Galway.*
Sir Thos. Moffett, Professor of History, English Literature and Mental Science.

THE UNIVERSITY OF DUBLIN:
Edward Dowden, Professor of Oratory and English Literature.

Leaving out of account the more independent curricula of the Scottish and Irish universities and a few sporadic cases in England, there are two well-defined types of curricula in English in these institutions. There are, first, the courses in those colleges which aim to fit for the examinations of the University of London. The requirements of the University of Wales offer some modifications of the London scheme, but the two curricula are essentially similar. Most of the recently founded "University Colleges" in England offer the London type. The second type is that of Oxford, adopted also by several of the smaller colleges affiliated with Oxford. The courses designed to meet the present requirements of the London examinations, in the Pass and Honor schools, generally cover the following ground: Anglo-Saxon Grammar and Reader; Chaucer's "Man of Lawes Tale"; usually four courses in the "History of English Literature" divided into periods, viz., 1558-1603, 1603-1625, 1625-1660, 1660-1689, in which the books especially examined upon are the following: Spenser's 'Shepherd's Calendar' and the 'Faerie Queene,' Book I., Shakspere's "King John," "Tempest," "King Lear," and "Hamlet," Lamb's 'Specimens of the Elizabethan Dramatists,' Bacon's 'Essays,' Milton's "Comus," "L'Allegro," "Il Penseroso," "Lycidas," and 'Areopagitica,' Browne's 'Religio Medici,' and portions of Ward's 'English Poets.' In other years other periods and texts are chosen. English history and literature are generally combined in the same courses. Preliminary to this work are courses preparing for the "Matriculation Examinations" in the History of the English Language, the Principles of English Rhetoric and Grammar, and the study of selected modern authors.

The Oxford scheme, now in effect as an examination system (the first set of examinations has already been held), is much more comprehensive and thoroughgoing than any other, and, barring what seem to an outsider to be two radical defects, should be of a sort to attract the foreign student—if, indeed, Oxford desires the foreign student.* These defects are, first, the fact, already mentioned, that the scheme is as yet largely a scheme on paper; and, secondly, the inordinate emphasis put upon the examinations. To most English educators it is accepted as axiomatic that the examination is the test and crown of a curriculum, to the point almost that examination even more than instruction is held to be the primary function of a university. American students looking towards England should bear in mind that this fact is always to be reckoned with. The Oxford scheme, it will be remembered, involves the following points: first of all, the study, tested by examinations, of three main topics required of all candidates, followed by or together with a special subject similarly tested for more advanced, detailed, and original study, selected as a general rule from a list of some fourteen suggested subjects (*e. g.*, "Italian literature as influencing English literature down to the death of Milton"). The three main topics are: (I) Por-

*Compiled from 'Minerva, Jahrbuch der gelehrten Welt,' 1898, and from 'Whitaker's Almanac,' 1898, and revised from the calendars or circulars of the institutions mentioned.

*On the regulations and provisions for advanced studies at the two English universities, see 'The Student's Handbook to the University and Colleges of Oxford' (The Clarendon Press, 1895), ch. xi., "Special Study and Research"; and MacAlister, 'Advanced Study and Research in the University of Cambridge' (The University Press, Cambridge, 1896).

tions of English Authors ("set books") from 'Beowulf' to Shelley's "Adonais"—perhaps some thirty-five or forty texts, "to be studied (1) with reference to the forms of the language; (2) as examples of literature; and (3) in their relation to the history and thought of the period to which they belong"; (II) the History of the English Language (including Gothic); and (III) the History of English Literature, including "the History of Criticism and of style in prose and verse." But as a stricter safeguard, perhaps, than any other against easy-going "modern" methods, and "with the object of connecting ancient and modern literature," "it is provided that no one may be admitted to the English Honor School unless he has either obtained Honors in some other Final Honor School or has satisfied or obtained Honors from the Moderators in Greek and Latin Literature." The Board of Studies and the Examiners are charged with the duty of seeing that, in the first three main topics, "as far as possible equal weight is given to language and literature"; in his "special" subject the candidate may as he chooses concern himself with the language, or with literature, or with both.

I note in passing that to the Board of Studies is assigned the curious but important task "to name periods of the history of English literature, and to fix their limits." The periods thus named (or rather *not* named in five cases out of eight), with limits somewhat arbitrarily fixed, are as follows: to 1150; 1150-1400; 1400-1558; 1558-1637; 1637-1700; 1700-1745; 1745-1797; 1797-1850. I notice, also, that at Oxford, as in England generally, greater weight and attention are accorded to the literature of the Restoration and neo-classical periods than critical opinion in America generally is willing to grant to it. Those portions of the last Oxford examinations, as well as those in the Cambridge Mediæval and Modern Language Tripos* which bear upon English literature, seem to me to be thoroughly sound and at the same time "literary" in substance and spirit.

The point in which the English universities all unite is that the study of English literature shall not be dissociated from that of either English philology and linguistics or that of the other great European literatures. The English tradition, moreover, holds firmly to the historical spirit. Nowhere else, perhaps, are the texts themselves studied with more minute thoroughness, yet at the same time the literary and social history of the great literary periods is not slighted and depreciated, as has recently been the tendency with some American writers and in some American universities. A marked turn towards the study of comparative literature, as exemplified in the work of Profs. Herford, Ker, Dowden, and Saintsbury, is noticeable of late, rather, perhaps, outside of Oxford and Cambridge than in those centres. This tendency will perhaps before long get itself organized in actual university teaching.

In the new University Colleges throughout England, entrance examinations in English are generally required; and in the faculty of hardly any of them, however small, is there lacking a Professor or Lecturer in English. But the work of these colleges is generally of a comparatively elementary nature, and is more systematic and uniform than that of the American universities. Here, as in the older English universities, the study of English literature is still on too new and precarious a footing to permit of any welcome being accorded to the idea, which is here and there gaining ground in America, that this study should be made a cultural and coördinating study rather than primarily a disciplinary study. As things now are, the study of English literature must serve the same ends, be subject to the same tests, and compete point by point with other and older branches of study.

In the Scotch universities two interesting experiments in the study of English are being tried. At Edinburgh and at Glasgow honor degrees in English literature are now offered.* At Edinburgh the emphasis is put upon (1) "Rhetoric and the Principles of Literature," and (2) the History of English Literature, with especial attention to a selected period, including a list of set books. At Glasgow, besides the language and "British" History as subsidiary subjects, the General History of English Literature from 1350 is the main topic; involved with this topic is the study of a special period; so, too, three of the greater authors (chosen under certain limitations) are selected for special study and mastery.

To the advanced student, however, who knows methods, is capable of independent work, and can make his way amid the vast materials of the place, the British Museum, with its staff of experts and men of learning in every department, its unrivalled collections in English literature, and its hospitable and admirably organized system, is and will remain the great post-graduate university of England, and the Mecca for the American student who visits England with the aim of furthering his studies in English literature.

FREDERIC IVES CARPENTER.

*I am indebted to the kindness of Prof. A. S. Napier, who has done so much for the new School at Oxford, for a copy of the Oxford examination papers, and to that of Prof. J. W. Hales for a set of the Cambridge questions.

*So, too, at Owens College, Manchester, there is an interesting scheme of an Honor School in English, involving as prerequisite "a competent knowledge of Latin and of at least one modern language," and covering, in literature, such topics as follows: "(1) Specimens of English in its several stages, (2) Outlines of English Literature, (3) an Essay, (4) a Special Period of English Literature, with prescribed books, (5) an English Author or a selected subject from English Literature, (6) the History of Criticism, (7) a Dissertation on some subject selected by the candidate."

Correspondence.

THE PROPS OF YELLOW JOURNALISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Most of us who manage to preserve a little sanity in spite of the stench of the yellow journalism constantly in our nostrils, would feel a lively satisfaction if we might some day see, as predicted in the *Nation*, the readers of those sheets "arrested at the news-stands and locked up."

But are we to stop with locking up the readers, whose minds have fallen, little by little, victims to a morbid craving for sensation? How about the merchants who, by their advertisements, furnish the props for these rotten enterprises? Shall they go scot free who give money for missions and all good works out of one pocket and pay their thousands to these filthy newspapers out of the other? Nothing amazes me more than to see these advertisements cheek by jowl with the most execrable, abominable, shameful evidences of journalistic meanness, mendacity, and bad taste. The wealthy owner of a great "department store," who is also prominent in an evangelical congregation, and a good patron of the advertising columns of a paper which reeks with yellowness, justified this last, saying to me that when he advertised, he thought only whether or not such and such a medium reached the people most likely to purchase his wares. "I don't stand in my door," said he, "and assure myself of the morality of every shopper before letting her buy of me." Perhaps an equally confused idea of responsibility possesses the minds of the eminent men of letters whose contributions are seen in these papers, and the prominent clergymen, lawyers, and physicians who put their signatures to interviews with yellow reporters.

This good-natured yielding on the part of men of influence to the solicitations of the yellow journalists is one of the most discouraging signs in the whole miserable business.

WILLARD EMERSON KEYES.

BOSTON, February 24, 1898.

THE MAINE DISASTER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Even if it should be shown that the *Maine* was blown up by a Spanish mine or torpedo, that would not by any means prove that the crime was committed by Spanish hands. In fact, the probabilities would be the other way. The author of a crime is, almost always, the person who profits by it. Let us see what the Spaniards and the Cuban insurgents respectively would probably gain or lose by the destruction of the *Maine* by a Spanish torpedo or mine, supposing that such a crime was thereby fixed upon Spain:

CONSEQUENCES TO SPAIN.	CONSEQUENCES TO THE CUBAN INSURGENTS.
War with the United States, defeat, bloodshed, humiliation, financial ruin, revolution, anarchy, civil war, overthrow of reigning house and government. Loss of Cuba.	Independence of Cuba.

There is not the slightest doubt that there are in the Spanish army in Cuba hundreds of Cuban spies. It is probable that they have made it their business to ascertain the position of the mines and torpedoes in Havana harbor. Supposing that it was known to them that, by touching a certain button, Cuba could be freed. Is it not certain that a man (perhaps one in a hundred) would arise desperate enough to do it? He would probably reason, in his unbalanced mind, that the good to be gained for his country more than counterbalanced the evil of the act. The only argument against my view of the case is the difficulty of getting at the apparatus for firing the mine, and obstacles infinitely greater than this have been overcome again and again by conspirators; for instance, remember the explosion in the Winter Palace at St. Petersburg, where the space under the flooring of the dining-room was filled with explosives in the very abode of royalty and under the eyes of the royal guards.—Yours truly,

MAXWELL WILLIAMS.

CHICAGO, February 24, 1898.

[An army correspondent writes in a similar vein, as follows.—ED. NATION.]

"Should a torpedo have caused the ex-

plosion, it was a *Cuban* (not Spanish) missile, aimed at the *Alfonso*, which miscarried. It is incredible that the Spanish authorities could either have used or connived at the use of a Government torpedo. That would precipitate what they wish to avert—foreign war, besides the practical treachery involved. No unofficial Spaniard could have access to a torpedo or could manipulate it, any more than he could a ten-inch mortar or any other piece of ordnance. And although doubtless there are many Spaniards, civil and military, in Havana who would not be sorry to have the *Maine* destroyed, its destruction in that way would be impracticable.

"On the other hand, we know that the insurgents have been freely supplied with arms and ammunition, including dynamite, from the United States. They have been skirmishing on land within sight of Havana—on previous occasions—and undoubtedly there are adherents of their cause in that neighborhood. Now, it is perfectly possible for the Junta to procure in the United States or England an auto-mobile torpedo, of which there are several varieties, and it is presumed that such could be launched from the shore or from a small boat without insuperable difficulty. To destroy a Spanish man-of-war in the harbor would be a great stroke, and, in the absence of a Cuban navy, would be easier than to do so at sea. Very well, if a torpedo was used, either the ship itself was mistaken in the dark—the two seem to have been lying about 200 yards apart—or, while passing through the water, the torpedo was accidentally deflected, and struck the *Maine*."

"THE EFFECT OF AMERICAN ON ENGLISH POLITICS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his interesting, but, in some respects, inconclusive, article on this subject in the *Nation* of January 20, "An Observer" appears to me to lay somewhat undue stress upon the influence exercised by the experiments in municipal government in the United States upon municipal politics in this country. No doubt the recent mayoral election in New York has been followed with great interest here, and it would be absurd to suppose that we could learn nothing from it that would be of use to us in the conduct of local government in our great cities. But on the other hand, it would be affectation to pretend that the success of the one-man system of local government in America, if it does prove a success, will lead to any serious modification of the essential character of our own municipal institutions.

Of course, they are not perfect, but they have at least stood the test of sixty years' trial—for the main principles of the municipal corporations act of 1835 are still in operation—and in that period they have achieved results which the municipal reformer of New York or Philadelphia would give much to obtain. For the most part our large towns are governed with economy and efficiency, and though jobbery is sure to occur here and there, there is certainly none of that licensed jobbery on a huge scale which obtains under the party system in America. Nor can it fairly be said, as "An Observer" rather implies, that the best men take no interest in municipal affairs. The contrary would rather seem to be the case. On the other hand, there is not much to attract the worst men, as there is in America. Our municipal servants, from the Town Clerk down to the policeman, hold their positions on a tenure practically as stable as that of the members of the civil service of the state. The number of offices at the disposal of a newly elected Mayor or Town Councillor in this effete country would move a high-toned Tammany politician to scorn.

Under the circumstances, it is hard to see why we should seek out "some honest man," and "give him extraordinary powers and a long tenure of office." I can imagine the amused surprise of a citizen of Liverpool or Birmingham on being told that responsibility could not be brought home to his Town Council, and that it would be much better to elect a dictator for a long period of years.

The case of London is no doubt different from that of other large cities of Great Britain. It is only of late years that an attempt has been made to treat the metropolis as a municipal whole, and to evolve unity out of the diverse local authorities which formerly shared—and indeed still do to a large extent share—in its government. The battle between centralization and "tenification" is not yet decided; but whatever be the result, there is small likelihood of the adoption of the American system.

The fact is, that the municipal institutions of Great Britain and of the United States cannot be treated as analogous, and the problems to which they give rise are entirely different in character. If it is true, as I have contended, that we are not likely to benefit much by copying any of the forms of American local government, on the other hand it is not probable that the adoption of our English forms would, under present circumstances at least, be of much value to the American municipality. For there would still remain the terrible iron-bound machines of Croker and Platt, and their kindred organizations, and the extraordinary doctrine of "the spoils" would still prevail. While America retains the spoils system and tolerates on her neck that Old Man of the Sea, the Boss, she can never enjoy any decent scheme of municipal government, whatever form of charter the State Legislature may adopt. The forces of human nature would be too strong for her. As Great Britain does not obey the spoils doctrine or writhe in the toils of a party system like that of the United States, it is clear that she is not subject to the same class of dangers either in municipal or in national politics.

No doubt it suits politicians like Lord Salisbury, to whom the London County Council is a perpetual bogy, to solemnly warn the electors that it may develop all the evils of Tammany Hall. But Lord Salisbury is not always careful to get up his brief, and he has here displayed an astonishing ignorance both of Tammany and of the London County Council, which his friends have ever since been busily trying to explain away. Possibly, however, he has managed to frighten a few people who have only a very vague knowledge of the real conditions of the American municipal problem. In a sense, this sort of thing can be described as an influence of American upon English politics; but who could take it seriously, or admit that it is likely to have such far-reaching consequences as "An Observer" seems to apprehend? G. C. M.

London, February 17, 1898.

THE RAWLINSON MSS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having seen the gratifying notice of the catalogue of the Rawlinson MSS. in this library, which appeared in the *Nation* of the 11th of November last, but observing that the writer of that notice was aware of the existence of only two volumes, I think it will interest him, and I hope others of your readers, to be informed that two more volumes have appeared, comprising 1,516 MSS. of the same collection, designated under the letter D. The first of these volumes was published in 1893, and the second has just now been issued. They will be followed by a third volume containing an exhaustive index of persons, places, and things. Much relating to America will be found; and one manuscript of special interest is described under the number 1352, being the original autograph copy of John Eliot's 'Christian Commonwealth,' as sent by him to be printed in England.

W. D. Macray.

Bodleian Library, Oxford, February 15, 1898.

HARRIET SHELLEY'S LETTERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a notice of a recent volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' in your number for December 30 last, you question the existence of a reprint in book form of the letters of Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent, originally printed in the *Nation*. Such a reprint, however, was issued in 1889, and a copy is now before me. I do not know the extent of the impression, but it must have been very limited.

I remain, dear sir, very truly yours,

R. Garnett.

British Museum, February 17, 1898.

Notes.

Mr. J. N. Larned, the well-known librarian of Buffalo, and author-editor of the 'History for Ready Reference and Topical Reading,' is to edit an annotated bibliography of American history, a work projected by Mr. George Iles of New York, and to be published by the American Library Association. About a thousand titles will be selected of books such as "readers in American history need most to have *valued* for them, either in commendation or warning," through notes appended to each title by way of appraisal ("with full knowledge, with sound judgment, with absolute sincerity"), and accompanied by the critic's signature. This is quite a practicable undertaking, as current treatment of new books would *not* be.

Thackeray has no biography, but he is to have a "Biographical Edition." This is the title finally chosen for the new and revised edition of his works, which is to be edited by Mrs. Richmond Ritchie, and is to be published in thirteen volumes. The order is to be chronological, each novel to be given in a single volume, and each volume to have its separate introduction. Many of Thackeray's letters, hitherto unpublished, are to be included, in addition to new drawings and sketches by him, facsimiles of his manuscript, and several portraits not before reproduced. Among the latter are those by Maclise, loaned for the purpose by the Garrick Club. The publishers of this notable edition are Smith, Elder & Co., London, and the Harpers of this city. The first volume is set down for appearance on April 15, and thereafter one volume a month is to be issued.

Charles Scribner's Sons' spring announcements embrace 'The Poetical and Prose Works of Lord Byron,' in twelve crown oc-

tavo volumes, edited from a new text, with many fresh additions, by Ernest Hartley Coleridge and Rowland E. Prothero; a uniform nine-volume edition of 'Novels and Stories by "Q." (A. T. Quiller-Couch)'; 'Odes in Contribution to the Song of French History,' by George Meredith; 'Worldly Ways and Byways,' by Eliot Gregory (the *Evening Post's* papers of "An Idler"); 'Tales of the City Room,' by Miss Elizabeth C. Jordan; 'The Unquiet Sex,' magazine papers by Mrs. Helen Watterson Moody; 'Music: How It Came to be What it Is,' by Miss Hannah Smith; 'How to Name the Birds,' by H. E. Parkhurst; 'The Eugene Field I Knew,' by Francis Wilson; and 'Seven Months a Prisoner,' by J. V. Hadley, Judge of the Circuit Court of Indiana.

In the next few months we may expect from Little, Brown & Co., Boston, 'Memoirs of James Kent, LL.D.,' by his great-grandson, William Kent; a new edition, under the care of Prof. George H. Howison, of Soule's 'Dictionary of English Synonyms and Synonymous or Parallel Expressions'; a musical story, 'The Duenna of a Genius,' by Mrs. Frances Blundell; 'Hassan, a Fellah,' a Palestine romance, by Henry Gillman; and the D'Artagnan Edition of the romances of Alexandre Dumas, in fifty volumes, with thrice as many photogravure plates. In conjunction with Sampson Low & Co., they will publish also the following: 'All the World's Fighting Ships,' by F. C. Jane, illustrated, the second volume of William L. Clowes's 'History of the Royal Navy,' and a new edition of 'Ironclads in Action,' by H. W. Wilson, with a preface by Capt. Mahan.

Col. Higginson's 'Cheerful Yesterdays'; Dr. Griffis's 'The Pilgrims in their Three Homes—England, Holland, and America'; Mrs. Wiggins's 'Penelope's Progress,' a tour in Scotland; Henry B. Fuller's 'From the Other Side,' four stories of transatlantic travel; Bret Harte's 'Tales of Trail and Town'; Hopkinson Smith's 'Caleb West'; and 'The Children of the Future,' by Miss Nora Archibald Smith, are speedily forthcoming from Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Count Tolstoi's 'What Is Art?' will be issued immediately by T. Y. Crowell & Co., who will also make a book of Dean Farrar's 'Great Books,' now appearing in the *Independent*.

'Eastern Journeys' is the title of a book by the late Charles A. Dana, which is to be issued at once by D. Appleton & Co.

The Baker & Taylor Co. announce 'The Twentieth Century City,' by the Rev. Josiah Strong, D.D., and 'Life, Death and Immortality,' by William M. Bryant, LL.D.

Meyer Bros. & Co., No. 1132 Broadway, New York, will shortly bring out 'Pearl Necklace of Women's Thoughts,' translated from the French by Henri Pène du Bois.

The April issue of the *Portfolio* (Macmillan) will be 'The Later Work of Titian,' by Claude Phillips. The same house is bringing out 'The Genesis and Dissolution of the Faculty of Speech,' by Joseph Collins, M.D.; 'Four-Footed Americans,' by Mabel Osgood Wright, illustrated; 'Stories from the Classic Literature of Many Nations,' by Bertha Palmer; 'Tales of the Enchanted Islands of the Atlantic,' by Col. T. W. Higginson; and 'Topics on Greek and Roman History,' by A. L. Goodrich.

'Curiosities of Popular Customs,' as well as of "Rites, Ceremonies, Observances and Miscellaneous Antiquities," is the subject of an illustrated volume of over a thousand pages by William S. Walsh (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.). It is in great measure a compilation, the author mentioning eight different books which he has placed under contribution. The "staple" of the book is stated in the preface to be "the strange and out-of-the-way things usually left out of current works of reference"; but for some reason the fact is not mentioned that the author has mainly devoted his energies to customs, observances, and information connected with religion. In other words, the title of the book would imply a range of topics outside its actual limits. Of customs connected with saints' days, church-festivals, and holidays there is an abundance. The arrangement is alphabetical, but there is no conspectus of titles or analytic index.

The Queen's Jubilee is well past, but a dateless commemoration of it, 'Sixty Years a Queen,' by Sir Herbert Maxwell, Bart., M.P. (London: Harmsworth; New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co.), is mentionable at almost any time. In this handsome quarto the story of the reign is told agreeably and with fairmindedness, if not without bias such as belongs to an occasional production of this sort. About Chartism, Fenianism, the Sepoy rebellion, the China wars, the Crimean war, we do not expect to read the verdict of posterity. Material progress, literature, and science are taken account of, and the whole narrative is a useful popular survey of a memorable period. It ought, therefore, to have been furnished with an index. The illustrations are numerous and excellent, and are much enlivened by caricatures from the pencil of the Doyles, of Leech, Tenniel, and Du Maurier.

While the new National Library is being pictured and described, it is well that the great neighboring pile should be more than superficially repictured and redescribed, as is done in 'The National Capitol; Its Architecture, Art, and History,' by George C. Hazelton, jr. (New York). The work fulfils the promise of its title in a very satisfactory manner, with the aid of numerous illustrations. It is handsomely printed, and has a literary readableness as well as a permanent value for reference.

The 'New Astronomy for Beginners,' by Prof. D. P. Todd (American Book Company), will be found a very pleasing book for more than one class of students. Notwithstanding its professedly elementary character, it seems to contain all that the general non-scientific student at college could wish to learn of the subject. It is distinguished from all other books of the kind with which we are acquainted by the number and felicity of its illustrations. In some chapters, geometrical ideas are introduced which we fear students below the college grade will not find it easy to master; but these may be passed over without detriment to the usefulness of the other parts of the book.

The conscientious preparation of Mr. William C. Harris's 'Fishes of North America' has caused long delays in the appearance of the several parts. The "field work" (that is, the painting of portraits from live fish) had not been finished when the enterprise was started, but we are now assured that the series (numbering eighty) is at last virtually completed, so that the editor of the *American Angler* becomes free to devote himself to the text. Parts 11-14 bear monthly dates in 1896, but have been recently issued. They deal with the carps, the tarpon, the big-eyed herrings, the bonefish, etc., and have each two excellent lithographic copies of oil paintings of specimens not always related to the accompanying text, as, the common sunfish, horned pout, rock bass, sea bass, tautog, etc.

From Henry Frowde we have three more parts of Poole's 'Historical Atlas of Modern Europe from the Decline of the Roman Empire,' to which the editor contributes maps of the ecclesiastical organization of the Spanish peninsula, Europe in the time of Otto the Great (962), and Germany under the house of Hohenstaufen (1138-1254). Other maps are of Scotland (about 1600), by G. Gregory Smith; France in the thirteenth century, by W. E. Rhodes; the Eastern Roman Empire in the tenth century, by Prof. Bury; Western Asia under the Mohammedan Dynasties (970-1070), by S. Lane-Poole; and the house of Savoy in Italy, by Miss K. Dorothea Ewart.

The 'Correggio' in Knackfuss's "Künstler-Monographien" (Bielefeld: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Büchner) is by Henry Thode. Noticeable among the copious illustrations are the general views of the roof-paintings in San Paolo at Parma, showing the arrangement *in situ* of those lunettes and ovals so often reproduced separately in photographs and engravings.

The St. Louis Mercantile Library begins a modest series of Reference Lists in a useful way. The first number displays the Library's store of Missouri and Illinois newspapers, 1808-1897, in chronological arrangement, and adds an account of the manuscripts relating to Louisiana Territory and Missouri. This last is in line with the labors of the historical-manuscripts commission of the American Historical Association, whose valuable first report has just been issued.

The chief feature of the San Francisco Sierra Club's Bulletin for January is a translation of Dr. Filippo De Filippi's account of the Prince of Savoy's successful expedition last year to the summit of Mt. St. Elias, which spent forty days on a snowy footing. The article is accompanied by a chart of the route, views, and a portrait of the modest leader. Mr. John G. Lemmon continues his "Conifers of the Pacific Slope—How to Distinguish Them," with several illustrations.

Mr. F. G. Jackson's account of his three years' exploration in Franz-Josef Land is the prominent feature of the *Geographical Journal* for February. The main result of his adventurous journeys seems to have been the mapping of the southern part of the archipelago, and, it may be added, the conviction that it is "one of the worst" routes to the pole. A study of the geological collections brought back by the expedition appears to show that the islands are fragments of a vast basalt-plateau, probably the "grandest example of volcanism in the world." On account of the absence of warm southwesterly winds, the flora is "more scanty and stunted on the whole than that of almost all the other Arctic regions." There are certain plants, however, as poppies and four species of mosses—brilliant green, red, and golden yellow—which give color to the landscape. The only land mammalia are the bear and the fox, but three new species of birds were discovered. The northern lights were disappointing, though occasionally they were brilliant enough "to cast a shadow and to eclipse stars below the third magnitude." The highest register-

ed temperature was 43 degrees Fahr.; the lowest, —54 degrees. The Journal also contains Dr. Mills's elaborate classification of geography with arbitrary symbols, presented at the Toronto meeting of the British Association.

The Scottish *Geographical Magazine* for February contains an interesting account of Somaliland by Mr. A. E. Pease, M. P. After a brief sketch of the recent history and political relations of that country, its native races, their appearance, customs and origin, he describes two very successful hunting expeditions made in 1896-97. He deprecates in emphatic terms the rumored agreement of Lord Salisbury's Government to relinquish a large part of the country to Abyssinia in return for its "good will in the Nile valley." It means simply the abandonment of the friendly Somalis, "who have till now delighted to call themselves British," to the exterminating or enslaving raids of their hereditary enemies.

The principal place in the Consular Reports for February is given to an apparently careful and painstaking account of coffee culture in Hawaii, by our Consul-General, Mr. William Haywood. Detailed information, in answer to numerous inquiries, is given in regard to labor, wages, the best methods of acquiring, clearing, and planting land, and the outlay required. The general impression is left that money can be made by an industrious person with from five to ten thousand dollars capital. But the industry is still so young that the estimates of the profits when the plantation has reached its full bearing stage (in seven years), range from 12 to 75 per cent. Appended is a list of the 222 coffee-growers in the islands, with the number of trees or area of each plantation. The Hawaiian sugar-crop for 1897 is estimated at 248,576 tons, or almost exactly the same as that of the previous season. The world's sugar production for 1897-98 is given by a German authority as 4,925,000 tons beet-sugar and 2,460,000 tons cane-sugar. The largest producers are Germany and Java respectively. There are several reports from China, the most interesting and valuable, perhaps, being that upon the kind of labels and trade-marks which are popular with the Chinese.

George L. Pilkington, a lay missionary recently killed by the Sudanese rebels in Uganda, was a remarkable linguist. Graduating from Cambridge, England, in 1888, with a first-class in the Classical Tripos, he went to Africa in 1890. During the journey from the coast he learned the language from the carriers so rapidly that within three months after his arrival at his post he had prepared a Luganda Handbook and Vocabulary, "the first accurate one ever published." By the middle of the next year he had translated the Psalms and the New Testament, with the exception of the Gospels, and in four years more the whole of the Old Testament, a few of the Minor Prophets excepted, together with seventy-two hymns, two catechisms, a devotional book, and a history. Another side of him is shown in an extract from a journal of a fellow-missionary published in the *Church Missionary Intelligencer* for February: "Archdeacon Walker has got a football out from England, and Pilkington has been diligently coaching the boys. It is very comic to see him, as he enters with great earnestness into it. . . . I, with my boys and about ten others, stood Pilkington and another lot. We got two goals each." He was only thirty-three when he was killed, and was probably the best-known white man in Uganda and most beloved by the natives; and in his death, to quote from the obituary notice in the London *Times*, "the cause of civilization in Africa has received a severe blow."

It gives us pleasure to record that the broader view has prevailed among the alumni of Harvard College, and that, by a majority of more than 12 per cent. in a total vote (by circular ballot) of some 3,100, they propose to extend the suffrage for Overseers "to all graduates of five years' standing from any department of the University."

We have received the first circular of the Baltimore Association for the Promotion of the University Education of Women, inviting applications for a foreign fellowship, of $500, for the scholastic year 1897-'99. In the award of this fellowship, preference is to be given to college graduates who are either Maryland women or women who have identified themselves with educational interests in Baltimore. The requirements set by the Baltimore Association for its first fellow are those hitherto specified for the fellowships awarded by the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ. Candidates, "preferably graduates of not more than five years' standing," should file their applications in writing, by March 20, with any member of the committee on award: Mrs. Christine Ladd Franklin, No. 1507 Park Avenue; Dr. Mary Sherwood, "The Arundel"; Dr. Lilian Welsh, the Woman's College. While no competitive examination will be held, the committee propose to select from among the qualified candidates that one who, in their judgment, through original gifts, previous training, energy, power of endurance, and health, is best fitted "to attain distinction in her selected line of work." The required evidence of such ability and promise includes her college diploma, testimonials from professors and other competent judges, the very important qualification of thoroughly good health, a statement of the work in which she proposes to engage, and *"last, and of chief importance,* examples of her scientific or literary work, in the form of papers or articles, or accounts of scientific investigations which she has carried on."

An obvious though not quite self-correcting error occurred in our issue last week in the title of Prof. MacDonald's 'Select Documents Illustrative of the History of the United States.' The period covered is 1776-1861.

—The promotion of interest in local chronicles, antiquities, and folk-lore is a branch of business all over the world, and if the State of New York is not very rich in material, zeal in the use of what exists is the more noticeable. The 'Chronicles of Tarrytown and Sleepy Hollow,' by Edgar Mayhew Bacon (G. P. Putnam's Sons), come from a bit of New York immortalized by Irving; but Mr. Bacon has contrived to add a good deal not to be found in his writings. The book is a small one, but is fully illustrated, and contains an interesting plate of André's capture, from a print in the possession of Dr. Coutant, and a map of the Sleepy Hollow country, showing the old Manor House, or "Flypse's Castle," the mill, the Dutch church of Sleepy Hollow (we are glad to see that an effort is being made to repair and preserve it), and some other landmarks. There is little left, and the days of the Van Cortlandts and Bayards and Phillipses are long gone, and on certain portions of the map appear the new names of the patroons of our days, the Goulds and Rockefellers, whose villas overshadow the little antiquities of the sleepy old Dutch hills and valleys, with the garish splendor of a very modern day. Time softens all things, and perhaps in their day Vredryk Flypse and his "set" were not altogether patterns of all the virtues. The author notices the scandalous stories about Captain Kyd, who, if he was really "squared" by some of the earlier Tarrytown magnates, apparently dealt with them honorably, just as the land-pirates who have succeeded him do with rich people now, if properly approached. Another little volume of the same sort, piously published by the same firm, is 'Reminiscences of an Old Westchester Homestead,' by Charles Pryer. This consists mainly of local ghost stories of a very primitive kind, such as may be found wherever dulness is.

—Notes of a journey made through Nicaragua in 1895 by Henry I. Sheldon have been put together in a volume called 'Notes on the Nicaragua Canal' (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). We cannot make out that the author shows any special authority to speak about the canal, but he makes very sweeping statements as to the political questions likely to be raised by its construction. Thus, he says (p. 178) that should we construct the canal, directly or indirectly, "we could not share its control with any European Power," and that "it will be impossible for Great Britain to maintain the provisions of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty." But why? The only reason given is that we have tried to get England to accede to a modification or abrogation of the treaty, and have failed. Of itself this proves nothing, except that England stands by and insists on non-exclusive control under the treaty; the real question is whether we can show any reason why England ought to recede. If not, she probably never will, and the only remaining question would be, Should we compel her by force? The book seems to be intended to advance the building of the canal, but we can imagine nothing less likely to do this than publications which assume that the canal, as soon as built, will be a *casus belli* between the United States and England. Mr. Sheldon is here an imitator of the voluble Keasbey, whose idea of a canal is that of a sort of *mare clausum*, which we can forbid anybody entering, and hold against the world in arms. This would no doubt be magnificent, but it would not be a canal. On the engineering questions involved, which are really the only ones of any present consequence, Mr. Sheldon does not undertake to decide. The two things that he seems to think he really makes clear are, first, that the canal will be sure to pay at once, and, second, that we must never let any one help us to keep it open.

—A small illustrated pamphlet, 'On Portraits of Christ in the British Museum,' by Cecil Torr, M.A. (London: C. J. Clay & Sons), is in form and title a description of the portraits in question, but in reality is a discussion of the chronology of Christ's life. The fact that Jesus is represented in certain third or fourth-century portrait-busts as a beardless youth, while in works of later date he always figures as a bearded man, taken in connection with the further fact that, in a number of early pictures of the baptism, Jesus appears as a mere boy, while John is represented as a man of mature years, suggests to the author of the pamphlet the question whether we must not re-

vise the accepted chronology of Christ's life and conclude that he began his public ministry when a mere boy and was still a youth at the time of his crucifixion. A new investigation of the familiar data supplied by the Gospels and Josephus leads Mr. Torr to answer this question in the affirmative, and to put the birth of Christ in 6 or 7 A. D., when Quirinius, who is mentioned in Luke ii., 1, is known to have taken a census. Jesus is then supposed to have begun his ministry at the age of sixteen or seventeen, and to have been crucified when not more than twenty years old. It is suggested by Mr. Torr that the mistake in the commonly accepted chronology arose from a confusion of Jesus with John the Baptist, by which the latter's birth-date was assigned to the former. This radical revision of the traditional chronology of Christ's life, interesting as it is, rests upon too precarious a foundation to command any wide assent among scholars. The portraits which are regarded as so suggestive are much too late to be of any real historical significance, and the difficulties in our written sources are not in any way lessened—they are, in fact, greatly increased—by the change of date.

—The tenth annual report of the Society for the Diffusion of Christian and General Knowledge among the Chinese for the year ending October 31, 1897, shows a surprising expansion of work since the Chino-Japanese war. Largely supported by Scottish and other merchants in China, including natives, the society aims to pierce the dense ignorance of the masses by means of popular publications, in the vernacular, of science and unsectarian religion. Since November 1, 1896, a total of 199,200 copies of books containing 12,147,900 double pages or leaves has been issued. The works most numerously sold, at a cost barely above that of printing, have been Dr. Y. J. Allen's thoroughly trustworthy 'History of the War' (of 1894-'95), Ries's 'Education of Mankind,' Mackenzie's 'History of Civilization,' T. Richard's 'Reform,' Allen's 'Value of Truth to the Individual and National Character,' and 'What has the English Government Done for India? A Mirror for China,' 'Outlines of the History of Thirty-one Nations,' and 'The Aims of Protestant Missions in China.' The past year has been the most successful known to the Society, the sales yielding $12,146.91 as compared with $817.97 in 1893. Chinese publishers who have pirated the Society's publications have been restrained from and fined for reprinting these books, because the natives who print "for revenue only" leave out the criticism of bad customs and much else that does not please them. Dr. Y. J. Allen, editor of the monthly *Review of the Times*, which circulates 3,300 copies, is the chief author on the list. Recently offered the headship of a university by Sheng, the General Director of Railways in China, Dr. Allen declined, but instead prepared by request a code of rules and regulations for a national system of modern education. The chief places of gratuitous distribution of ethical and intellectual publications are the examination halls, in which 24,000 students assemble, as, for example, at Nanking. Those at Changsha, in the anti-foreign province of Hunan, were, during the last September examinations, lighted by electricity. The centres of distribution and sale are a dozen, from Mukden to Yunnan.

WINSOR'S WESTWARD MOVEMENT.

The Westward Movement: The Colonies and the Republic West of the Alleghenies, 1763-1798. With full cartographical illustrations from contemporary sources. By Justin Winsor. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

The name of Justin Winsor is indelibly associated with American historical literature. As editor of 'The Narrative and Critical History of America,' and as author of important works on geographical discovery on this continent, he displayed a rare knowledge of sources and a critical appreciation of their worth. As a cartographer he was easily first among American scholars, and his attainments in this field lend to his works a peculiar value. The present volume arouses the melancholy interest which always attaches to the last work of a great scholar's life. Not only is it Dr. Winsor's final contribution to scholarship, but it concludes the story begun in 'Cartier to Frontenac' and continued in 'The Mississippi Basin.' The three volumes together form a continuous history of geographic discovery and exploration in America, together with some account of the political arrangements by which the region east of the Mississippi was disposed of.

The westward movement of the Americans on the seaboard encountered four powerful antagonists—the Indians, the English, the French, and the Spanish. The first were the aboriginal possessors of the land, and were unwilling to retreat constantly to the West without making a determined resistance. The second antagonist had two objects in view in dealing with the colonists—to keep them within reach of the trade of the mother country and to hold them in due subjection. France, by giving Canada and the region north of the Ohio to England, would establish a constant menace between the colonies and the mother country, while by confining the young republic to the Atlantic slope, she would propitiate Spain, whose interests demanded that no rival Power should be allowed to approach the Mississippi. The history of the westward movement is the history of the contests with these four antagonists and their final vanquishment.

The story of the long contest with the Indians is taken up at the treaty of Fort Stanwix (1768), where the famous Property Line, a futile attempt to prevent settlers from encroaching on the lands of the Indians, was drawn. The forces which lay back of the westward movement were far too strong to be held in check by such an arrangement, and the terms of the treaty were laxly observed. Settlers continued to pour over the mountains and down the Ohio, and they showed little regard for treaty stipulations. Congress, however, recognized the obligation of the treaty, and induced the Indians in a second treaty of Fort Stanwix (1784) to relinquish the Ohio as their boundary, and to retire toward the Northwest. After the organization of the Northwest Teritory, much of the time of Governor St. Clair was spent in efforts to quiet the Indian title. Throughout these difficult negotiations, the action of the Confederation was hampered by the attempts of the individual States to make separate treaties with the Indians. Furthermore, it was found to be impossible to induce all the tribes concerned to yield their assent to the treaties proposed, and in these cases the question of title had ultimately to be settled by force.

In their efforts to prevent the spread of American settlements, the Indians were ably assisted by England. It was her object to secure the control of the vast region between the Appalachians and the Mississippi, and to this end the royal proclamation of 1763 forbade the granting of lands or the making of settlements beyond the sources of the rivers flowing to the Atlantic. With the same purpose in view the Quebec Act of 1774 annexed the region in question to Canada. This measure was peculiarly gratifying to France, for it was a recognition of her ancient claim that this territory belonged to Canada; and should the fortunes of war or diplomacy ever enable her to regain her lost possessions in America, she would then take advantage of England's acknowledgment of her contention. Before the news of the passage of the Quebec Act reached America, the Dunmore war began, and the outbreak of the Revolution in the following year diverted men's attention to other subjects.

Some of the most important results of the Revolution were due to battles fought in the West. The campaigns of General George Rogers Clark, beginning in 1778, overthrew British authority in the Northwest and compelled the British to assume the defensive from the Ohio to the Great Lakes. But the defeat of the British troops and the capture of many of the most important British posts were not the only results of Clark's victories. The terror of his name detached from England many of her Indian allies. How far this detracted from the British strength may be seen in the fact that Haldimand attributed it to the capriciousness of the Indians that Clark was not expelled from the Northwest. The fruits of Clark's campaigns were gathered when the treaty of peace was made. It may be questioned whether Winsor does not undervalue the importance of the conquest. Clark did more than make "it easier for the American Commissioners, who negotiated the treaty of 1782, to include this ample domain within the American Union." It would not be far wrong to say that he made it possible, for without his victories the claims of the United States to the Northwest would have had a very meagre basis.

In his chapters dealing with the relation of France and Spain to the Revolution, Winsor exposes with admirable clearness the purely selfish motives which led to the intervention of France. Anything that would weaken England was sure of the support of Vergennes. In like manner Spain saw that the safety of Louisiana required that England and her dependencies should be kept back from the Mississippi. This it was which induced Grimaldi to advise his royal master to contribute a million dollars to the cause of the Americans. The contribution was not made, but, prior to the outbreak of the war between Spain and England in 1779, the Spanish Governor of New Orleans maintained a most friendly disposition toward the Americans, supplying them in 1776 with 12,000 pounds of powder and rendering other valuable assistance. But in the settlement of the boundary question at the final peace, the United States had no reason to be grateful to either of its quondam allies. Both France and Spain desired to confine the new republic to the Atlantic slope. That satisfactory boundaries were finally secured was largely due to England, who, doubtless, was

equally actuated by purely selfish motives. She had to choose whom she would have as neighbor on the Canadian border, and she found a kindred race less objectionable than aliens under Bourbon dominion. The importance of these territorial arrangements was clearly seen at the time. Luzerne wrote to Vergennes: "The Americans, in pushing their possessions as far as the Lake of the Woods, are preparing for their remote posterity a communication with the Pacific." The consummation of this prophecy was less remote than its author thought.

The conclusion of the treaty of peace and the recognition of the independence of the United States did not terminate the territorial difficulties of the new government. Efforts were still made to prevent it from taking possession of the domain awarded it. England, on the side of Canada, and Spain, on the side of Louisiana, endeavored to retain for a time part of what they had lost. The action of both countries was involved in a maze of intrigues with the Kentuckians and other Western Americans—intrigues which were made possible by the seeming indifference of the national Government to the commercial and political interests of the West. On the ground of the action of the States with regard to the loyalists, and also as security for the payment of the British debts, the British ministry refused to relinquish the Western posts. It was not until the negotiation in 1794 of the much-abused Jay treaty that the question was settled. At the same time, Spain persisted in retaining the eastern bank of the Mississippi south of the Yazoo, and plotted to establish a Spanish protectorate south of the Ohio. The disaffection among the people of the West gave the Spanish considerable hope of success, and it was not until the negotiation of the treaty of San Lorenzo in 1795 that the danger was averted. For three years longer, however, the Spanish held military posts in American territory. At last, in 1798, the posts were evacuated, and the United States came into possession of the territory awarded it by the treaty of 1783.

The weakest parts of Mr. Winsor's work are those dealing with the development of political institutions in the West. Not only is the treatment of the subject very brief, but the interpretation placed upon political measures in many instances cannot be accepted. An example of this is in connection with the Ordinance of 1787. The fulsome praise meted out to this measure for so many years seems to have led to a reaction in Winsor's mind, and to have made him place a lower estimate upon its influence in shaping the history of the West. It may be true, as he says, that the Ordinance was made up of glittering generalities akin to the declaration that all men are born free and equal—a phrase which was thought in Virginia to have nothing to do with slavery, while in Massachusetts it was held to abolish slavery. It may be true, also, that the Ordinance contained nothing new, and that many of its provisions were never enforced. Granting all this, the history of the time would not warrant the following conclusion:

"So the Ordinance of 1787 introduces us to nothing new in human progress. There was doubtless that in it which proved a guiding star for future legislation, as in the struggle over the slavery question in Illinois; but it may well be questioned if later enactments, without such a beacon, and keeping in sight the interests of the community as they arose, would not have made of the Northwest all that it has become. The provisions of this fundamental law were operative just so far as the public interests demanded, and no farther, and the public interests would have had their legitimate triumph unaided by it. The Ordinance simply shared this condition with all laws in communities which are self-respecting and free."

The history of the slavery controversy in Indiana, where the people repeatedly sought to obtain the abrogation of the sixth article of the Ordinance, is a sufficient refutation of this conclusion. In this instance, at least, the Ordinance was more than a beacon-light. It was a positive restraint, without which slavery would undoubtedly have been admitted to Indiana.

The literary workmanship of the volume cannot be commended. At its best, Winsor's style is cumbrous, and it is often obscure. But a more serious defect of the work is the entire absence of bibliographical data. Aside from the notes to the maps, there are no references whatever to the sources. This is more than a defect; it is a serious loss to scholarship, for no one had a more extensive or a more accurate knowledge of the sources and authorities of this period of Western history than had Winsor.

TYLER'S LITERARY HISTORY OF THE REVOLUTION.

The Literary History of the American Revolution. 1763-1783. By Moses Coit Tyler. Volume II. 1776-1783. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

The second volume of Prof. Tyler's scholarly and readable study fully bears out the promise that the earlier volume gave; and while there is obviously far less ease in the classifying and treatment of the more heterogeneous bookmaking of the period from 1776 to 1783, the author has nevertheless grouped his material in such a way as to produce a most satisfactory result. Prof. Tyler notes that, with the actual passage of the Declaration of Independence, argument ceased, and the publications on both sides became tinctured with the elements of derision and hate. Perhaps no better proof could be found that the cleavage had ceased to be partisan, and had become national; but for this very reason the products of the press become far less interesting from the literary point of view, and it is easy to see that the author has found his material neither as important nor as usable as in the earlier controversial period.

The more we dwell on his deliberate omission of the state paper, which we are forced to confess is correct if we are to treat literature in its narrowest sense of belles-lettres, the more we regret it, not only because the state paper played an essential part in our Revolution, but because in it is to be found the expression of the greatest intellectual ability then extant in this country. When a people of very limited education are engaged in fighting an unequal contest, and at the same moment are rebuilding their governments, they have too much work on hand to devote any of the mental power of the country to the production of belles-lettres; and if only the latter range of literature is considered, it is obvious that a very great injustice is done to them. Just as, later, the slavery issue for thirty years absorbed the minds of the ablest thinkers and writers in our country, to the injury and almost disregard of pure literature, so, during the Revolution, the strongest minds were pondering how man was to devise a government that should maintain an equilibrium between anarchy and tyranny, and which should be strong enough to check men in wrongdoing and weak enough to check them in nothing good. Yet one may search Prof. Tyler's two volumes in vain for any consideration of the Bills of Rights and Constitutions then framed, although into them was put the best intellectual vigor of the men who built a nation. The Constitution of Pennsylvania, framed by Franklin, Rittenhouse, and others, which represents the extreme swing towards a pure democracy, and that of New York, framed by conservatives like Jay, Gouverneur Morris, and R. R. Livingston, which represents the doubts of the outcome of self-government, are as important and illuminative as any of the addresses of the First Congress, if not as the Declaration of Independence itself. Not merely has the author passed over these exponents of the thought of the time, but also over the controversial literature they produced. John Adams's 'Thoughts on Government,' Braxton's 'Address,' Rush's 'Four Letters,' Parson's 'Essex Results,' Dickinson's 'Essay of a Frame of Government,' and the equally vital outlines of government drafted by R. H. Lee, Jefferson, Madison, and others, are either barely alluded to or are not mentioned at all.

So, too, most of the other political controversies of the Revolution are neglected. There are admirable surveys of much of the work of Samuel Adams, William Livingston, Thomas Paine, and Franklin, but the important newspaper or pamphlet writing, after the Revolution was fairly started, of Hamilton, Duane, Rush, the Lees, Wharton, W. H. Drayton, Gouverneur Morris, and others is passed over without reference. Even the last-named writer's very important 'Observations on the American Revolution,' which he prepared for the Continental Congress, is neglected. The whole literature of the controversy over the disposition of the Western lands, in which lay the germ of America's future greatness, and which marked such a radical departure from all previous systems, is unnoticed; and the pamphlet war over paper money is equally slighted, though in the essays of Franklin, Hamilton, Morris, Pelatiah Webster, Tench Francis, Paine, and Barton are to be found the true beginnings of American political economy, as well as sound views on questions which have been constantly recurrent in our history.

The greatest difficulty, however, that the author was forced to encounter was in his study of the literature of the South, and we wish he might have applied some of his capacity for research, which is indicated in so many parts of the present work, to this hitherto neglected section of our literature. One would suppose, from what is found in the books that have already appeared, that there was no literature south of Virginia in pre-Revolutionary and Revolutionary days. Prof. Tyler gives us more or less information concerning some of the writings of Drayton, Zubly, and Laurens, but even these accounts are seriously defective. Thus, Laurens's first publication, a pamphlet on American custom-houses (1768), and the able answer of Egerton Leigh, Chief Justice of the Colony, are not cited; and the same fate is accorded to the anonymous 'Considerations of Certain Political Transactions of the

Province of South Carolina' (1774), with Leigh's 'An Answer' to the same pamphlet. Equally unnoticed, too, are the pamphlet of 'A Back Settler' (Charleston, 1774), the reply to the same, entitled 'A Comment . . . By a Gentleman of South Carolina,' William Tennant's 'Address' (1774), his 'Speech' three years later, and all his sermons. At a later period, too, come the very popular pamphlets of Ædanus Burke; and his tirade against the Society of the Cincinnati calls attention to Prof. Tyler's omission to refer to the controversy over that society, which falls properly within the Revolutionary period. In lighter vein are the 'Story of Æneas and Dido, Burlesqued by a Gentleman of South Carolina,' and the 'Poems of Arouet,' the latter published in Charleston in 1786, and perhaps not within the Revolutionary period, as the author, in the preface, speaks of his own extreme youth as an excuse for the quality of his verse. And, presumably, careful research would discover a number of other works of which these are but examples. So, in North Carolina, no mention is made of Maurice Moore's tract, entitled 'Justice and Policy of Taxing the American Colonies of Great Britain Considered' (1766); bare allusion is made to the literature of the "Regulator" war, while Iredell's 'Principles of an American Whig' and later writings have escaped the author's attention. Nor is the account of Virginian literature as complete as it might have been made. Jefferson's 'Notes on Virginia,' which comes within the period, and which is the most famous book produced south of Mason and Dixon's line, as well as a most remarkable piece of work, is not so much as named. The writings of James McClurg, Peyton and Edmund Randolph, Robert Carter Nicholas, Landon Carter, James Camm, and the Lee family are either entirely omitted or are inadequately touched upon.

These are the chief defects, but many merits more than offset them, and make Prof. Tyler's work by far the most complete, as well as the most critical, of all résumés of our Revolutionary writings. Analysis of the works is accompanied by a bibliography of authorities, most valuable to all students, which fills over fifty pages, though printed in small type. This is the most important catalogue of books on the subject yet compiled, and, taken in connection with the late Justin Winsor's 'Reader's Hand-book of the American Revolution,' goes far towards perfecting a complete bibliography of our war for independence. There is, finally, a good index, made by Dr. Federspiel.

On certain points as to which Prof. Tyler's data have been insufficient, it is possible to supplement them. Thomas Hutchinson's pamphlet on paper money was entitled 'A Projection for Regulating the Value of Gold and Silver Coins,' printed in 1762. Brackenridge's 'Modern Chivalry,' one of the most popular books for thirty years in this country, was printed in four volumes between 1793 and 1797 at Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, and was four times reissued in abridged form between that date and 1819; in the latter year an entirely revised edition was printed in two volumes, and of this an abridgment was several times reprinted, the copy Prof. Tyler notes being an example. The pamphlet mentioned as "the celebrated speech of the celebrated Commoner," but without clue of authorship, was the speech of Lord Chatham. That entitled 'Detail and Conduct of the American War' was a compilation by Joseph Galloway.

There are also a few typographical errors to which the author will be glad to have his attention called. Thus, "The New York *Gazette*" is quoted a number of times, though "The Royal *Gazette*" is the correct title. Forrest's play of "The Disappointment" becomes, by a blunder of the printer, "The Disenchantment"; and another obvious error, into which the author has been led by a piece of vanity of the Rev. William Smith, is the quotation of Junius in connection with Smith's sermon of 1775. Junius wrote nothing under his name after 1771, and we presume Smith was alluding to Junius Americanus, if, indeed, he was not fabricating his quotation out of whole cloth, for he is by no means a writer who can be taken on faith. Allusion is made to Dickinson's "publishing" a speech to the New Jersey convention, though the only form in which it is known is an abstract of it taken by an enemy for transmission to the British Government. James Harrington, at p. 475, is a palpable misprint for James Rivington.

The Life of Charles Jared Ingersoll. By William M. Meigs. J. B. Lippincott Co. 1897.

Charles Jared Ingersoll was born in Philadelphia, October 3, 1782. His father, Jared Ingersoll, had been a delegate to the Continental Congress in 1780-'81, a member of the Constitutional Convention, and Federalist candidate for Vice-President in 1812, besides holding, from 1791 to 1800, and 1811 to 1816, the office of Attorney-General of Pennsylvania. Charles was brought up in an atmosphere of politics and law; but a short tour in Europe, made shortly after his admission to the bar, in 1802, gave him a certain fondness for France which tended to weaken the force of his Federalist training. A pamphlet entitled 'A View of the Rights and Wrongs, Power and Policy, of the United States of America,' published in 1808, and 'Inchiquin the Jesuit's Letters,' in 1811, took, in general, the anti-English view then prevalent among the Republicans. In 1812 he was elected to Congress as a Republican. He was at that time thirty years old, and "was so youthful in appearance," says Mr. Meigs, "that the doorkeeper of Congress at first declined to admit him, thinking it impossible that so young a person could be a member" (p. 67). His early prominence is shown in the fact that he was made chairman of the committee on the judiciary and a member of that on foreign relations. His sympathies made him an enthusiastic supporter of the war; in his first formal speech, however, he showed his independence by sharply criticising the Administration for accepting the Russian offer of mediation, and, later, did not hesitate to attack Webster for the covert suggestions of disunion in the latter's speech on the militia bill. He failed to secure a reëlection, and went back to Philadelphia "to be," as he wrote, "a mere lawyer . . . for the next fifteen years."

At the close of his term Ingersoll was appointed United States District Attorney, to succeed Dallas, who had become Secretary of the Treasury. This office he held for more than fourteen years. His practice was large and important, and he, moreover, kept up an active correspondence with Rush, Dallas, Madison, Monroe, and King. A diary which he kept for Rush's entertainment, during a visit to Washington in the early part of 1823, gives a racy account of social life in the capital at that period. It is evident, however, that Ingersoll had no intention of permanently renouncing politics, and that a political situation consonant with his views would see him again a candidate. In the meantime he entered, as occasion offered, into the political activities of Pennsylvania, served a term in the Assembly in 1830-'31, and was a prominent member of the Harrisburg convention in 1827.

In 1841 he was again elected to Congress. An early friend of Biddle and the Bank, he had become an opponent of the Bank after Jackson's veto of the bill for a recharter; and he had been from the first an admirer of Jackson, and had supported Van Buren. In Congress Ingersoll's position was one of prominence. He favored the annexation of Texas, and did not fear the Mexican war; voted for increased tariff duties, though with the warning that "there must be severe competition, or there will be no durable success"; defended Tyler's vetoes and welcomed the break-up of the Whig party, without becoming a Tyler man; opposed the multiplication of foreign missions; and supported the revived Sub-Treasury plan in 1846. His opposition to Webster, which had several times appeared in outspoken criticism of the latter's course in the boundary negotiations with Great Britain and in the *Caroline* affair, culminated in formal charges of financial crookedness in the administration of the Department of State. The investigation which followed resulted in a report exonerating Webster. Ingersoll retired from Congress and from active life in 1849, and devoted himself mainly to literary work until his death, in 1862.

Ingersoll's place in politics was not the usual one. That his prominence was far greater than his influence can hardly be questioned. He was not a skilful politician, in the narrow sense of the term, nor a good parliamentarian. His learning, his fame as a lawyer, his unusual oratorical powers, and his evident sincerity won for him respect and a measure of admiration; but his outspoken and often vehement independence stamped him as a man not to be relied upon in party exigencies, and lost him the assured confidence of his natural political friends. The same gifts that adapted him for war unfitted him, to a large extent, for council. Nor was his independence the result of unusual keenness of vision, as with those who see from afar the inevitable trend of things; it suggested, rather, the political free lance, too brilliant to be generally accepted as safe. Undoubtedly his position was sometimes an unfortunate and a galling one, as in the Constitutional Convention in Pennsylvania, in 1837, where partisan control thwarted his cherished schemes, and again in Congress, where a favorable report in favor of the annexation of Texas was made impossible by the opposition in his own committee. These, to be sure, are the accidents of a long and useful career, but they are not so much out of harmony with the general course of Ingersoll's political life, after all.

One cannot help thinking, also, that, while Ingersoll was no narrow partisan, his view of politics was more the result of personal impressions and fortuitous circumstances than of hard thinking and profound moral conviction. His attitude towards slavery and the abolition movement is, perhaps, the best illustration of this. Himself no friend

to slavery, he nevertheless looked upon it as embedded in the compromises of the Constitution, and entitled to protection so long as the constitutional guarantees remained unchanged; and he deprecated the persistent agitation of the subject, as tending not only to strengthen the hold of slavery upon the South, but also to cultivate a dangerous spirit of disunion. In the abolition movement he saw an opportunity for unscrupulous politicians, and seems to have convinced himself that, however disinterested the motives and acts of its early advocates may have been, in its later days it had been taken possession of by a faction, and used for selfish and disloyal ends. That the abolitionists had sympathizers in England was, from his standpoint, but one more reason for condemning them. Mr. Meigs is at pains to make clear Ingersoll's position on this whole matter, and does not hesitate to show his own general accord therewith. For the moderation and good temper with which he has stated his case, we have nothing but commendation; and, while we are unable to agree with him, it is because of a conviction that, in the troublous times of the anti-slavery struggle, the leaders of the South erred more and more against the light. That Ingersoll may fairly be awarded a lesser measure of condemnation than many others is owing, as we have already said, to his apparent failure to probe anywhere into the moral foundations of his political creed; but this makes his position only less negative, not more positive.

We have but to add a word of general commendation of Mr. Meigs's book. He has evidently bestowed much labor upon it, and has had to contend with no small difficulties in obtaining his material; but the result is a valuable addition to American political biography.

Tourguéneff and his French Circle. Edited by E. Halperine-Kaminsky. Translated by Ethel M. Arnold. Henry Holt & Co. 1898. 8vo, pp. 302.

This volume is made up of so-called "letters" from Turgeneff to his Parisian friends. Some of those to Flaubert and the few to George Sand have a personal interest, but most of the others are of a very trivial character, mere notes (often somewhat unintelligible) of friendship and of business, or making social appointments and regretting social disappointments, and bemoaning the sufferings and the consequences of his frequent attacks of gout. They have no literary value, but give proof of those qualities of affectionateness, of active good-will showing itself in kind deeds, and of generous admiration which the reader who has any familiarity with "le bon géant" is already aware he possessed.

One of the few passages that add anything to our knowledge of Turgeneff is the following (p. 117):

"You are not fond of walking, but you must force yourself to do it. I was once in prison (in solitary confinement) for more than a month. My room was a small one, and the heat was intense. Twice a day I carried 104 cards (two packs) one by one, from one end of the room to the other. That made 208 turns—416 in the day; each turn took eight steps, which made it come to more than 3,300, nearly two kilometres! Let this ingenious calculation encourage you!"

The remarks of the editor do not increase the value of the book, and it is put together so hastily that he contradicts on p. 260 what he has asserted on p. 11; and in a list of fourteen names Cladel is given as Fladel, Bergerat as Bergeras, Hérédia as Hérèdia, Céard as Séard, Gustave Toudouze as Gaston Toulouse, while George Sand is persistently spoken of as Georges Sand.

The "lady-translator" does not show much knowledge either of the French or of the English language. She makes Maupassant speak of Turgeneff as "a still greater man than Flaubert," when he only described him as a *taller* man. Having by chance the same sentence (about Maupassant) to translate on p. 99 and on p. 242, she renders it first, "He is still a dear fellow," and afterwards, "He is as nice as ever," leaving the reader wondering what third translation might be the true one. She avows that she translates the frequent "Je vous embrasse" by "I send you my love," or "Much love to you," or whatever feminine-like variation she can devise. In attempting to reproduce the easy familiarity of her original she has adopted a youthful vocabulary, and the pages are sprinkled with the words "nice," "splendid," "real bad," "fearfully," "tremendously," "high-falutin," "flustered," and such phrases as "Don't you think?" "I expect you did," "Look here!" "That's his look-out," "dear old boy," "sleepy old pear," "beautiful mess," "fine old row," "lots of talk," "that suits me down to the ground." One cannot feel that this would have suited down to the ground Turgeneff's fastidiousness. A different objection, but a real one, may be expressed at the use, in a translation, of such essentially English terms as "slough of despond" and "bowdlerized."

The book is without table of contents, index, or headlines, which makes it very difficult of reference.

American Book Clubs; Their Beginnings and History, and a Bibliography of their Publications. By A. Growoll. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1897.

Among some of the rarest and most beautiful productions of the American press are the issues of book-clubs composed of a very limited membership, and printing (but not publishing) an edition sufficient only to supply their own members with one or two copies. So small have been these editions, and so hidden in private libraries, that the collector is at a loss to discover what has been thus given out—a knowledge that would in part compensate for his inability to secure the book. Occasionally, they may be found in the auction room, rarely in full sets, and are eagerly purchased at prices that are really fancy, by no means indicating the intrinsic value of the volumes, but fully proving their rarity. The collector need no longer be ignorant of what book-clubs exist or have existed in the United States, for Mr. Growoll has laboriously compiled a list of them and their issues, with historical sketches of their activity. Such clubs have properly existed only since 1854, and their formation naturally coincides with the eras of prosperity. Eleven clubs were instituted between 1860 and 1869, compared with four in the previous decade, and one in the succeeding ten years. Between 1880 and 1889, seven clubs are recorded, and since 1890 another seven have come into being.

It is not without interest to note that of the clubs established before 1880 only two have survived—the Prince Society of Boston and the Historical Printing Club of Brooklyn, each of which issued a volume in 1897. All the others endured for a few years, printed matter of more or less value, and passed out of existence. Nor is the reason far to seek. They owed their origin to one or more active minds—as a rule, book collectors or book lovers or printers—who had a true interest in the undertaking, and succeeded for a time in inspiring others with their enthusiasm. To the death of one man most of the clubs owed their failure. Another cause hindered their growth—the want of a sufficiently large class of purchasers for these somewhat peculiar volumes. The book collectors were few in number and by no means wealthy; and a sumptuous edition of a small number of copies cost much money, and the prices to others than members made them a luxury. Even thirty years ago the originals were not valued much above the reprints, and there was not enough judgment shown in the use of manuscript material. Besides, advantage was taken of the limited popularity to be obtained. The speculator came in and created a fictitious demand, leading to ill-considered and even dishonest ventures. Says Mr. Growoll: "The passion for 'club' publications about this time (roughly speaking, from 1863 to 1870) had passed from a dignified mania to very idiocy. No venture was so absurd, no price was so extravagant, that it failed to find shoals of gudgeons eager to swallow the bait."

The clubs of to-day are very different. They appeal to a large number of rich collectors and well-endowed libraries, and the taste for historical or typographically remarkable books, known to be rare from the date of issue, is steadily growing. To compare the modest and quite ordinary issues of the Seventy-six Society with the brilliant achievements of the Grolier Club, gives a better idea of the change that has come over this form of printing activity than could any words. American history has been the favorite subject, and still occupies the attention of the more serious clubs—like the Prince, the Filson, the Gorges, the Parkman, and the Historical Printing Clubs. In other instances not a few extravagances may be found. The Cadmus issued a single copy of a collection of wedding songs, and the Duodecimos prides itself on genuine eighteenth-century paper and an old hand-press.

Mr. Growoll might have supplemented his account of these clubs by pointing out more in detail the rise and decline of the "large-paper" issues, for which these clubs were largely responsible. The printer's art could not endow them with any beauty. The type was generally antique, the paper of the heaviest ribbed quality, and the size of the page was magnificent, with a small square of printing somewhere in the ample surface. The "barn-door" size was the largest folios, very costly to bind, more costly to keep unbound (for dust and handling easily ruined them), and entire monuments of folly, bad taste, and extravagance. It was this that brought some of the clubs to an untimely end, for the size and cost at war prices for paper and printing meant ruin.

The bibliographical work of this volume deserves high praise. It presented great difficulties, but we have detected no slip or omission in the titles. The typography is worthy of the subject, and the volume, of which only 330 copies are printed, is one more evidence of a wholesome increase of interest in American bibliography.

South Africa of To-day. By Captain Francis Younghusband. Macmillan. 1898.

This book is made up of the letters and telegrams addressed to the London *Times* by Captain Younghusband, while acting as the correspondent of that journal during the recent stirring episode in South Africa. Appearing after Mr. Bryce's 'Impressions of South Africa,' which we recently noticed, such a book as this is at a disadvantage. Hardly any one will care for both books, and of the two Mr. Bryce's has much the more permanent value. It so happens, however, that Captain Younghusband takes up the story of the Transvaal just where Mr. Bryce left it, and his narrative therefore constitutes a sequel to the larger work. This sequel contains the history of Dr. Jameson's raid—an event of sufficient dramatic interest and political significance to command attention. As Captain Younghusband was on the spot at the time of the raid, and is not only a trained observer but also a brilliant writer, what he has to report cannot be neglected by those who wish to follow South African affairs closely.

We do not need to dwell on the circumstances of this remarkable raid, as they are still fresh in the memories of all who read the newspapers. Suffice it to say that Captain Younghusband describes the situation with remarkable fairness. He does justice to the Boers, while stating the case of the Uitlanders in its full strength. Their grievances do not seem to have been outrageous, and their unrest is evidently due chiefly to the knowledge that they are in the majority, while having no voice in the government, together with their conviction that they are the superior and the progressive element in the community. The failure of their attempted *coup d'état* is likely to prevent such attempts in the immediate future, but unless the Boers make some concessions it seems improbable that they can permanently hold so numerous and vigorous an element in subjection. If the peace can be kept for a while, Captain Younghusband gives reasons for believing that concessions will gradually be made.

The reader cannot repress a smile when he turns to Captain Younghusband's account of affairs in Natal. There is an immigration problem there, but it is the English who are in possession, and immigrants from British India who menace their supremacy. If we would understand the feelings of the Boers, we need only look at Captain Younghusband's description of the feelings of the English settlers of Natal. The full statement of the parallel would take us too far afield, and we must limit ourselves to commending it to the attention of students of politics. Here also Captain Younghusband shows himself impartial and open-minded. The control of his English sympathies and prejudices which he displays illustrates the governing capacity of his race. As to his observations on South African matters in general, they accord in the main with those of Mr. Bryce; and, had the latter not covered the ground, Captain Younghusband's book would deserve careful attention. It is at all events so readable that whoever takes it up will be likely to finish it.

The French Revolution. By Justin H. McCarthy. In two volumes. Vol. II. Harper & Bros. 1898.

Seven years have elapsed since the first volume of this work appeared—a delay which might seem to require some explanation from the author. He vouchsafes none, nor does any very satisfactory one suggest itself to us. The French Revolution, it is true, is not an exhausted subject. New materials are being constantly exhumed, new light thrown upon it, and perhaps its proper history remains to be written. But it is not apparent that Mr. McCarthy has made much use of new materials; his work, in fact, might have been produced immediately after that of Carlyle. Nor is it of a character to make its relation to its materials of supreme importance. The public can hardly be expected to accept Mr. McCarthy's impressions as conclusive, or even as presumptive evidence, and he lacks the judicial faculty of "summing up." He gives us the testimony of this witness and of that, not concerning himself much with the question of credibility. This testimony is often contradictory and often plainly false; but that does not particularly disturb him. What he aims at is to produce a dramatic effect, and he has little disposition to omit a telling anecdote because it lacks authenticity.

It is true that Mr. McCarthy occasionally corrects some popular misconceptions. He shows pretty clearly that the Bastille was an innocuous and almost disused old keep, and that the atrocities committed by its destroyers were far worse than those supposed to have been committed on its occupants. He presents an intelligible and consistent view of the character and conduct of Marie Antoinette, and in general it would not be too much to say that his estimates of the prominent actors in the great tragedy are such as have been confirmed by history. We may go so far as to say that, on the whole, readers who depend on Mr. McCarthy for their knowledge of the French Revolution will not be seriously misled. He is not a philosopher. but he is capable of telling a story, and that, after all, is what the French Revolution must be to most people. To be graphic is the main thing in story-telling, and Mr. McCarthy is nothing if not graphic.

As we remarked on the appearance of his first volume, Mr. McCarthy necessarily invites comparison with Carlyle, a fact of which he cannot be unaware. Possibly he thinks that Carlyle's style might be advantageously made smoother, that its shadows might well be lightened. There is no disputing about tastes, and we cannot deny that McCarthy is easier reading than Carlyle, as Tupper is easier reading than Browning. Some people, indeed, cannot stomach Carlyle, and they may fancy this book. But those who can appreciate Carlyle's power will have little disposition to read what will seem to them a feeble imitation of the work of a great master.

Burke's Peerage. Sixtieth edition. London: Harrison & Sons; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1898.

The sixtieth edition of one of the most remarkable monuments ever constructed for the gratification of human vanity represents also a vast amount of curious research, and is a mine of information on the involved subject of social pedigrees, with every facility for ready reference. The "genealogic and heraldic dictionary," as it is called in the preface, has grown into a volume of portentous dimensions (nearly two thousand pages), the greater part of which is printed in exceedingly fine type. This statement will furnish an idea of the quantity of printed matter between the covers. More than 1,600 pages are devoted to the peerage and baronetage; 150 or so to such lesser social fry as knights and privy councillors; and the remainder to a record of the foreign titles of nobility held by British subjects, the holders of various orders, rules of precedence, and other fashionable distinctions.

One feature which is likely to be especially useful to the student of social mysteries is the long alphabetical list, filling seventy-five double-column pages, of the surnames of the nobility and their connections, by blood or matrimony. This is rightly denominated the "key to the work," although some experience is necessary before it can be handled with facility. The array of heirs apparent or presumptive will be scanned with special interest, doubtless, by one class of female readers, and would be doubly fascinating to them if the statement of social were accompanied by one of financial standing. To the cursory reader the most attractive features of the book, probably, will be the coats of arms and the description of the various orders of knighthood. But it is needless to enlarge upon a standard work like this.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bennett, Prof. C. E. Laelius de Amicitia. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co.
Bibliographie der Deutschen Zeitschriften-Litteratur. Band I. Leipzig: Fr. Andrä's Nachfolger; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Brandes, George. William Shakespeare: A Critical Study. 2 vols. Macmillan. $8.
Castle, Agnes and Egerton. The Pride of Jennico. Macmillan. $1.50.
Chapman, J. J. Emerson, and Other Essays. Scribners. $1.25.
Clerke, Agnes M., Fowler, A., and Gore, J. E. Astronomy. [Concise Knowledge Library.] Appletons.
Coutts, William. The Works of Horace Rendered into English Prose. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Davenport, H. J., and Emerson, Anna M. The Principles of Grammar. Macmillan. 65c.
Duffy, Sir Charles Gavan. My Life in Two Hemispheres. 2 vols. Macmillan. $8.
Ervieux, L. d'. Les Renaissances de l'Ame. Paris: Chamuel; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Frankland, Mrs. Percy. Pasteur. [Century Science Series.] Macmillan. $1.25.
Harper's Bazar. 1897. Vol. XXX. Harpers.
Harper's Magazine. 1897. Vols. 94 and 95. Harpers.
Harper's Weekly. 1897. Vol. 41. Harpers.
Hoff, J. H. van't. The Arrangement of Atoms in Space. 2d ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Holm, Adolf. The History of Greece. Vols. II., III., and IV. Macmillan. Each $2.50.
Hornung, E. W. Young Blood. Scribners. $1.25.
Knortz, Prof. Karl. Das Deutschthum der Vereinigten Staaten. Hamburg: J. F. Richter.
Lebon, André. Modern France, 1789-1895. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. $1.50.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. LIII. Smith-Stangen. Macmillan. $3.75.
Lefroy, A. H. F. The Law of Legislative Power in Canada. Toronto: Toronto Law Book and Publishing Co.
Leverett, Edith. Rhymes. Boston: Damrell & Upham.
McManus, Blanche. How the Dutch Came to Manhattan. E. R. Herrick & Co. $1.25.
Meyer, Elard Hugo. Deutsche Volkskunde. Strassburg: Trübner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Mosher, Martha B. Child Culture in the Home. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Müller, Prof. F. Max. Auld Lang Syne. Scribners. $2.
Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary. Frank-Law—Fyz. G—Gaincoming. (Vol. IV.) Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. $1.25.
Norris, W. E. The Fight for the Crown. Harpers. $1.25.
Pendleton, Louis. Carita: A Cuban Romance. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.25.
Pool, Maria L. The Red-Bridge Neighborhood. Harpers. $1.50.
Progress in Women's Education in the British Empire. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Riley, J. W. Pipes o' Pan at Zekesbury. [Homestead Edition.] Scribners.
Ring, Thomas. In the Toils. F. T. Neely.
Rossetti, D. G. Letters to William Allingham. 1854-1870. Edited by George Birkbeck Hill. F. A. Stokes Co. $4.50.
Rouvre, Charles de. Princesse Esseline. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Sennett, Richard, and Oram, H. J. The Marine Steam Engine. $6.
Sheldon, C. M. In His Steps. Chicago: Advance Publishing Co. 75c.
Smith, T. C. The Liberty and Free Soil Parties in the Northwest. [Harvard Historical Studies.] Longmans, Green & Co.
Wallas, Graham. The Life of Francis Place. 1771-1854. Longmans, Green & Co.
White, Percy. A Passionate Pilgrim. Appletons. $1.

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For Interest and Rents,	3,153,044.47	
Profit and Loss	65,289.82	
		$7,961,744.33
		$68,943,415.94

DISBURSED IN 1897.

For claims by death and matured endowments	$4,456,832.23	
Surplus returned to policy-holders,	1,284,481.48	
Lapsed and Surrendered Policies,	596,133.76	
TOTAL TO POLICY HOLDERS,		$6,337,447.47
Commissions to Agents, Salaries, Medical Examiners' Fees, Printing, Advertising, Legal, Real Estate, and all other Expenses	850,479.66	
TAXES	346,938.43	
		7,534,865.56
BALANCE NET ASSETS, Dec. 31, 1897,		$61,408,550.38

SCHEDULE OF ASSETS.

LOANS upon Real Estate, first lien	$33,045,673.68
Loans upon Stocks and Bonds	2,300.00
Premium Notes on Policies in force	983,315.72
Cost of Real Estate owned by the Co.,	9,840,914.84
Cost of Bonds	15,924,674.25
Cost of Bank and Railroad Stocks	473,504.16
Cash in Banks	1,135,965.53
Bills receivable	4,619.17
	$61,410,967.35
Less Agents' Credit Balances	2,416.97
	$61,408,550.38

ADD

Interest due and accrued	$1,029,649.71	
Rents due and accrued	15,962.49	
Market value of stocks and bonds over cost	771,770.27	
Net uncollected and deferred premiums	362,728.13	
		$2,180,110.60
GROSS ASSETS, December 31, 1897,		$63,588,660.98

LIABILITIES:

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All other liabilities	1,303,654.97	
		$56,227,724.97
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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 10, 1898.

The Week.

The appropriation of $50,000,000 in a lump sum by Congress for the national defence will probably make for peace rather than war. Spain does not want war with the United States, and will want it less than ever when she sees that American sentiment is united in support of the President. There is probably some politics in the appropriation also. It gives the Republican party the lead in preparing the country for any emergency that may arise. The Democrats must join the procession, but their place is necessarily in the rear. The effect of an expenditure of $50,000,000 in the present state of the national finances, without any increase of revenue, would be so disastrous that we may safely reckon that no more of it will be actually spent than is necessary. It is true that we have the money in hand, but it is the remains of the last $100,000,000 bond issue of the Cleveland Administration. The gold reserve in the Treasury is now large, but it is liable to depletion at any time in consequence of the excess of expenses over receipts in the general fund; and whenever it is observed to be sinking we may look for a renewal of trepidation in the money market. Nobody has a clearer perception of these facts than Secretary Gage and the Republican leaders in the House. The latter, some little time ago, cut down the estimates for fortifications from about $11,000,000 to $4,100,000, which is the best possible guarantee that the money now voted with such a lavish hand will not be spent without due consideration. Of course, all such movements as this $50,000,000 appropriation are charged with a certain amount of danger. They feed the yellow journals, cause temporary declines in the stock market, but are not necessarily provocative of war. We fail to observe any increase of Jingoism in consequence of it. Your true Jingo politician is one who wants war when there is a clear sky and no great probability that his demands will be gratified; but when the winds do blow he generally goes below.

The enormous danger that lies in an unbridled press—the danger of plunging nations into war in mere wantonness or as a means of making money by the sale of extras—is recognized by the great Powers of the continent of Europe, which have laws adapted to the purpose of suppressing incendiary publications, and sending the offending editors to prison, not arbitrarily, but with very little delay. We have no such laws here, because we have no strong neighbors on this continent. If we were flanked on one side by a Power like France and on another by one like Germany or Russia, a press censorship would be just as necessary as a Health Department. The right to publish matter tending to bring on a war, whether the matter itself be true or false, is not a whit more sacred than the right to land from a ship without first passing the scrutiny of a quarantine officer. The three thousand miles distance that lies between us and Spain muffles the defiances hurled by our yellow journals and the answering ones of the *Globo*, the *Correo*, and the *Imparcial* of Madrid, leaving them free to "scoop" each other and the public without much harm. One of our yellows says that its Madrid dispatch of Thursday was stopped by the censorship—for good reasons, no doubt. It is evident, too, that much matter must have been suppressed before, since Friday's papers contained a deal of hot stuff telegraphed from London from the Madrid papers of February 17, regarding the resignation of Minister De Lome—matter that would have been printed under head-lines from one to two inches high and a foot long if it had been fresh, but which is now tucked away in an obscure corner without any headline at all. The censorship has its uses.

Our usually cool contemporary, the Chicago *Tribune*, follows up its article declaring that "war exists" with one showing why it ought to exist, the inference being that it exists figuratively, only, at the present time. A figurative war is cheaper than an actual one, and therefore to be preferred on some accounts. The *Tribune's* reasons why war ought to exist are of a varied character, implying great penetration on the part of their discoverer into the deeper springs of human action. One of these is that "it [war] would wipe out mugwumpery, which is trying to choke out the vigorous life of the nation." This is said to be one of the desirable consequences of a war with Spain. But why not of a war with England, or Japan, or Turkey, or Chili, or Germany? Is there anything about a war with Spain that should make it peculiarly destructive to mugwumpery? As for war in the abstract, if we can imagine such a thing, its most pronounced advocate hitherto has been the Hon. Theodore Roosevelt, who is also, in the opinion of many Republicans of the Empire State, strongly tinged with mugwumpery. Indeed, the Chicago *Tribune* has been under suspicions of the same sort. Now, we object strongly to wiping out mugwumps by means of a war with Spain. But the wiping-out process, according to the *Tribune*, would not only stop the mugwumps. "It would be the end," it tells us, "of the 16 to 1 abomination." Really it does amaze us to learn that the mugwumps and the Bryanites are both to disappear in consequence of a war. Why are we to look for this result? "Because," says our Chicago contemporary, "the people, seeing the country in the condition of war, would soon make an end of any conspiracy to swindle creditors with 44-cent dollars." There is a certain lack of consecutiveness here which implies that the writer has forgotten that the first act, or nearly the first, in our civil war was the suspension of specie payments and the issue of an irredeemable currency which sank gradually so that in July, 1864, we were using 35-cent instead of 44-cent dollars.

A curious illustration of the confusion of mind about governmental expenditures which generally prevails is afforded by an editorial article in the Columbia (S. C.) *State*, one of the best newspapers in the South, on the business aspects of a war with Spain, particularly as regards its part of the country. It holds that "many productive industries would be greatly stimulated; the transportation of men and war stores would increase the earnings of the railroads; provisions would rise in price, benefiting the farmers who make a surplus; there would be a large expenditure of money by the Government, and this would at once vivify trade; work will be easier to get, whether in the army or in places vacated by those who may enter the army; those dependent on the killed will be pensioned; they will not be left to starve, like the dependents of the victims of peace." From first to last there is not a suggestion that it is going to cost anybody a cent to pay for the great stimulation of industries, the increased earnings of the railroads, the pay of the soldiers, and the pensions to the wounded or disabled and those dependent on them. Apparently the editor of the *State* thinks that this would all be clear profit, which we shall miss if we escape war.

The Madrid newspaper *El Nacional* proposes that the island of Cuba be sold to the United States on condition that we assume the Spanish debt appertaining to it, that we allow Spain to enjoy for a certain time her tariff privileges, and that we guarantee life and property to the Spanish inhabitants of the island. The first of these conditions—the assumption of the Spanish-Cuban debt, amounting to $400,000,000 at the lowest calculation—is the only one worth much attention. Supposing that Spain might, at some time in the near future, come to

the opinion which the *Nacional* advances, is it at all likely that Congress would assume that debt—a gold debt, by the way—and make the taxpayers of the United States pay the interest on it? The chances of such a step are not one in a hundred. The truth is, that if the island were offered to us as a free gift we should be by no means in haste to accept it. Possession of it as a part of our assets has never been a motive with the people at large, although a few persons who have pecuniary interests there would be glad, of course, to have their property put under a flag capable of protecting it. The spur that pricks us on has been the spectacle of a people near our shores fighting for independence. This is a motive which bears no mercenary tinge. It may be a mistaken one in the sense that we have too hastily assumed that the insurgents are "the people of Cuba," but it is not soiled with the desire of gain. We wish that Cuba may be free, but if it were free, we should be not more eager to annex it than we are to annex Hawaii. Therefore we should be not at all inclined to pay money for it. Further discussion of the subject may be postponed till there is some evidence that the *Nacional* represents the opinion of Spain in making the suggestion of sale, which is scarcely credible. We do not believe that any government could hold power at the present time which should even entertain the proposal of selling the island. Yet the time may come when Spain will be compelled to drop it, either with or without compensation.

The Hawaiian annexationists in Congress are evidently puzzled to know what to do next. The Senate committee on foreign relations discussed the subject for hours on Saturday, and finally decided to let the treaty remain before the Senate a while longer. The more ardent advocates of the scheme are exceedingly loath to abandon the treaty, although nobody any longer pretends that a two-thirds vote can be secured. They recognize that the failure of the treaty not only will prevent annexation by the easiest method, but will foreshadow the defeat of the project by any method. A joint resolution must take its chances along with other legislative matters before the Senate; and, worst of all, it must encounter public discussion before that body, which is what the annexationists most dread. Then, if it shall ever get through the Senate, the resolution must go to the House, to encounter the hostility of the Speaker and other prominent Republicans, and to be subjected again to the dreaded ordeal of debate. The fatal difficulty in the way of the scheme is confessed by its friends to be the growing force of public opinion against it. The Washington correspondent of the *Tribune* reports that "it is apparent to the friends of the convention in the Senate that some steps must be taken at once to carry out the President's policy, if the impetus of public sentiment in favor of annexation is not to be materially lessened or practically lost." Here is a proper characterization of annexation as "the President's policy"—the party's policy having been defined in the St. Louis platform of 1896 as "control of the islands"—and a plain admission that whatever impetus the Administration gave its scheme last December, has been practically lost by three months of discussion. The Republican press is speaking more and more plainly regarding the President's indefensible course in this matter.

The Senate committee on commerce has, by a unanimous vote, made an adverse report upon the nomination of Henry Demas as Naval Officer for the Port of New Orleans. It is a curious circumstance that the anniversary of inauguration should thus coincide with an incident which strikingly illustrates the weakest side of Mr. McKinley's Presidential career. Demas is the most notorious reprobate among the host of disreputable men whom the Republican party in Louisiana has developed since the war. He is a negro who took to politics for "what there was in it" as soon as his race was given the suffrage, and has "made a good thing of it" during the quarter of a century since he started. He became a member of the Legislature in the reconstruction period, and was conspicuous for his corruption from the first. He was the paid agent of the Louisiana State Lottery in the Legislature, and received a stipend of $100 a month from that company for years, going regularly each pay-day to draw his money. Besides, he had two lottery offices given him by the company, which paid him additional sums in commissions on the sale of tickets. He was a Republican member of the State Senate when the governorship was in dispute between Packard, Republican, and Nicholls, Democrat, after the election of 1876, and was one of the four Republicans who finally abandoned the Packard Legislature and joined the Nicholls body so as to give the latter a quorum, receiving therefor $10,000. Demas displayed the same qualities of treachery and corruption twenty years later. When the canvass for delegates to the Republican national convention in 1896 opened, he professed to be an ardent supporter of Mr. Reed, took money from the latter's friends to defray the expenses of the campaign, and wrote the Speaker a letter promising his support. Later, he "flopped" to McKinley, and openly boasted that he had "thrown" Reed, and would be rewarded therefor with a good federal office.

All these charges against Demas are made by Louisiana Republicans of high standing, who have also shown that he is as disreputable in private life as in public. Notwithstanding this information, Mr. McKinley appointed Demas Naval Officer during the recess of Congress last September, to the disgrace of the civil service of the nation for nearly half a year. The President delayed sending the nomination to the Senate as long as possible, in the hope that the storm of public indignation would "blow over," and the entire influence of the Administration has been exerted to secure confirmation. Despite all that Senator Hanna could do, however, every Republican member of the commerce committee was constrained to join with every Democrat in making an adverse report.

The Bryan Democrats in Kentucky are at it again. They have passed a bill in one branch of the Legislature to prevent the making of contracts payable in gold, and to make gold and silver a legal tender in payment of debts on equal terms. The latter clause is of no consequence, unless it seeks to enlarge the legal-tender acts of Congress, in which case it is a mystery. Kentucky has not the power to coin money. Nor, in our belief, has it, or any State, the power to say that people shall not make contracts with each other payable in gold, or in tobacco, or in building-stone, if they choose to do so. The only one of the legislatures in session in 1897 to pass an anti-gold contract law was that of Washington, which enacted that all debts are payable in lawful money or currency of the United States, regardless of any provision in the contract of indebtedness. Like measures were introduced in Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Missouri, and Tennessee. In the last-named State the measure was adopted by the House. If Kentucky goes on and passes it, we hope that somebody will bring the constitutionality of the measure before the courts at once. It will not be necessary to warn capitalists to keep away from a State which betrays an intention to cheat creditors, and is prevented from doing so only by the superior authority of the federal Government.

Everything now indicates that "harmony" is to prevail among the Pennsylvania Republicans. The situation was this: Quay wanted to pick out his own man for Governor—he has never yet realized his ambition to own a Governor—and to reëlect himself to the Senate; Dave Martin of Philadelphia and Chris Magee of Pittsburgh naturally thought this was a little too much, and threatened to make trouble for the boss; many Republican business men were anxious to beat Quay's favorite for the governorship. Under these circumstances Quay has coolly thrown over this favorite,

and notified Martin and Magee that they may pick out the Governor if all hands will turn in and reëlect him to the Senate, which is perfectly satisfactory to the Philadelphia and Pittsburgh leaders. No further controversy among the Republican politicians is expected; and, with "harmony" restored in the management of the party, the business men who have been protesting against bossism will doubtless lose their interest in the independent movement, Quay will get another six years in the Senate, and amicable arrangements for the government of the State will be made between Quay, Martin, and Magee.

The verdict of the town elections continues to be heavily against the Republican party in this State. In the 25 counties in which elections have been held, the Democrats have made a total gain of 75 Supervisors and the Republicans a total gain of 3, leaving a net gain of 72 to the Democrats, as compared with the elections of 1896. The drift of popular sentiment is, in fact, all in the direction of the Democratic party, and is the natural result of two years of Platt-Black-Payn administration at Albany. That the warning is not heeded by the Governor is shown by the appointment which he made last week for Superintendent of Prisons, Mr. Collins of Troy. All that is said in disparagement of Mr. Collins may not be true, but there seems to be no dispute of the fact that he is a thoroughgoing machine politician of the type which ought not to be trusted with the very large amount of patronage associated with the prison department of the State. The appointment is, in fact, in line with that of Lou Payn, showing that the Governor is still determined not to yield to "irresponsible assault or intolerant clamor." The idea that he can carry the State by strengthening the grip of the machine upon his party seems to have complete possession of him.

The main reason for Gov. Black's willingness to concede most of the new primary methods which the reformers are advocating, is to be found, doubtless, in the provisions which he has had introduced for the holding of special primaries this year. The regular method, after this year, will be to afford all voters an opportunity to enroll on the regular days of registration. Of course, since the primaries to elect delegates to the State conventions this year must be held before the registration of voters, some especial arrangement must be made for an enrolment upon which to hold those primaries. The provisions advocated by the Governor are for enrolment by certificate from April 17 to 30, and a general public enrolment for all parties on May 10. This will, of course, be a very different thing from offering to every voter an opportunity to enroll when he registers, and it will be much easier for the machine men to get a majority in such an enrolment. If the reformers accept the plan, enroll their names, go into the Republican primaries, and are outvoted in them, the result will be that a Black delegation will be chosen to the State convention, and they will be deprived of all excuse for revolting and supporting an independent ticket. In other words, they will be "harmonized" into silence. The Governor is willing to take the chances of machine injury in the more remote future if he can secure this advantage now.

Why should Senator Page, who is a Republican, favor a change in the law which would enable Tammany Hall to put Paddy Divver upon the City Magistrates' bench? Why should he be able to get a Republican committee to report favorably his bill making this change, and why should there be danger of its passage through a Republican Legislature? These are questions which strike at the very foundation of Republican politics in this city, that foundation being an offensive and defensive alliance between Tammany and machine Republicans for "spoils." Mr. Page's bill amends the present excellent law, which provides that no person shall be eligible to the City Magistrates' bench who has not been a practising lawyer for at least five years, in such a way as to make eligible any man who has served as a Police Justice for two years. The only object of this change is to lower the standard of qualification—that is, to admit to the bench the very class of men who were tipped off it when the old system was abolished in 1895. Mr. Page has the impudence to say, "Tammany will not put back on the bench the same kind of men—Tammany would not dare to," which is a novel view for a Republican to take. He also says: "It is absurd to require that a Police Justice shall have had five years' experience as a lawyer. Joseph H. Choate may be an able lawyer, but he would not make an able Police Justice." This is the usual Tammany argument—that because the police courts sit in judgment upon toughs and blackguards, you should have toughs and blackguards to dispense justice in them.

The decision of the Supreme Court in the Nebraska freight-rate case marks the swing of the pendulum in the opposite direction from that of the Granger cases of twenty years ago. Although full control over railroad rates was not, in the latter cases, conceded to State Legislatures, it seemed probable that eventually it would be. In the Nebraska case it is declared that in no event can a State Legislature deprive a railroad of net earnings altogether, if the business offered to it is sufficient to yield such earnings, and that if necessary the courts will inspect and to some extent regulate the rates charged for traffic even when wholly within the limits of a State. "While," says the opinion, "rates for the transportation of persons and property within the limits of a State are primarily for its determination, the question whether they are so unreasonably low as to deprive the carrier of its property without such compensation as the Constitution secures, and therefore are without due process of law, cannot be so conclusively determined by the Legislature of the State, or by the regulations adopted under its authority, that the matter may not become the subject of judicial inquiry." This is only another way of saying that railroad property cannot be confiscated by a State any more than that of an individual can be —a proposition that will surely be sustained by the public opinion of the country at large, and probably by that of the State to which it particularly applies, as soon as the people shall have calmly reflected upon it.

A very ludicrous libel suit against the London *Daily News* was tried recently before the Lord Chief Justice, and disposed of by him in his usual effective and unceremonious manner. A solicitor at law, who had been at one time engaged to a girl, but had been thrown over by her, had persisted in his attentions to such an annoying extent that she had appealed to the authorities, and had had him arrested and put under bonds to keep the peace. In its account of these proceedings, the *Daily News* had set him down as a "Love-Stricken Solicitor." This was one of the causes of complaint. When it was put before the Lord Chief Justice, he said: "Well, I presume that is true. I do not see any excuse for him unless it is." When next complaint was made that the report of the proceedings had been so much condensed that it was incomplete, the Lord Chief Justice asked: "Do you mean to say that a newspaper is bound to put in every word that is said? Why, it is a very mild report." When the counsel for the plaintiff, seeing the attitude of the Lord Chief Justice, said he should be content if the jury were permitted to say whether in their opinion there was a libel or not, his Lordship convulsed the court-room by saying: "I am not going to rule that it was not a libel. It is for the jury. If you wish it, I am quite prepared to put the question to the jury; but if I do, it will be with the strongest intimation on my part that they would make themselves ridiculous if they found that there is any libel. You cannot make bricks without straw." The jury at once volunteered the information that they were convinced there was no libel, and judgment was entered for the defendant, with costs.

CUBAN AUTONOMY OR INDEPENDENCE?

A foreign critic has said that the United States and Spain seem to be rushing into a war with each other against the will of the governments of both countries. This is true in case the governments of the two countries are tolerably but not absolutely firm in their resolve to avert it. If they are really determined to prevent it, there is a plain way to accomplish that result. The United States, fortunately, has never committed itself to the opinion that the rebellion in Cuba has the support or sympathy of a majority of the bona-fide inhabitants of the island. The postulate that they are a majority is extremely dubious. Indeed, the evidence runs strongly to the contrary. On the other hand, we are committed to the opinion that Spain ought to grant autonomy to the island, and hence that the measure of autonomy now granted ought to have a fair trial. The rebels have refused it. They have refused even to consider it. They have put to death one Spanish officer who had sought a conference with them on the subject, and have threatened death to any others who may make a similar attempt. In rejecting the offer of autonomy they are "banking" on the United States, expecting to drag us into a war on the margin of difference between autonomy and entire independence.

This raises the question, What is meant by Cuban independence? Does anybody imagine that if all Spanish officials and Spanish troops were at once withdrawn, quiet would be restored to the island? Would such a step be the prelude to peace, or to a new revolution with two or possibly three presidents and legislative bodies struggling for the mastery of the island? Is it imaginable that the cultivated people of Havana and the property-owning classes of the other cities would tamely submit to the leaders of guerilla bands, some of whom were brigands by trade before the present revolt began? Independence has come to have a meaning in our ears derived from our own war of independence, but no such analogy can be found in the condition of Cuba. Our ancestors of the Revolution had a government, an army, a Congress, and a fair majority of the people in each and all of the colonies. They had George Washington for a leader, whose name alone stamps that struggle with a character of sublimity. They had a diplomatic standing in the world and an alliance with France, offensive and defensive.

The difference between our ancestors and the guerilla bands of Cuba is enormous; yet the word independence is lightly applied to the latter as though the consequences of granting independence to Cuba would be the same that they were in our own case. The truth is that nobody can say what new scenes of disorder would result from such a step. Judging from the example of the other Spanish-American colonies, half a century of intestine strife and bloodshed would ensue unless we should seize the island and impose peace on the warring factions. Would that be an easy thing to do? Suppose that the rebels do not like our rule, as very likely they would not after trying it a while. Are we to furnish the troops to put them down and restore order? Suppose that the other side, the opponents of the present rebellion, should not like our rule, and that their discontent should end in a fresh revolt. Should we bombard or blockade Havana thereupon?

These are questions for our Government to consider. Shall we plunge into the calamity of war for the sake of a few straggling bands who are hiding in mountain fortresses, burning cane-fields and sugar-mills, and stopping the industries of the peaceful inhabitants, and who probably represent only a minority of the people of the island, and who refuse even to consider the offer of autonomy which Spain has offered them at our instance? It seems incredible that such a step can be desired by any thinking person in the United States. We believe, in fact, that it is not desired by any considerable number, whether they may be classed as thinking or unthinking. We believe that a campaign of education and of religion—for it is evident that the clergy of the country, both Protestant and Catholic, are almost a unit against an aggressive war—would result in an overwhelming victory for the Administration if it takes firm ground that autonomy must be fairly tried before any further steps are taken on our part.

We are very near the parting of the ways, where we may take a step that will change our entire destiny. The possible consequences of a war, not in self-defence, but of our own seeking, are so tremendous that no man who holds the issues in his hands can possibly be justified in taking the initiative in bringing on hostilities. The first thing that would happen would be the shattering of the prosperity which has just dawned upon us after the panic of 1893. We have already had forewarning of disaster in the sudden fall of United States 4 per cent. bonds of 1925, which declined four points within a few days after the explosion on the *Maine*. A similar decline of British consols would have meant a general upheaval of Europe. Why was there so great a fall of our national securities on so small a provocation? Simply because everybody believes that with the very beginning of a war the gold standard would be put in jeopardy. We might or might not drop to the silver basis. We might even go lower than that, as we did during the civil war. It is the element of uncertainty that causes the mischief. There is a party pretending to be the majority that desires a depreciated currency, regards it as a good thing, and hence would seize every occasion and opportunity of war or peace to bring it about. No man can tell what would be the financial outcome of a war. All that we know now is that, as regards our standard of value, we are in a state of unstable equilibrium. This is the reason why our securities tumble so easily. This is the reason why people begin to hoard money in safe-deposit boxes as soon as any dark cloud appears on the horizon. Experienced bankers are of the opinion that several millions have been withdrawn from the channels of circulation for hoarding purposes since the explosion on the *Maine*. This is the reason why every little incident like the dispute about Consul-General Lee sends a tremor through the stock market and through all business circles.

THE DECLINE OF THE PORT.

The report of the Chamber of Commerce, made on the 3d of February, on the decline of the commerce of this port, followed the annual message from the Governor, recommending a commission of inquiry into the causes of this decline and into the best mode of arresting it. This again has been succeeded by the introduction of a bill in the Assembly by Mr. Laimbeer to carry out the Governor's suggestion. The report of the Chamber of Commerce makes only two recommendations, one that "the differentials" existing in the rates of railroad freights to Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Newport News should be abolished, and the other that our channels should be deepened. It showed that while there was an increase of more than $100,000,000 in exports over the whole country in 1897, there was a decrease of $23,000,000 at the port of New York. New York has lost in shipments of cotton, breadstuffs, and provisions, but has gained in the exportation of locomotives, cycles, and other merchandise. But the Chamber evidently attaches most importance among the causes of the decline to the railroad "differentials," and to the defects of the harbor.

It is always a little dangerous to suggest to New Yorkers that their prosperity is affected in any degree by moral as well as by material agencies, yet we cannot help saying that if the Governor's commission confines its inquiries about the decline of the port to "differentials" and channels, its report will be incomplete and therefore unsatisfactory. If the government of this city during the past twenty-five years, and the account we ourselves have been compelled to give of it, have had no effect on the business of the port, it is contrary to all human experience of ports and governments. This experience has shown that no port, however favorably situated, either as regards harbor or communi-

cation with the interior, has long maintained its supremacy under bad government. Spain has several ports as good as New York. Constantinople has a better one, but none of them attracts much commerce. A large part of the attractions and advantages of all ports lies in the character of the officials with whom traders have to deal, their honesty and civility. It has always been so. Even in the Middle Ages, the Hanse Towns and Venice relied fully as much on the quality of their laws, the integrity of their rulers, and the soundness of their currency to preserve their business, as on their mercantile capacity.

Considering what has been known and believed about our harbor masters and health officers, for the last thirty years, the wonder is that so much foreign trade has reached us. For at least that period shipowners have been complaining of the way they had to bribe harbor masters in order to secure a convenient berth at our wharves and keep it. T. C. Platt was Quarantine Commissioner at this port, in defiance of the Governor, for seven years. Does any one believe that he was occupied during this period in promoting the commerce of the port, and making access to it easy? Even within two years we have known of a case in which an impudent and ignorant subordinate of the Health Officer boarded one of the large transatlantic liners in the upper bay, when the captain was on the bridge, directing the difficult progress of his ship through numerous craft steering in every direction. The Health Officer sent for him to come down to sign formal papers, on a lower deck, fully ten minutes away from his post. He naturally and properly refused. The result was a delay of his steamer so that she missed the transshipment of the lighter portion of her cargo to the West Indian liner which was leaving that day. There were no "differentials" here or want of water in the channel. The agent of the French Line had to confess before the Lexow committee that he had to bribe heavily even the policemen on the dock. Doubtless if the private records of every shipowner who uses the port were got at, it would be found that the amount he had to spend in corrupting the port officers, in order to be able to transact his business in peace and quiet—health officers, custom-house officers, harbor masters—had made a bad hole in his profits, leaving the annoyance quite out of the question.

It would be a little ridiculous if American merchants were to admit, even in fun, that the business of a great port could be successfully carried on for an indefinite period by inexperienced men, holding their places by short tenures, for reasons wholly political and in no way commercial, and expected to turn over a portion at least of their illicit gains to a political party. Does any one suppose Croker is interested in the growth of the port, or knows anything about the reasons why ports rise or decline? Why, Jenkins is "slated" for the next Health Officer, in complete disregard of his record in 1892. Nothing is more wonderful about our condition than the way in which we persuade ourselves that foreigners know nothing about all this, or even like it; that when a ship comes up the bay the captain is thinking of "differentials" and the depth of water, and not at all of the way in which the Health Boys, the Harbor Masters, and Quarantine Officer and the custom-house officers will deal with him. The remarks of Mr. Washington at the meeting of the Birth Committee a fortnight ago, showing how a Birth Celebration would advertise New York in foreign ports, were as good as anything in comic literature. Why, it is the best advertised city on earth, but what brings it advertisement is not the goodness of its port, or the uprightness of its merchants, or the riches of its rich men, but the badness of its government, the extraordinary spectacle of a municipality of the first order ruled by ignorance, incompetence, and corruption. We do not say this accounts wholly for the decline in our commerce, but we do say that any inquiry why our commerce has declined which leaves this out of account, will be partial and incomplete.

THE LONDON MUNICIPALITY.

The fight between the two parties in the municipal election in London is not difficult to understand. The Moderates simply represent the Conservatives and Lord Salisbury, and are opposed to a consolidated administration under one municipal government. They object to having the large and rich parishes like Kensington and Westminster cease to have control of their own revenue, and be obliged to share the burdens of the poorer parishes in the East End. They object to having the ground rents of the great landholders at the West End subjected to taxation for general municipal purposes. They object to the purchase of the street railways by the municipality. They object to the purchase of the water-works by the municipality. They object to having work done by the municipality directly, instead of by contractors. They object to the extensive schemes for housing the poor which the Progressives have on foot. Finally, the two parties are radically divided on the subject of religious education in the schools. In fact, it is radicalism and conservatism arrayed against each other.

As regards the first point, there is little doubt that the desire of the Conservatives to have the Council broken up is due chiefly to their fear that it would train up a set of politicians in the nature of bosses, who would convert it into a little parliament or Jacobin club, which would seek to overawe the Parliament at Westminster. For this reason Lord Salisbury has wished to substitute for it a set of little municipalities or "boroughs," each with its own taxation and the management of the greater part of its own affairs.

Moreover, the West End distinctly does not wish to take care of the East End if it can help it. The heavy taxpayers wish to have their taxes, if possible, spent on themselves. But behind all this there is the fear of growing socialism, the fear of some kind of levelling process, they do not well know what. As well as one can make out from the discussion which is constantly raging, however, there does not as yet appear to be anything in sight to dread, except the consolidation of the city into a great corporation in which the burdens will be equally distributed and the benefits also. Strange as it may appear to us, the question of the honesty or competency of the employees of the corporation has not once been raised during the canvass. It has not been charged that any one was unfit for his place, or got it through favor or corruption, or through being the favorite of an old pugilist in Whitechapel or Southwark. No one seems to expect to get a place through the election; there is no "slate." No "dead beat" or saloonkeeper talks of getting his dues at last out of the public, or of being able to lay up something for his old age. The discussion seems to have turned entirely on public questions. To be sure, the Liberals were generally on one side and the Tories on the other, but neither has discussed the sugar bounty, or the treaty with China, or the South African question. Both have talked of water-works, of taxation, of the employment of city labor, of the purchase of street railways, of education in schools, and of the needs of the poorer districts, but there has been no talk of imperial interests. The issues were not issues of war or peace, but of plain domestic concerns.

Much electioneering as there has been, it is not likely that Lord Salisbury's fears about the growth of politics will ever be realized, as long as there are no spoils. Places are to a politician what manure is to a plant. Before he becomes really dangerous to the public, you have to dig around him and dung him with "spoils." You have to let him know that if he "hustles" he will get something; that for the first time for months, it may be for years, he will receive regular wages; that his pay will no longer depend on diligence or industry of any description; that he will no longer be watched by any one who has anything to do with the work, and that if he pleases a boss somewhere who does not care how the work is done and never sees it, he may have an easy time. This state of things is not likely to arise in an English town for a good while, but it is the

state of things which demagogues are trying to bring about in every democratic town in the world. Lord Salisbury shows his fear of it by complaining that so many men are already devoting their whole time to the work of the Council, although they serve without pay. He evidently thinks they are already concocting "politics."

There are undoubtedly some narrow ends of wedges in the administration, if we may judge from our experience. Men who really devote their whole time to the questions now before the Council may eventually devote their whole time to getting votes for the Council. The water companies and street-railroads may eventually "put up a job" on the Council, by paying a boss heavily for buying their enterprises at high rates, or for not buying them at low rates; or the great landowners may pay him for getting the Council to "let up" on the ground rents, or the contract system may be wholly abandoned, in order that the laborers of the Council may have time to deliberate on politics. But London probably thinks itself guaranteed against these things by the fact that the democratic world seems to be at last waking up about city government. Democracy begins to see that it is its manner of governing cities which is bringing disgrace on it, and may eventually ruin it; that "forewarned is forearmed." New York has probably given an invaluable lesson to all the cities in Christendom by showing what may result from trusting to luck.

FRENCH "EVIDENCE."

M. Demange, one of the leading men at the French bar, was, for the reason that he was eminent, chosen as the counsel of Dreyfus before the court-martial. He has made an extraordinary statement since the trial, in the *Matin*, a very respectable journal, which is copied entire in the *Temps*, which stands now at the head of the French press. We cannot reproduce it all textually, but we shall give a fair account of what he says.

When M. Demange was retained by Dreyfus's brother, he went to see Dreyfus in his prison, and asked him, not if he was innocent, for he assumed that he was, but if there was anything in the *dossier*—any document, that is to say—which might embarrass him when produced. Dreyfus denied that there was. M. Demange then satisfied himself that if the trial was public, acquittal was certain, and he directed all his efforts to avoiding a trial either wholly or partially secret. He determined, for this purpose, to agree to make no inquiry into the origin of the "bordereau," but to confine himself to showing that Dreyfus had not written it. But these efforts were vain. At the first hearing, when the word "pièce unique" was mentioned, the "huis clos," or secret trial, was immediately ordered. The discussion then began, and M. Demange says he speedily destroyed all the garrison cackle about Dreyfus's thefts of documents, and so dealt with police reports about him that the prosecution abandoned everything except the authorship of the "bordereau," or memorandum. Here we must let M. Demange tell his own story:

> "Every one knows now the famous proof of the handwriting. In the text which, under dictation, Capt. Dreyfus wrote in a hall surrounded with mirrors, he remarked that in one place a word had got out of line, while all the rest, before and after, was written with a regular and firm hand. But —and this is startling—it was not in this momentary irregularity of the writing that M. Paty du Clam saw what he professed to think a sign of trouble, but in the fact that this irregularity was only momentary, and that Dreyfus so soon recovered himself. It was his recovery (*la répossession de soi-même*) which, in the opinion of M. Paty du Clam, determined his conviction! He even added—a strange admission and worthy of remembrance—that had Dreyfus issued victorious from this test, he (Paty du Clam) would have abandoned the accusation."

Then comes something droller still, considering that a man's fortune and liberty were at stake:

> "This conviction is founded on another observation still stranger, the *foot proof*. M. Paty du Clam said to the tribunal that emotion, in natures of great self-possession and capable of concealing their feelings, often shows itself by the trembling of the foot when the legs are crossed. When he went to surprise Dreyfus in his bed, he affirmed before the tribunal that he found in the accused this sign of guilt, which, added to the former one (the irregularity in the written line), strengthened his conviction. Before these stupefying revelations we had at once to have consultation with the bar, to see in what way these fantastic means of investigation should be met."

Oddly enough, somewhat similar evidence was accepted in this country in the trial of Gen. Fitz John Porter for failure to support Pope. One witness testified, and the Judge-Advocate also, that Fitz John Porter's looks previous to the battle showed that he was going to commit treason. To such follies can men go when they have a "reason of state" in their heads.

M. Demange's account of another, and very prominent, witness is very entertaining:

> "Col. Henry affirmed with assurance—what he had long known—that 'there was a traitor in the fourth bureau, and that it only remained to discover the thread, and that he had discovered it, owing to indications which he could not specify.' Here everybody present started up in surprise. One of the Judges requested him to be more precise, and tell how these indications reached him. Col. Henry replied, 'that he could not say more, but that he got them from a person of whom he was as sure as he was of himself.' At this moment Dreyfus, who, in the presence of these strange revelations, had shown great excitement, started from his seat, and, addressing the witness, said: 'Who is this person? Let him be brought here. Let us hear him; let us see him. Nobody will know his name. We are in secret session. Nothing can prevent his coming.' To these pressing entreaties, in which we joined, the officer continued his resistance, and at last, turning to Dreyfus, pronounced, theatrically, these words: 'Monsieur, I am an officer; a soldier's cap should ignore what he has in his head.' "

M. Demange then goes on to tell that while in the provinces, in the spring of 1896, he fell in with an old legal friend who told him that he had been dining some time after the trial with one of the officers who sat in the court-martial, and asked him how it was that such a man as M. Demange, who had been present at the trial, still believed in Dreyfus's innocence. "Because," said the officer, "naïvement," "M. Demange has not seen what we have seen," and then told of the "pièce secrète" shown to the court after the trial was over. The astonished lawyer then said to the officer: "Never tell this to any one else, for if Dreyfus has committed *lèse-patrie*, you have committed *lèse-justice*." M. Demange adds that some one said to Mathieu Dreyfus in his office: "Doubtless your brother is innocent, but your duty is to sacrifice him to the honor of France."

We are afraid false notions of the "honor of France" and of "the honor of the army" are at the bottom of the whole of this wretched business. The popular excitement in defence of the ruin of a soldier by a secret trial, on evidence not submitted to him and which would startle Betsy Prig, is one of the most painful features of the case, and says little for the progress of moral ideas in democracies. It reminds us, too, a little, of the rascalities of which some men among us are ready to be guilty for "America."

THE TRANSVAAL SITUATION.

The question at issue between President Krüger, now beginning his fourth Presidential term, and Chief-Justice Kotze is of the utmost political importance, and likely to affect most seriously the immediate future of the Tansvaal Republic. Briefly stated, the struggle is to determine whether the High Court of Justice shall be, like our own Supreme Court, independent of the Legislature or subservient to it, whether it shall have the right to test the validity of a law by reference to the written Constitution of the state, or whether it shall be forced to recognize in the Volksraad a legislative authority overriding that of the Grondwet itself. As matters now stand, the President has summarily dismissed the Chief Justice and appointed a creature of his own to the highest judicial office in the republic, on the understanding that the enactments of the Volksraad—practically, that is, of the President himself—shall *ipso facto* be the law of the land.

Americans do not need to be told what utter legal and constitutional chaos would result in their own land from a similar suppression of the powers of the Supreme Court. The confusion is worse confounded in the Transvaal, where a small and ignorant minority, holding all the legislative offices, are bitterly hostile to the majority, who,

though they own half the land and pay nineteen-twentieths of the taxes, are yet without any real share in the government of the country. Chief-Justice Kotze has been the one safeguard of the rights and property of the Outlanders against the oppressive legislation of the Boer oligarchy. During the twenty years he has sat on the bench in South Africa, he has won for himself a reputation not so greatly inferior to that of John Marshall in America or of Lord Mansfield in England. He has vigorously claimed for the judiciary its rightful place in the government, as the living voice of the Constitution and the sole judge of what is and what is not the fundamental law of the state. His dismissal has roused the gravest apprehensions among the Outlanders. Their fortunes, holdings, occupations, are now absolutely at the mercy of the majority in the Volksraad. For twenty years they have enjoyed taxation without representation. Now they are to taste taxation without justice.

The question whether the Grondwet of 1858 embodies a rigid or flexible constitution has always been a disputed point among lawyers even in Pretoria and Johannesburg. President Krüger's action has, at any rate, settled that. The Grondwet is now declared to be so much waste paper, and its provisions alterable by the Volksraad without reference to the people. As is natural with a document drawn up by pastoral stock-farmers with little legal knowledge or experience in government, it is a crude, cumbersome, and often obscure instrument. Among its 250 articles no mention is made of any scheme of amendment. Its general spirit, and the fact that it was enacted by a Volksraad specially elected *ad hoc*, incline one to believe that its framers intended it as the fundamental law of the republic, alterable only by the specific vote of the whole people. Parts of it have always been so regarded. Other clauses, again, have been virtually nullified by act of Volksraad without protest from the judiciary. Such has been the fate of the provision that three months should be allowed the people for the purpose of expressing their opinion of any proposed law. In general one may say that by the prevailing Roman-Dutch law of obsolescence by contrary practice, the Grondwet has come to be regarded as a flexible and not a rigid constitution. The judiciary has adopted the fatal policy of compromising instead of following the example of the United States Supreme Court. In cases where the transgression of the Constitution has seemed slight and unimportant, no resistance has been offered to the Volksraad; but in other and more vital cases the High Court has reserved to itself the right of declaring an act unconstitutional and therefore void.

Obviously such a haphazard system could not continue for ever. The time was bound to come when the Volksraad and the judiciary would be brought into serious conflict. Chief-Justice Kotze foresaw the inevitable result of the gradual encroachments of the Legislature, and tried—quite ineffectually—to rouse the Boers to the danger of neglecting to guard their Constitution. The collision came at the end of 1896, when the Chief Justice declared the alien immigration act and the press act unconstitutional—both violently oppressive measures, and therefore dear to the President's heart. The Volksraad, at the bidding of Mr. Krüger, who was himself spurred on by the governing Hollander clique, at once passed resolutions requiring the judges to pledge their recognition of the acts of the Legislature as the supreme law. This the Chief Justice refused to do. The crisis was deferred for a time by the compromise of March, 1897. By this compact the High Court agreed not to question the laws and resolutions of the Volksraad, provided that, "as soon as possible," the Grondwet should be established upon a higher basis than any ordinary enactment, and the court be made entirely independent. The court observed its part of the agreement faithfully enough, and gave the Volksraad a free hand through the whole of the last year; but Mr. Krüger, whose finer qualities are often marred by the low cunning of a farmer who has been mixing too much with lawyers, has not proved equally true to his word. He signalized his reëlection to the Presidency last month by abruptly dismissing the Chief Justice. The chances, therefore, of the Grondwet being reaffirmed or strengthened or even respected, are singularly remote. The Chief Justice has not taken his dismissal lying down. He has adjourned the High Court *sine die*, and denied with much vigor the right of the President to turn him out. But Mr. Krüger has the love of his people as well as their ignorance to back him—not to mention the war-chest—and it is fairly safe to assume that he has accomplished his object and made the Transvaal judiciary dependent on and subject to the Volksraad.

The directness of this blow at the Outlanders cannot fail to embitter the relations between Great Britain and the Transvaal. President Krüger has learned something since Dr. Jameson's criminal blunder. He realizes the folly of attempting to play off Germany against England, and he is probably too astute not to know—certainly too astute not to conceal his knowledge—that though the word suzerainty was omitted from the convention of 1884, the *thing* suzerainty was contained in it clearly enough. It is only in the direction of internal reform that this cool and wary old Boer refuses to move. Many of the demands of the Outlanders must be judged by an impartial observer to be unequivocally just; yet not one of them, except the demand for the use of English in some of the elementary schools, has been granted. The dynamite monopoly still continues to oppress the mining industries without benefiting the republic. The railroad tariffs still remain unreduced, in spite of the emphatic recommendations of the industrial committee appointed by the Volksraad. The unwarrantable restrictions on the franchise are still in force. Government is still in the hands of a corrupt and incompetent minority, who tax and harass the wealth-producing and business portion of the residents to their heart's content. A prudent statesman would not add to this list of anomalies, least of all by such a blazing irregularity as the open prostitution of justice. It may easily be found within the next few months that President Krüger has for once been betrayed by his self-confidence into dangerously overreaching himself.

LARROUMET'S RACINE.

PARIS, February 10, 1898.

One of the best writers of the day, M. Gustave Larroumet, has undertaken to write a book on Racine in Hachette's series, "The Great French Writers," a publication which is very successful, and deservedly so. Some of the volumes are excellent, others are indifferent, if not bad; but, on the whole, the series is of great interest. It seems audacious to undertake a new life of Racine and a new analysis of his work, but our *fin-de-siècle* critic does not see things as the critic of 1830 did before him. Criticism, like history, takes a new color in every new generation. M. Larroumet represents eminently the modern criticism, which may be called analytic criticism, inspired by the method inaugurated by Taine. It is a sort of dissection of the subject. The work of an author is considered as the outward expression of his inner life; and biography becomes an essential part of the critical work. Racine may be said to have, more than many others, profoundly felt the influence of his education, his own passions, his friendships, his private and social life. The sentiments which he expressed were in a great measure the sentiments which he experienced.

He was born at La Ferté-Milon, a small town of Isle de France in the Valois, on December 22, 1639. He was the first son of Jean Racine, collector of the salt-tax, and of Jeanne Sconin. The office held by his father conferred on him a sort of nobility. The family had had arms for two generations, and, curiously enough, there was a swan in these arms (the harmonious poet was often compared to Virgil, the "Swan of Mantua"). There was also a rat in them, but the poet had the rat struck off when he had them registered in 1697; he kept only the swan, though the two beasts together made a kind of rebus—*Rat-cygne* (Racine). He became an orphan at the age of four, with a young sister. He was brought up in his grandparents' house, where his grandmother, Marie des Moulins, proved a second mother to him. In 1649 she became a widow and retired to Port Royal des Champs, and the young Racine was sent to school at Beau-

vais. There he remained four years. In 1655 he was called to Port Royal, and admitted among the pupils of the Fathers, in the school founded by Saint-Cyran. There were never more than fifty pupils in it. This education had an extraordinary influence on Racine. The methods of instruction were admirable: each professor had a very small number of pupils; the children were conducted by persuasion and gentle means—no harsh discipline, no brutality; the professors took care to use the best writers of antiquity, Greek and Latin—they had no second-hand books; they read with their pupils in the original text. They taught the doctrine of Jansenism—the impossibility for man to arrive at moral perfection by his own merits, the necessity of the divine grace, the easy triumph of passion over man if passion is not arrested by the help of God.

The tender and delicate nature of Racine, his pliable intelligence, were admirably adapted for such discipline. He became imbued with the Old and New Testament, with Greece and her famous authors. We still possess his copy of the Bible, covered with notes. I was so fortunate as to find his Æschylus, with his name in it and a few notes. Many of his favorite books are found in some famous libraries—not the books, of course, which he had at school, but those which he used as a man, which he always had very well bound. They are all the great classics of antiquity, Greek and Latin. The tragedies of Sophocles and Euripides took such possession of him at school that he spent days learning them by heart in the woods round Port Royal. He found accidentally the Greek novel of 'Theagenes and Chariclea.' He was reading it when one of the fathers, Claude Lancelot, took the book away from him and threw it in the fire. Racine procured for himself another copy, which had the same fate; he learned the book by heart in a third copy, which he brought to Lancelot, saying to him, "You can burn this one as well as the others."

The first verses which Racine wrote were in Latin, an ode "Ad Christum," which has been preserved. This was followed by several French odes on the "Promenade de Port Royal des Champs," easy, fluent, inspired by the scenery of the valley, which the Fathers of Port Royal themselves called the Desert, and which in the language of the time was thought "savage," while to our eyes, accustomed to the horrors of high mountains, it seems merely agreeable. By a strange contrast (but all fine characters have contrasts) the tender Racine had an ironical tendency in his nature. His early letters show well this singular mixture. He does not remain completely under the severe influences of Port Royal. After three years, he leaves the school in October, 1658, at the age of nineteen. He takes his year in philosophy at the Collège d'Harcourt.

In Paris Racine made many friends, some of whom were in the theatrical world. He knew La Fontaine, some comedians of the Theatre of the Marais and of the Hôtel de Bourgogne. Hé promised some actresses to give them parts in the plays he was beginning to write. His friends of Port Royal were afraid, and wrote to him letter after letter, or, rather, as he said, excommunication after excommunication. The young poet printed in 1660 an ode on the marriage of Louis XIV. with Maria Theresa, with the title, "The Nymph of the Seine." It was a commonplace production, but Colbert sent him a present of a hundred louis, and soon afterwards put him on the pension list for six hundred livres, in his quality of man of letters. His uncle, Vicar-General of Uzès, tried to make him take orders at that time, and Racine had to pay a visit to Uzès. He arrived there at the end of 1661, and was lodged in a tower which formed a pavilion in the episcopal palace, and which may still be seen. Racine found himself there in exile; he compared himself to Ovid among the barbarians. He corresponded with his friends in Paris, sometimes in prose, sometimes in verse. He waits in vain for the ecclesiastical call; he studies theology in vain. His mind is in Paris, in the northern part of France; he does not like the south, its climate, its inhabitants. At last he loses patience, and returns to Paris in July, 1662.

He had given up the idea of being a priest, but, thanks to the efforts of his uncle, he obtained a benefice, the priory of Sainte-Madeleine de l'Épinay, in the diocese of Angers. The young prior had some lawsuits with his rivals, a circumstance to which we owe the amusing comedy "Les Plaideurs," the only comedy which he ever wrote, and which is still sometimes played. Besides this priory, Racine obtained two others, Saint-Jacques de la Ferté and Saint Nicolas de Choisel. We still find him in possession of these priories in 1673, when he was in the midst of his theatrical career.

The death of Racine's grandmother broke the last tie with Port Royal, and he gave himself now completely to the theatrical world. He made the acquaintance of Molière, who gave him, it is said, the subject of his first tragedy, the "Thébaïde," which was represented on the 20th of June, 1664. His aunt, Sister Agnes, made a futile appeal to him: "I write to you in the bitterness of my heart. . . . I have learned that you associate more than ever with people whose name is abominable to those who have any piety," etc. Nicole wrote to a friend, speaking of Racine: "A novel-writer and a theatrical poet is a public poisoner, not of bodies, but of souls." Racine wrote in answer a letter which he did not sign, and which was an attack on the solitaries of Port Royal, "a masterpiece," says M. Larroumet, "of spite and wit." This quarrel with Port Royal lasted ten years. Racine said later to the Abbé Tallemant: "Sir, it is the most shameful part of my life, and I would give all my blood to efface it." In reality, the rupture was only apparent; we find the spirit of Port Royal in all the work of Racine. Boileau became very intimate with Racine; they met regularly, with La Fontaine, Chapelle, Furetière, some gentlemen of the court and officers, sometimes in their own houses, sometimes at the cabaret, the "Mouton Blanc," the "Pomme de Pin," the "Croix de Lorraine."

"Alexandre le Grand" was Racine's second tragedy. It was first recited at the Hôtel de Nevers, before a fine assembly—La Rouchefoucauld, Pomponne, Madame de la Fayette, Madame de Sévigné and her daughter. The first representation (December 4, 1665) took place before Monsieur, brother of the King, and his wife, Henrietta of England, the great Condé, and his son the Duke d'Enghien, the Princess Palatine, Anne de Gonzague. The success was great, but the audience was divided; the generation of the Fronde was faithful to Corneille, the new generation adopted Racine. Racine was twenty-five years old when "Alexandre" was played. His noble face is well known as engraved by Edelinck. He gave a part in his play to Mlle. du Parc, who was admired by Molière and the old Corneille, and he felt a violent passion for her. He wrote for her the part of *Andromaque*. He dedicated this admirable tragedy, his first masterpiece, to Henrietta of England. Curiously enough, "Andromaque" had not as much success as "Alexandre," though it is infinitely superior. Racine's triumphant career, however, begins with "Andromaque." He next produced "Britannicus," "Bérénice," in which Champmeslé, the best actress of the day, played the principal part. The great Condé admired the tragedy of "Bérénice" so much that he applied to the piece two verses which are found in it:

"Depuis trois ans entiers chaque jour je la vois,
Et crois toujours la voir pour la première fois."

Racine wrote for Champmeslé the tragedy of "Phèdre," in which she could develop her fine qualities; Champmeslé is forgotten, but "Phèdre" is immortal. "Mithridate," "Bajazet," "Iphigénie" complete the cycle which precedes the religious tragedies of Racine—"Esther" and "Athalie." "Phèdre" was the crown of the first cycle, and there was a long interruption between "Phèdre" and the religious dramas.

Racine had always remained secretly attached to Port Royal; he had been for a time intoxicated by theatrical success, by the world's applause; but in the preface to "Phèdre" he speaks already of "reconciling tragedy with a number of people celebrated for their piety and their doctrine, who have condemned it lately." Racine made his peace with Nicole, with Arnauld; he resolved to abandon the theatrical career, and he married (in 1677) an orphan, Catherine de Romanet, who belonged to a very honorable family. The great Condé signed his contract. Racine led from this time a quiet, domestic life. He was induced, as is well known, to write again, only at the request of Madame de Maintenon, for the demoiselles de St. Cyr. He had been appointed historiographer to the King, and accompanied him at the siege of Namur. He had seven children by his marriage, two sons and five daughters, and practised all the virtues of a good father. Four of his daughters entered convents; only one was married. One of the boys entered diplomacy and died young. Louis Racine became a poet—that is to say, he wrote a poem with the title "La Religion."

I can only, in ending, recommend Larroumet's work; it is full of matter and in every respect interesting.

THE ARTS AT MYCENÆ.

ROME, January, 1898.

The technical indications in a former article, on the remains of Mycenæ, look to conclusions which have a very great importance in relation to the discoveries connected with the name and researches of Schliemann, and which, unless they can be controverted, dissipate definitely the hypothesis of the high antiquity of either the tombs in which the treasures now at Athens were found, or the palace at Tiryns. If it be true that no knowledge of the art of stone-cutting, properly speaking, was possessed by the people who restored the façade of the great tomb at Mycenæ and built the second tomb, known as that of Mme. Schliemann, besides adding

to the Lion gate the relief of the lions—which conclusions are to me indisputably shown by the technical evidence—it follows that wherever we find stone-cutting, *i. e., with chisels*, we are in the presence of work posterior to that which is recognized by the greatest authorities as of the seventh, or at furthest the eighth, century B. C., at which former date the stone-saw and most probably the tube-drill were, *according to tradition*, introduced; a date which strengthens the opinion of those authorities as to the epoch of the relief of the Lion gate.

To resume, for convenience of comparison, the facts which are, I believe, indisputable: The work done with "the stone-hammer and plumb-line" of Hesiod, which comprises all the earliest style of the remains at Mycenæ, and was done by splitting, hammering, and trituration, is earlier than the seventh or eighth century, by an indeterminable period. The stone-saw and stone-drill appear at that epoch and any chisel-work is later; and from all the researches I have been able to make, there is in the Hellenic world no proper stone-cutting, *i. e.*, chisel-work, earlier than the sixth or at furthest the seventh century. I believe the former to be the limit, with possible exception of work in the soft volcanic stone, of which in the Italian sphere all the earliest cut-stone work consists, as this material can easily be worked with the bronze tools which have come down to us from ancient times. I assert that no hard stone, such as the limestones usually employed in Greek building, can be indicated as in use earlier than the sixth century, and I accept the opinion of the authorities which put the date of the Lion relief at the earliest in the eighth century.

Now, in the constructions which environ the tomb that once contained the Mycenæan treasure at present in the museum at Athens, there are stones coming from various stages of the decay of Mycenæ, both of the earliest epoch and of the two later, showing the use of the tube-drill and the chisel respectively. This alone indicates that the tomb and surrounding structure are later than the sixth century. But there is still stronger evidence of this comparative modernity in the treasure itself. In the *Ephemeris* of 1894 (part 3) there is an article on this subject by Mr. Nicolaides, which shows in its illustrations a fragment of a silver vessel (part of the treasure) with a besieged city—a portion of the walls with their defenders and archers and slingers fighting outside the defences. This Mr. Nicolaides maintains to be a representation of the siege of Troy, and, as the most celebrated siege of antiquity, it may be assumed to be so. But what, in any case, is decisive of the epoch in which it was made, an absolute proof that it is subsequent to that siege, is the fact that the walls of the city there represented are in regular, parallel courses and rusticated, which features cannot be found in any Hellenic walls earlier than the sixth century (or, as I believe, the fifth). The position of the relief in the tomb precludes the idea of its being of accidental and later inclusion, and the inevitable inference is that the tomb is that of a sepulture later than the sixth century B. C.

This conclusion would in fact alone account for the curious and otherwise inexplicable mélange of objects of various epochs and evidently of different stages of art. It is that at which I had arrived from the first examination of the tomb and its contents; and the condition of the interred bodies at the moment of discovery made it inconceivable that a date corresponding with Schliemann's theory should be assignable to it. The form of the grave, so entirely different from everything known elsewhere of the interments in Hellenic usage of any epoch, made this problem an insoluble one from the beginning, and so it still remains, on any other hypothesis than that it was ethnologically and chronologically an intrusion into the Hellenic locality. The probability of its being a *reinterment* has been admitted by some of the most strenuous advocates of its assignment to an extreme antiquity, and is an hypothesis indispensable for the explanation of the manner of inhumation, the secrecy of it, and the circular and Stonehenge-like monument which crowned it. The discovery by Tsountas of the great virgin beehive tomb near Sparta, with objects belonging to the earlier period of those found at Mycenæ, gave an intelligible clue to the mystery; and that of the immense collection of tombs, many rifled in ancient times, in the immediate vicinity of Mycenæ adds to the evidence in favor of my original hypothesis, viz., that the Schliemann tomb was a late interment, in which the treasures of a chief of a band of temple or tomb-robbers had been deposited with the bodies of the family of which he was the head.

As the researches of Tsountas proved, among other things, that the city had been reoccupied after the period of its supposed destruction and abandonment by the Argives, and had been inhabited down into the Roman conquest, the possibility of such an occupation as would permit the reinterment is, I suppose, undeniable, and the hypothesis solves every problem connected with the treasure. Have we any indications of such a state of affairs as would render this hypothesis, *a priori*, probable? This I propose to show to be the case. Among the fragments of Diodorus Siculus ("The Virtues and the Vices," ed. A. F. Miot, Diodore di Sicile, vol. vi., p. 490) is this:

"Pyrrhus, after having given up to pillage the city of Aegæ, residence of the kings of Macedonia, left in it a Gaulish garrison. The men who composed it, having learned that formerly there was, according to ancient usage, the custom of burying in the royal tombs large sums of money [treasure?] with the dead buried there, violated these tombs, divided the treasure which they found there, and scattered the bones. This violation of sepulture drew down the public malediction on Pyrrhus, who did not, nevertheless, dare to punish the Gauls, necessary to him in his warfare."

That is to say, until the entry of the Gauls in Greek territories, the tombs had been preserved from pillage by the religious scruples of the inhabitants, which is, *au reste*, in accordance with all that we know of the period and people; and the Gauls, having no reverence for the religious prejudices of the Greeks, pillaged the graves of their kings as well as their temples. The plunder of the royal tombs in those parts of Greece to which they had access is the natural consequence.

The solution of a barbaric inhumation was proposed by the great Russian archæologist, Stephani, at the time of the discovery, but his attribution to a period subsequent to the beginning of the Christian era was easily shown by Prof. Gardner to be untenable, and his hypothesis has, consequently, been left out of account. The Russian was, however, I believe, right in the general conclusion, and only misled by the analogies between certain finds in Russia of a later date which bore a very perceptible relation to those of Mycenæ. The evidence brought forward by Mr. Nicolaides is so precise in its bearing on the date of the workmanship of the vase in question that it seems to me to dispose definitively of any archaic attribution to the inhumation of Mycenæ.

The technical evidence given by the remains on the palace site of Tiryns bears directly on the solution of that problem, and in as decisive a manner as that on the tomb. The slabs of limestone found in the ruins of the palace are worked with the stone-saw and the tube-drill; nothing appears of the earlier manner of working, the conglomerate finished by trituration—all that is *in situ* is of the stone-saw period, and, consequently, must be brought down into the early period of Hellenic work proper. Its attribution to the pre-Homeric period is, therefore, incorrect. During the discussion of this question at a meeting of the Hellenic Society of London, called *ad hoc*, which my engagements did not permit me to attend, this point was not brought out, and Dr. Middleton, who was there the most authoritative supporter of the view of Drs. Schliemann and Dörpfeld, based his opinion on the presence in the ruins of stones worked by the stone-saw and tube-drill. But in subsequent conversation with me on the subject, he admitted to me that he was not aware of the technical distinction between the archaic and the seventh-century methods, and had attributed both kinds to the former period. As his opinion was the most decisive adduced at the meeting, it carried with it the great weight which his almost unequalled knowledge of antique processes gave, and was considered by many of those present conclusive. It had, however, as I have shown in my former letter, ignored the most important distinction due to the subject. The other problem, *i. e.*, whether the limestone slabs found at Tiryns bearing the evidences of the use of the stone-saw and tube-drill formed part, in the situation in which they were found, of a palace of their epoch, or, as I believe, had been re-employed in a palace of the Byzantine times, the ruins of which covered the Acropolis of Tiryns, remains unaffected by this evidence, while the contention of Dr. Jebb, Mr. Penrose, and myself, that the ruins are not those of a pre-Homeric edifice, agrees with the conclusion based on all the technical evidence here adduced. W. J. STILLMAN.

Correspondence.

WHAT JEFFERSON AND MADISON WOULD HAVE SAID.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "X" in the *Nation* for February 17 suggests the dignified and genial attitude which Washington and Lincoln would have taken on such an incident as the De Lome letter. Without laying too much stress on an affair now happily past and unhappily overshadowed by more gloomy events, it may be worth while to point out that two difficulties arose, nearly a century ago, which, taken together, are almost a parallel to the De Lome affair. In 1804, the Marquis of Casa Yrujo tried to incite a newspaper editor to attack the Ad-

ministration, for which, with other reasons, his recall was soon after demanded. He refused to leave the country, and in 1806 published in the newspapers some of his own violent letters to the Secretary of State.

In 1808, after the French subversion of Spain, De Onis was sent over by the Bourbon Government. The United States declined to receive him as a Minister, but he remained as an unaccredited agent, enjoying the hospitality of the country. A semi-official letter to the Captain-General of Caracas fell, in 1810, into the hands of the American authorities, and President Madison sent it to Congress. The message and the letter are so characteristic that it seems worth while to transcribe them. They may be found in American State Papers, Foreign Affairs, iii., 404. In 1815 De Onis was recognized as Spanish Minister, and negotiated the Florida cession of 1819.—Very truly yours,

ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

CAMBRIDGE, February 28, 1898.

January 10, 1811.

To the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States:

I communicate to Congress, in confidence, the translation of a letter from Luis de Onis to the Captain-General of the Province of Caraccas.

The tendency of misrepresentations and suggestions, which, it may be inferred from this specimen, enter into more important correspondences of the writer, to promote in foreign councils, at a critical period, views adverse to the peace and to the best interests of our country, renders the contents of the letter of sufficient moment to be made known to the Legislature. JAMES MADISON.

PHILADELPHIA, February 2, 1810.

The administration of this Government, having put the stamp upon the servile meanness and adulation in which they stand in relation to their oracle, Bonaparte, the day before yesterday, by their direction, Mr. Eppes, the son-in-law of the former President, Jefferson, made a proposition that a Minister should be immediately sent to Joseph Bonaparte, at Madrid. This was supported, in the committee in which the House then was, by Mr. Cutts, who is the brother-in-law of President Madison. There were various debates, there were howlings in the tribunals, there were sarcasms against the Supreme Central Junta, and many trifling observations from one party and the other, among which mention was made of the arrival of a minister from the Supreme Junta, and of this Government's having wisely refused to receive him; and, at length, a vote was taken, from which it resulted that, for the present, no minister was to be sent to Joseph.

In the annexed paper you will see all the debates, which, for want of time, I have not been able to have translated. If your excellency should not be informed, by my former despatches, of the mode of thinking of the present administration, this alone will show the little hope there is of obtaining any thing favorable from it, *but by energy, by force, and by chastisement.*

The facility—I again repeat it, and I will repeat it a thousand times—with which American vessels are admitted into our colonies, preferring them to our own, makes these people believe that our weakness does not permit us even to talk to them on equal terms, much less to take measures which may injure them. From hence springs the great opinion (*la grande opinion*) they have, that the intruder, Joseph, will rule in Spain and her colonies; and hence the incitement to their scandalous conduct in promoting, by every means in their power, the machinations of Joseph to make himself master of our colonies, as if upon that depended their happiness.

The determination of making war on England, and of treating Spain with contempt, supposing that her nullity did not entitle her to any thing else, was taken by the present administration some time since, though it was not in them the determination of reason. To accomplish it, they thought of forming an alliance, offensive and defensive, between France, Russia, Denmark, Sweden, and the United States; and some even suppose that it is formed. With this object they have sent Mr. Adams to the court of St. Petersburg, in quality of minister plenipotentiary, directing him to examine on his way (*haciéndole recorrer al paso*) the courts of Stockholm and Copenhagen; but, notwithstanding this, if England should display her energy, in however small a degree, and if, on our part, some vessels should be sent to their coasts, and some troops should draw near to Louisiana, there is reason to believe that we should see these provinces separated and divided into two or three republics, and, consequently, they would remain in a state of perfect nullity. We should soon have from the republic of the north, which would be our friend, all the supplies which are now drawn from the others, who would perish from poverty and quarrels among themselves.

This country is now without a cent, with a deficit of four millions of dollars in her revenue, with not more of an effective army than six thousand despicable men, of whom two thousand five hundred, that they had at New Orleans, are reduced by death to six hundred; and although they have passed a law for one hundred thousand, much time and money will be necessary to organize them. Its navy is for the most part disarmed, although they propose to arm it, and the whole of it is reduced to eight or nine frigates. The blindness of these people is such, that the Secretary of the Treasury (Gallatin), speaking with Colonel Joseph de Gonzales, late Governor of Puno, who, from his having come from the Havana, Mexico, and other provinces, he believed (not knowing his integrity) to be one of the many emissaries of Napoleon, the *caste* which abounds most here, offered to him the constitution of Paine, and other papers relative to the liberty which here they dispute about, persuading him to send them to Mexico and our other colonies, and that he should endeavor to induce them to unite themselves to this republic; that here they were ready, if this succeeded, to move near to them, or even to place in their country, the seat of Government. These, sir, are the ideas with which this administration is animated. Notwithstanding, at the time they observed this conduct, they sent General Sumpter in the character of minister plenipotentiary to Rio Janeiro.

God preserve you many years.

LUIS DE ONIS.

To the CAPTAIN-GENERAL of the Province of Caraccas.

A NEGLECTED SCIENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Surely, singing may claim the title of a divine art, and no less should the training of the vocal instrument be considered a science requiring as thorough knowledge of the anatomy, physiology, and hygiene of the parts involved as is required for the whole system in the case of the physician. From the days of the Greeks to the present time, there has been a lamentation over the asserted decadence of the singer's art continuous with the evolution of the song-form in its various phases, and the changing of standards of what shall in each epoch be held artistic singing. Most of those who have studied the question most carefully will probably feel that on the whole the art of song interpretation has kept fair pace with the higher ideals of the present day. Be this as it may, when the vast army of vocal pupils is considered, the number of truly great artists is appallingly small, and even the number of singers who use their voices so as to insure long life to their instruments, and a tone which appeals alike to the heart and ear of the audience, is out of all proportion to the number of teachers and scholars.

Unfortunately, the profession of voice-training is still at the mercy of the almighty-dollar grabber. Any individual is free to herald himself as a Vocal Instructor, whether or no he has had proper preparation either in the knowledge of the vocal instrument or in the science of imparting knowledge. Strange to say, not one teacher in a hundred knows that any literature of the subject exists outside of a few volumes of solfeggio and other exercises; much less do they have any idea that there is any use in trying to learn anything from books—a statement which will be received almost with incredulity by educated people.

Since incompetent teaching and crass ignorance of the voice as an instrument, not of wood and metal, but of living tissue, are undoubtedly to blame for the yearly ruin of many thousands of beautiful American voices, it would seem as though some action might properly be taken to restrict the practice of voice-training by law to those who had thoroughly prepared themselves according to a truly educational standard, such as is now requisite to practise as a physician, lawyer, apothecary, or even plumber, because ignorance which may harm the pupil client is, or should be, considered criminal. How this can best be brought about is an open question, requiring no less immediate action because of the difficulties involved. It certainly should be included in the educational problems of the day; and when we take into account the close relation of proper voice use to the individual, in the sense both of a delightful accomplishment and of an active factor for augmented health through deep breathing (a cure for a large portion of the nervous troubles of which we hear constant complaint), the question becomes one of unusual interest.

For the benefit of those interested should be noted the publication begun in the February number (1898) of the *Musician* (Hatch Music Co., Philadelphia) of what is said to be the first bibliographical list of works on "Voice-Production and the Art of Singing" ever published in any language. It will include about six hundred titles, and all readers are requested to show their interest by coöperating to make the list accurate and complete.

Now that our leading colleges (Columbia, Yale, and Harvard) have recognized the value of music as a useful factor in a college curriculum, it would seem as though we might look to them for assistance in driving the charlatan and the quack from the vocal profession. J. STANFORD BROWN.

NO. 1 BROADWAY, NEW YORK, March 3, 1898.

THE RETALIATION OF FINAL G.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In commenting on the suppression of *g* in the ending *-ing*, so widely prevalent, as shown by a correspondent's surprising array of examples in the *Nation* of February 17, you say:

"The suppressed *g* partly avenges itself in this country by attaching itself in speech to final syllables in *n*, as 'certing,' 'certingly,' for certain, certainly."

This peculiarity of speech, frequently heard in this country, seems to have been a characteristic of the northern English dialect, as the following examples from literature, ready at hand, would indicate:

"And enterit in a lusty gairding (garden) gent."—Wm. Dunbar: *The Thrissil and the Rois* (1503).

"This gud knycht said: deyr Cusyng (cousin) pray I the."—Henry the Minstrel; *Wallace* (1461).

"And sum were eke that fallyng (fallen) had so sore."—James I. (of Scotland): *The Kingis Quhair* (1423).

"All those quhilk funding (funden) bene on lyve" (all those which be found alive).—Sir David Lyndesay: *The Monarche* (1552).

It made its way into standard English in the expression, *much beholding* (beholden), frequently met with in Shakspere and in general literature:

"A justice of peace sometimes may be beholding (beholden) to his friend."—*Merry Wives.*

With this may be compared *unknowing* for *unknown* in *Roister Doister:*

"Neque lux, neque crux, neque mourners, neque clinke;
He will steal to heaven, *unknowing* to God, I thinke."

E. A. A.

University of Missouri, March 5, 1898.

FOREIGN EXPRESSAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An American residing in Munich, Bavaria, received recently from New York a package containing ten copies of a book sent through Pitt & Scott's Foreign Express Agency. The prepayment of the package by the sender cost $1.50. After the lapse of nearly a month the package reached its destination via Antwerp and Frankfort, with additional charges of two marks (fifty cents) for "boundary expenses," "custom-house," etc. There are no such expenses levied by the German Government, and all books are imported free of duty. If the ten books had been sent by mail in three or four small packages, the whole cost would have been ninety cents, and they would have reached their destination in two weeks. Comment is unnecessary. P.

PROF. STOWE AND CASAUBON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is certainly to be regretted that the generally excellent review of the 'Life of Harriet Beecher Stowe' appearing in your last issue (February 24) should contain a characterization of Dr. Stowe which all who knew him must immediately recognize as markedly inadequate and misleading. To some it may appear even unjust and unkind—though doubtless the reviewer meant to be perfectly fair, and was only unfortunate in the sources from which he was compelled to draw his information. Yet it would seem that, had it been a fact, as he asserts it was, that Dr. Stowe labored under a certain constitutional inability to distinguish between "things real and visionary," it was an infirmity that should have endeared him to one who can allude to Mr. Casaubon's family as "augmenting itself annually," when, as a matter of fact, Mr. Casaubon unfortunately had no family.

Such misquotation of a well-known author would lead us to surmise that Dr. Stowe and Mr. Casaubon are not the only "futile" scholars whom our century has produced.

Charles Edward Stowe.

Simsbury, Conn., March 1, 1898.

[It was of "the real Casaubon" that we wrote that his family augmented itself annually ("s'augmente annuellement," in the words of the Town Council of Geneva). Mr. Stowe, by consulting Mark Pattison's 'Life of Isaac Casaubon,' p. 485, will find that he had by his second wife "seventeen children and no more" from 1588 to 1612.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will publish 'French Essayists and Romancers,' by Mlle. Blaze de Bury; 'The First Republic in America,' by Alexander Brown; 'Washington versus Jefferson,' by Moses M. Granger; Poems by Mrs. Florence Earle Coates; the second and concluding volume of Hannis Taylor's 'Origin and Growth of the English Constitution'; 'Unforeseen Tendencies in Democracy,' by Edwin L. Godkin; and 'Tales of the Home Folks in Peace and War,' by Joel Chandler Harris.

M. F. Mansfield will publish directly 'The Picturesque Thames, from London to Oxford,' by John Leyland, with 300 full-page illustrations.

A new story, by Albion W. Tourgee, 'The Man who Outlived Himself,' is to be issued by Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

Lamson, Wolffe & Co. publish immediately 'Marching with Gomez,' by Grover Flint.

An authorized translation of Brunetière's 'Manual of the History of French Literature' is in preparation by T. Y. Crowell & Co., who announce also 'The Poems of Shakspere,' edited by George Wyndham.

Brentano's have nearly ready a translation of Stendahl's 'Le Rouge et le Noir.'

W. H. Mallock's new book, 'Aristocracy and Evolution,' will bear the imprint of Macmillan Co.

March announcements of D. Appleton & Co. embrace 'Studies of Good and Evil,' by Prof. Josiah Royce; 'Psychologic Foundations of Education,' by Dr. W. T. Harris; 'A History of Italian Literature,' by Dr. Richard Garnett; 'A French Volunteer of the War of Independence (The Chevalier de Pontgibaud),' translated and edited by Robert B. Douglas; 'The Animal World,' by Frank Vincent; 'The Story of Animal Life in the Sea,' by Sydney J. Hickson; and 'The Disaster,' a story of the Franco-Prussian war, by Paul and Victor Margueritte.

'The Year's Art' (London: Virtue; New York: Brentano's) is rapidly approaching its majority. The volume for 1898 is the nineteenth annual issue, and is marked by all the good features acquired in this period. The Artist's Calendar has been grafted on to an Artist's Diary. The "Notes on Architecture" for the past year are continued. Among the twenty-seven artist portraits we observe Mr. Joseph Pennell's. There are the usual memoranda of select pictures from the provincial exhibitions; the list of engravings published in 1897; the invaluable Directory of Artists, and the Arts and Crafts membership appendix. The editor, Mr. A. C. R. Carter, notes with regret the death of Sir Frank Lockwood, whose legal distinction was not incompatible with cleverness in caricature. In fact, his portrait was published in 'The Year's Art' for 1895 in the series of "Eminent Black-and-White Artists."

'The Story of a Red Deer,' a little book by the Hon. J. W. Fortescue (Macmillan), apparently written for young people, is equally fit for older ones to read, and, indeed, is full of interest for any naturalist or lover of nature. It is the biography of an Exmoor stag from his earliest calfhood to the day when, in the fulness of matured strength and vigor, he plunges over a fall and ends his life after a gallant race before the hounds. He and his mother and kin are friends to all the wild natives of the moor and forest, and they talk together and help each other through the troubles and dangers of an animal existence in a way which Mr. Fortescue so describes as to make it seem perfectly natural and as if it could hardly be otherwise. The friendly teachings of Aunt Yeld, a spinster hind, the talks and warnings of Lord Salmon, and the egotistic optimism of Bunny are all in strict accordance with what one familiar with these creatures would expect them to do and say, and there is nothing in the book untrue to Nature interpreted by one who loves her and has by long intercourse fathomed her secrets.

The 'Tales of the Real Gypsy,' by Paul Kester (Doubleday & McClure Co.), are six in number, and are followed by an appendix. The stories, though rather highly drawn, especially the first one, "A Rommany Guldo," are not devoid of charm for those interested in these fascinating people, but are encumbered with such an amount of untranslated Gypsy words and phrases as to make them in parts unintelligible to the ordinary reader. Mr. Kester's own knowledge of the Gypsy language does not keep him from inaccuracies in the use of it. For instance, chavo is a boy, chavi, a girl, and he makes the Gypsy mother in the first story call her boy by the feminine name. Loose as Gypsies are in the use of their practically unwritten language, they never call a boy a girl. Mr. Kester has also changed the spelling in many instances from such as is generally current—"fedarar" (better) Smart and Crofton spell "ferradair" or "fettadair"; "chel," a fellow, is spelled "chal" by Borrow, Leland, and Crofton. The appendix, especially in its "Traits and Characteristics" and "Facts about the Gypsies," is interesting and instructive.

Why works on economic geology should be weak, and, from a scientific standpoint, inconsequential, may be difficult to explain, but such is the fact, and Prof. A. B. Willmott's 'The Mineral Wealth of Canada' (Toronto: William Briggs) is no exception to the rule. It is a brief general treatise on ores and minerals, their occurrence and uses, with special reference to Canadian localities, so that whatever importance it has is as an economic geology designed for Canadian students. It is a pity that it is not a safer guide, for the present activity in the development of the mineral resources of Canada will assure the book an extensive sale. This means, then, a perpetuation of ideas concerning ore deposits which should have been consigned to the *limbus fatuorum* long ago. To read in these days of great fissures in the earth remaining open at such depths as would be necessary for subsequent filling with ores, is somewhat discouraging in the face of all the evidence to the contrary. The author could hardly have done worse than

select Louis's classification of ore deposits as a basis for discussion, but faulty interpretation of vein phenomena need not necessarily have followed, even after laying so bad a foundation. The introductory chapter on minerals and rocks is so absurdly insufficient that it might better have been omitted in favor of an index, if space was a consideration. The references to authorities are very good, and constitute one of the few valuable features of the work.

A 'Bibliography of the Metals of the Platinum Group,' by Dr. James Lewis Howe, professor of chemistry at Washington and Lee University, has been published as No. 1084 of the "Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections." The purpose of the work is "to enumerate the articles upon the metals of the platinum group found in scientific literature to the close of the year 1896." The author has not attempted to follow certain divisions of the subject which are outside of the department of chemistry, such as the use of platinum in electrical apparatus, in photography, and in connection with the X-rays. The work is published on the recommendation of the committee of the American Association for the Advancement of Science having charge of indexing chemical literature.

There has hitherto been no convenient guide for English students to the language now generally spoken in Persia, such grammars as those of Forbes and Clarke giving rather the quasi-classical Persian of India. The lack is well supplied by Dr. Fritz Rosen's 'Modern Persian Colloquial Grammar' (London: Luzac & Co.), which contains a short outline of the grammar, with dialogues and specimens of narrative prose. The statement of forms is generally clear and the arrangement is good. Numerous extracts are given from the diaries of the late Shah, Nasir-eddin. His Majesty is supposed to write good Persian, and, by employing the colloquial form, has done much to raise it to the dignity of a literary language. His remarks on European things and persons are simple, often naïve, but always intelligent and kindly.

Volume 7 of the 'Oeuvres Complètes de Christiaan Huygens,' published by the Société Hollandaise des Sciences, is now in the hands of American subscribers. It embraces the correspondence from 1670 to 1675, leaving twenty years of the life and the works proper still to be accounted for. Of the 626 pages of this solid and sumptuous quarto, 64 are occupied with the very admirable indexes. The text is abundantly fortified with figures and facsimile reproductions, and contains among other things a good process reproduction of Edelinck's portrait of Huygens. A slight abatement of interest in astronomical topics is seen, and an increased interest in philosophy and practical life. The English correspondence is particularly important.

The eleventh volume (Second Series) of Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society covers the years 1896-'97 (May to June). It is exceptionally rich in substantial biographical sketches, with portraits, including a belated one of Rufus Choate, a fair-minded performance. Dr. A. P. Peabody, O. W. Holmes, J. R. Lowell, Leverett Salstonstall, and Henry Lillie Pierce are the subjects of others, and the last three names imply that much of our recent political history in the struggle for independent voting and non-partisan appointments to the civil service is touched upon in the respective memoirs. The President, Mr. Charles Francis Adams, in October, 1896, could not resist the occasion of the pending crisis to review the Presidential elections which he remembered, and to place the peril of Bryan's success beside that of McClellan in the election of 1864. His remarks will be found suggestive even by those who question his general position that our affairs would have taken much the course they did had the elections been reversed in every other instance besides these two. The humor of this volume is furnished by an extract from a dispatch of Minister Lowell's, at Madrid, which nurses delightfully a news item about beating the octroi on petroleum at the city gates, by means of women of a naturally deficient contour.

In the third "Quarterly" of the Texas State Historical Association, Miss Brownie Ponton and Mr. Bates H. McFarland aim to establish a new itinerary for Cabeza de Vaca's wanderings across the continent. No larger bibliographic knowledge than may be had from a few English translations (mostly inexpert), scant personal familiarity with the country involved (except a small and least significant portion of it), and almost entire innocence of its ethnography—these are poor equipments for attacking so recondite a theme. Until some one shall have acquired a tithe of his mastery of the documentary "sources," the ethnology and the physical geography whereby conjointly the itinerary of Vaca must be tested, Bandelier's determination of it will not be shaken. That may possibly be when some other scientist, his match in other preparation, shall have trudged studiously afoot (as Bandelier did) over as many miles of the Southwest as Vaca, and over the better part of Vaca's route. Any serious knowledge of New Mexico would convince these ambitious young students in the University of Texas that—as Bandelier proved years ago—Cabeza de Vaca never saw any portion of the Territory; and that is the only vital point in the whole matter.

The Meteorological Bureau of the Argentine Republic has published the eleventh volume of its 'Anales,' which is devoted to an account of the climates of San Jorge, Isla de los Estados, Chos-Malal, Paramillo de Uspallata, and Potro Muerto. The volume contains tabulated results of observations and a discussion of the temperature, atmospheric pressure, humidity, nebulosity, rainfall, and winds in each of these localities.

The latest volume of 'Memorias' of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Madrid is occupied by an elaborate memoir by D. Mariano de la Paz Graells, entitled 'Fauna Mastodológica Ibérica.' This is a description of all the mammals of the Iberian peninsula, beginning with genus homo and ending with Lagomys, or "rat-hare." The work includes a bibliography, a glossary, and a discussion of methods of classification. The concluding portion contains an historical and ethnographical account of the inhabitants of the country and articles on the improvement and acclimation of animals. In an appendix is a bibliography of the prehistoric anthropology of Spain, by D. Gabriel Puig y Larraz. The volume is illustrated by plates and maps.

The Bulletin of the Société de Géographie, just published, with the exception of the report on the medals given by the Society in 1897, is wholly devoted to accounts of two expeditions in West Africa. Capt. Imbert describes an unexplored region to the north of the middle Senegal, almost uninhabited on account of the raids of the Moors. On the side of a precipitous mountain, of a formation apparently very similar to that of Roraima in Guiana, he discovered a village of stone huts, which he believes to have been constructed by a race nearly contemporaneous with the cave-dwellers. Capt. Julien gives a summary of the political and scientific results of his expedition in northeastern French Congo, involving a graphic description of the construction of a post by a band of 400 natives, which is interesting as showing their capacity for organized work.

The principal contents of the first number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for this year are a statement of the geographical results of the Horn Expedition to Central Australia, and an account of the crossing of Borneo in 1896-'97 by Dr. Nieuwenhuis. There is also a description of the "Moraine-amphitheatre" of the Lago di Garda, by Prof. T. Fischer. Maps accompany each of these papers.

The German "Poole's Index," whose inception we lately noticed, now comes to us through Lemcke & Buechner ('Bibliographie der Deutschen Zeitschriften-Litteratur'). It covers the year 1896, deals with the contents of about 275 principally scientific German periodicals, with all available information as to authorship, and, of course, with precise references to the source of each article. Deficient titles have been supplemented to indicate the nature of the subject; and subject cross-references are abundantly supplied. Abbreviations are not excessive, and the typography (in the Roman character) is admirably clear. The form is small quarto, with two columns to the page. At the end is an alphabetical and numbered list of the periodicals indexed, from which medical and technical are excluded. The difficulties in alphabetical arrangement presented by an inflected language may be well studied here, especially in the entries under generic rubrics, like *Heerwesen*. A specimen entry is: "Der Militarismus im Reich der Poesie, v. M. Spicer. 189 [the conventional number of the periodical]. III. 252-69." This modest undertaking, for which F. Dietrich is responsible, will, we trust, meet with the success which it merits.

—The *Atlantic* for March has an interesting article on the "Social and Domestic Life of Japan," by K. Mitsukuri. Why Japan should be the first Oriental state to assimilate enough of Western civilization to make it capable of entering the family of nations is a puzzle, and will remain so, even to the reader of this article. If we went further and said that it is obviously a puzzle which will never be unriddled, we should not risk very much. In reading this account we catch glimpses of a double social order in Japan—that in which we live, and of which our historians and anthropologists have investigated the origins, and at the same time another world, remote and alien from us, but a pleasanter world, perhaps, in many respects than our own. The statement that the "most precious heritage" of the country from the past is the imperial dynasty sounds like that devotion of the Englishman to the Empire, the Queen and royal family which we replace by devotion to the flag or the Constitution. This sentiment of allegiance has nothing to do with feudalism, for the feudal system in Japan was abolish-

ed a generation ago, as everybody knows. All this may be stated in terms of Western and comparatively modern development; but the moment we go below the political superstructure, we find ourselves in the presence of social strata which go back to the beginning of time and are clearly connected with race peculiarities and religious habits lying entirely outside our horizon. Occupations are hereditary (a point much discussed just now in "theatrical circles" is what the great actor Danjuro, having no male child, will do for a successor), and is a family rather than an individual concern. Filial piety and a sort of immortal family continuity are both Japanese. At the next step we come upon a custom which to our habit of thought seems grotesque: in almost every middle-class house live "students," who are usually given board and lodging, and, in return for these, "answer the calls at the front entrance" and do other menial work. They do not seem to be apprentices. The article by Judge F. C. Lowell on "The Municipal Service of Boston" contains a very neat suggestion for those engaged in studying the "municipal problem"—that the municipal legislature in cities like Boston and New York plays a part in the body politic like that played by the vermiform appendix in the human body, before the operation for appendicitis was introduced. "Physicians tell us that this has no discoverable present use except to become the seat of disease."

—The *Century* is full of a great deal of interesting information about the Klondike: John Sidney Webb contributes a paper on "The River Trip," about which he speaks with authority, while Edward S. Curtis gives an account of the rush over the mountain passes. Both articles are illustrated. After reading them we feel that we have been reading an old story told under new conditions. Most of the incidents of mining life and features of mining society we have heard of in California and Australia. But the physical obstacles to be overcome in the Northwest are so serious that it is hard, even now, to believe in their being surmounted. The most readable paper in the number is on a very old subject—the Mammoth Cave—by John R. Procter, formerly State Geologist of Kentucky, with astonishing pictures by André Castaigne. Sara Y. Stevenson's glimpses of "Mexican Society in Maximilian's Time" contain one or two points of interest. Everything that she says about the unfortunate Maximilian goes to show that he was the victim of his own misunderstanding of his situation. Had he chosen to leave Mexico, he might have done so, but, like Napoleon, who sent him there, he was the dupe of his own fancies and day-dreams. Unlike Napoleon, he was disinterested, and went on dreaming long after the latter had rung the curtain down on his Mexican fiasco. The details here given of the episode, coming as they do from an eye-witness, have a certain historical value.

—In *Scribner's* for March, Mr. Walter A. Wyckoff begins his second volume of adventures among "The Workers." The scene is now in Chicago. "Hitherto I have been in the open country, and have found work with surprising readiness. Now I am in the heart of a congested labor market, and I am learning by experience what it is to look for work and fail to find it." The account of his first night in Chicago is not very different from what might have been anticipated, but Mr. Wyckoff seems as usual to forget that he is not a laboring man; his experiments are not real attempts at solving the "labor problem." No sane laboring man who should attempt, without friends, or home, or "character," or claim upon any one, to wander about by night in a "great, wicked city" could possibly hope for much assistance outside a station-house; and for an educated man, who has no training as a laborer at all, to make the attempt, is merely to engage in a laborious masquerade. This chapter really relates to the proceedings of a gentleman turned tramp, and the author is to be congratulated upon having survived the very disagreeable night of which he gives an account. As usual, the profanity and bestiality of his temporary associates are what most strikes him; we doubt if the workers as a rule will like to have "Clark" taken as a typical laboring man. An honest workman, driven by desperation to the point of accepting silver from a street-walker, would hardly burst into exultation over the fact that "There's two beers in this." Under the title of "A Pompeiian Gentleman's Home Life," E. Neville-Rolfe gives an entertaining description of the recently unearthed house of Aulus Vettius.

—A novelty in magazine literature is to be found in a pair of associated papers in *Harper's* on Austria—one by "an Eastern diplomat," the other by Mark Twain. Which throws most light on the great Austrian problem, it is difficult to say. The diplomat declares that the solution lies in the detachment of the German portion of the country, the extension of Germany to the Adriatic, and the creation of a veritable *Oester Reich* out of what is left, with Slavs, Magyars, and half-a-dozen other races as the component parts, and Hungary at the head. Mark Twain gives a semi-humorous account of the great sitting in the Reichsrath when Dr. Oton Lecher spoke for twelve hours (breaking all human records) in order to prevent the Government's pushing through the *Ausgleich*, while those of the opposite party, led by the great Wolf, made the House a pandemonium in an attempt to thwart the design of Dr. Lecher. Such scenes in a legislature present a problem of their own with reference to the future of Austria. Diplomats are proverbially expert at reading the riddles of the future, but any one who can tell to what the policy of Germany in the hands of the present Emperor will lead must have a dash of omniscience. Schoolboys in Germany are taught history and geography at once from a map on which the successive accretions to Prussian power within the past hundred and fifty years are exhibited; the question suggested being, "What will the present proprietor add to the domain?" Du Maurier's second instalment of "Social Pictorial Satire" contains an interesting account of Charles Keene, and a little essay on the whole subject from the time of Hogarth to himself; the illustrations are from *Punch*. The writer says of his own style, "The people I meet seem to me more interesting than funny," and he adds that he is well content to draw them "without any attempt at caricature." "Sam Weller, if you recollect, was fond of 'pootiness and wirtue.' I *so* agree with him. I adore them both, especially in women and children."

—Expert testimony of a kind to insure respect and induce conviction was that of M. Louis Havet at the Zola trial. This witness, a professor in the Collège de France and at the Sorbonne, attacked the famous memorandum or bordereau from the side, not of comparative chirography, but of mannerisms in script and in style—in other words, from the schoolmaster's point of view. He found Dreyfus impeccable in his French idiom, but careless of accents, omitting or misplacing them with French negligence carried to an extreme, and treating his cedillas in the same manner, with absolute inconsistency. Esterhazy, on the other hand, is most scrupulous in the matter of accentuation, and goes so far as to place the grave accent on the capital A of the preposition *à*—a nicety quite un-French, and indeed not rigorously observed even by printers. As to idiom, his writing abounds in turns of expression which betray one to whom the French language is not native. In the bordereau occurs the accented A; and the writer's "orthographic habits" otherwise accord with Esterhazy's, such as his perseverance in the practice (discountenanced by the Academy in 1878, and now obsolescent) of connecting *très* with the following adjective by a hyphen. The idiom further shows that the writer belonged in one of two classes—"those who know French badly because they have been ill-taught, or those who think in a foreign language," as Esterhazy's own style reveals that he does. If, concluded M. Havet, a Dreyfus document came before him as a French exercise, he would endorse upon it, "Très bien"; and this could not possibly be allowed to the bordereau.

—One of the recent anthologies which have come our way is edited by Mr. Arthur Waugh and published, in this country, by Henry Holt & Co. Its object is to bring together the choicest pamphlets which have appeared since the Elizabethan period, or at least as many of them as can find room in a series of four small octavo volumes. When one considers the sheer bulk of this class of literature, he will perceive the inevitable limitations of such an enterprise. Several single collections, ranging from 20,000 to 50,000 tracts, have been formed. Carlyle testifies that the British Museum contains above 36,000 on the Civil War alone, and yet Dr. Johnson calls the reign of Queen Anne "The Age of Pamphlets." Every variety of writer, from the most irresponsible Grub Street hack up to Edmund Burke, is represented among these fugitive pieces, and the subjects vary no less widely than the authors. Mr. Waugh begins his preface by stating the criterion which he has observed. "The object of the Pamphlet Library is to set before readers who are interested in the literary and constitutional history of our country [England], the text of those pamphlets or tractates which, besides possessing the only saving qualities of distinction and style, have also exercised a striking influence upon the current of events." Our sole criticism is that when "saving qualities of distinction and style" are made a test, all but classics are excluded, and choice is narrowed to a small circle of the standard authors whose works are not difficult of access. Thus, besides Sexby, whose dedication of 'Killing No Murder' is given, the volume of Political Pamphlets represents only Halifax, Arbuthnot, Steele, Swift, Bolingbroke, Junius, and Burke. The selections are very well chosen, and it is useful to have them printed in conjunction; but, leaving out less than three pages of Sexby, there is no reason why

this part of the series should not be entitled, "Political Tracts by Great Masters of English Prose." Thus it will be seen that the volume, while full of excellent matter, does not illustrate the history of English politics in any novel way. Pursuant to Mr. Waugh's plan, "pamphlets of political, literary, religious, and dramatic significance" are to be digested under their respective heads. We have received three of the four volumes indicated by the preface, and as they do not take up the last two subjects, we gather that religion and the drama are to be bound together, or that the number of volumes will pass the limit which was first set. The literary tracts, from their bulk, have been published in two parts. Mr. Waugh is assisted by sub-editors, Mr. A. F. Pollard taking charge of politics and Mr. Ernest Rhys of literature. The one furnishes an introduction of 22 and the other of 31 pages. Each of these essays seeks to gauge the importance of the selections which accompany it, and to give them a setting in their present context. The work is skilfully done in both cases, and the series, though its title may require a little interpretation, deserves well of book-buyers in point of matter and of form.

PERKINS'S FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XV.

France under Louis XV. By James Breck Perkins. In two volumes. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

During the five years which have passed since the publication of 'France under the Regency' Mr. Perkins has made good use of his time. His present subject is better than the preceding one, and, perhaps, considering this, he has taken unstinted pains to prepare for the execution of a worthy book. One need not beat about the bush before praising the outcome of so much labor. Mr. Perkins has produced a piece of sound scholarship without slighting either arrangement or style. He shows a just appreciation of values, holding a fair balance between the importance of his period and the importance of his reader's time. At no point can he be accused of wilful diffuseness. He is unconcerned with the national prejudices which have distorted so many histories of this age. In a word, we have before us a treatise which deserves to be read and considered carefully. It is well prepared, well digested, and well written.

One is frequently reminded that it has been the fate of France during the last 109 years to furnish the world with political object-lessons. But her career as an instructress began before the Revolution. One of Mr. Perkins's good qualities is that he is not for ever pointing morals. We have failed to find a single passage in which he sapiently philosophizes over the corrupt and crippled government of Louis XV. A casual remark here and there is all the guidance one needs in reaching the conclusion that democracy will be hard pushed to invent and execute a more shameful series of failures than France endured under the "Bien-Aimé." There is a vast difference between accepting this result as an abstract proposition and holding it with conviction. Mr. Perkins has very few novelties. His merit lies in solidity of proof and directness of statement. He is the more severe upon the old régime because he is just and moderate in expression. He reminds one of Aretino's epigram: "If you really wish to damage a man's character, tell the truth about him."

The France of Louis XV., with her twenty million inhabitants, her inherited prestige, her economic resources, her settled absolutism, and her intellectual leaders, claims a great deal of direct attention; yet we imagine that almost every one who studies her history during this epoch has an ulterior purpose. He does not rest content with collecting information concerning the wars of the Polish Succession, the Austrian Succession, and the Seven Years. He does not regard the administrations of Fleury and Choiseul as things complete in themselves. He is much more apt to view the reign in the light of certain overshadowing relations and effects. He is hurrying on in mind to the Revolution, or to the triumph of Prussia, or to the spread of the British Empire. With all three of these grandiose movements the age of Louis XV. is unmistakably connected. One effects a real economy of time in reaching them by way of Versailles and its court. Without seeing how the monarchy was degraded from its central place in popular affection, one cannot approach the Revolution. Without seeing how a fatuous council squandered the dynamic advantages of France's political position, one cannot understand the rise of German military or British naval power.

When the war of the Spanish Succession closed, France was confessedly weak. What it had cost to foist an impotent Bourbon upon a nation that hated her and her royal family was not known at the time, even with Marlborough's victories fresh in remembrance. Yet before Fleury's death the country had renewed herself, and was, moreover, giving promise of a new wealth. No extraordinary wisdom was required to retain at least a place of distinction. True national prosperity would have been more difficult of achievement, though with the normal advance of the middle class it was not impossible. Had a Richelieu been needed at the Foreign Office, and a Turgot at the Financial Bureau, Louis XV. might be excused for neglect to secure them. A Ministry of All the Talents would probably have proved troublesome, and certainly was unnecessary. Average common sense in seizing the chances which the European situation presented might have made France conterminous with the province of Gaul and the centre of a colonial system. A warlike, patriotic, and skilful race, with enormous physical advantages in its favor, was humiliated by the incredible folly of its government.

We should have been glad to see Mr. Perkins devote rather more space than he does to a careful delineation of the man whose defects of character were the chief cause of this mischief. Individually he deserves little notice, though the degree of his intelligence was higher than has generally been supposed. But the more debased his life and the more callous his indifference to public duty, the more necessary it becomes to depict him as he was. A full-length portrait of Louis XV. is indispensable to an artistic contrast between the issues at stake and the spirit with which they were waged. Mr. Perkins at different times and places gives us touches of character; what we miss is a lively and faithful account of how the King conducted himself while the realm was going to the dogs. We are not, of course, referring to unsavory episodes, but to the routine of court life in all its dreadful ennui. The same sort of description which Mr. Perkins gives of the life led by Stanislas Leszczynski at Nancy would, *mutatis mutandis*, have been serviceable in showing how the absolute master of the most prominent European state used his opportunities. We have little to find fault with when we come to Louis's part in foreign politics. While apathetic in nearly everything, his leanings towards association with the Spanish Bourbons were reasonably strong, and Mr. Perkins hits off his misplaced zeal. Careless to the point of criminal folly where the national interests of France were involved, he extended a generous patronage to the children of Elizabeth Farnese. If Don Carlos wanted an establishment in Italy, he should have it as a free gift from the head of the Bourbon family. Kings haggling over terms in forming alliances with relatives present the spectacle of bourgeois traders. In this spirit the Family Compacts were drawn. "If we were not charged with obtaining a principality for Don Philip," wrote Argenson after the victories of Maurice de Saxe, "we might keep our conquests in Flanders for ourselves."

Passing from the sovereign to his reign, we shall attempt to touch upon only two of its aspects. Firstly, it forms a notable chapter in the emancipation of Europe from mediævalism, and, secondly, through the Seven Years' War, it is connected with some of the most surprising political developments which our century has witnessed. When Dubois and Orleans both died in 1723, to be followed by Bourbon acting under the young King, the modern spirit seemed pretty thoroughly shackled in France. Religious toleration was far from being achieved, the power of the crown was despotic, and criticism was in its swaddling-clothes. Before Louis's death, persecution had stopped, public affairs were publicly discussed, and a class unknown to France since the death of the communal movement was established on the solid cornerstone of wealth. Comparing England and France in 1726, one observes that the former enjoyed to a much greater extent the advantages which flow both from agriculture and from commerce. France had more arable soil, but the country's progress was hindered by its system of land tenure. Without a change of social and political conditions, the scope for improvement in this direction was small. To be sure, the number of peasant proprietors in 1789 has often been underestimated, but no general revival of agriculture could precede the abolition of privileges. The case was different with commerce. Even under the barbarous political economy of the last century, with its incessant paternalism, with its chartered companies, with its monopolies, and its half-defunct guilds, trade could and did expand. If the middle class in England drew its prosperity from more sources than were available to the bourgeoisie, French commerce nevertheless made strides under Louis XV. It provided the intellectual basis of the Revolution by enormously increasing that part of the community which, being neither privileged nor submerged, was intelligent, active, and ambitious. Recollecting that Mr. Ruskin becomes excited when the present greatness of England is ascribed to her coal, we trust we do not appear too physiocratic in claiming commercial origin for a large share of the changes wrought during this reign. Mr. Perkins sets store by Law, who cer-

tainly did kindle a wonderful amount of interest in business speculation on a large scale.

Of more consequence still was the peace which Fleury, aided by Walpole, gave Europe. Twenty-five years of repose came like a godsend to France. England did not benefit more by the reign of Henry VII. The commercial wealth of fifteenth-century Italy was no more a cause of the Renaissance than was the commercial wealth of eighteenth-century France a cause of the Revolution. Fleury's part in the revival extended far beyond exchequer reforms. He made the royal *corvée* a blessing in disguise, and, by settling the coinage, changed the whole nature of credit. The livre, which, as Mr. Perkins tells us, had been reduced to one-seventy-second of its Carolingian value, became honest money in June, 1726. We cite his comment both for its historical truth and for its contemporary application. "The currency was at last established on an immovable basis, and this measure did more to accelerate the increase of wealth and the development of industry than all the commercial codes at which Colbert so earnestly labored. . . . Of all the causes which assisted in the industrial development of France in the eighteenth century, this, which has received the least attention, was perhaps the most potent."

We would briefly connect with this subject of commerce and industrial progress Mr. Perkins's chapters on the intellectual and social changes of the reign, and on the influence of literature. They are, in our opinion, his best. To write without tediousness of Voltaire, Rousseau, and the encyclopædists is in itself creditable, following as one must do now in the wake of many eminent critics. Mr. Perkins is successful because his ideas represent reflection applied to genuine knowledge.

With Mme. de Pompadour and Bernis for advisers, with Richelieu and Soubise for generals, Louis XV. found himself confronted in the Seven Years' War with two greedy and determined governments controlled respectively by Frederick the Great and William Pitt. The million men who perished in the contest did not throw their lives away in a dynastic quarrel—that is some comfort. Whatever the immediate cause, imperial questions were unfolded long before the end came, and every one save the King of France played as though for double or quits. That Mr. Perkins writes for an American audience is clear from his assumption that we know enough about the French and Indian War. He reserves his space for Europe and the East. One of his general contentions—and this has reference to our own country—is that the French did not lose their colonies from lack of national aptitude. They showed marked ability in establishing a hold on inferior races, adapting themselves skilfully to circumstances, and making a good impression where the English had only aroused prejudice. When the fight began, officers and men fulfilled all reasonable expectation. "In India, Dupleix was the equal of Clive; in America, no one displayed military or political talents superior to those of Montcalm; most of the officers of the navy did the best that was possible with the material that was furnished them: the root of the evil was at Versailles."

The most scientific and philosophical of modern historians must sometimes feel the need of a hero. Mr. Perkins, unable to find one in France, turns Frederick of Prussia to account. We hasten to state that our author preserves ethical standards intact, and never once enters Droysen's amusing plea that Frederick considered himself morally justified in seizing Silesia. It is hard to maintain an attitude of indifference in the presence of sheer ability. Mr. Perkins would be a rare bird indeed if he let slip the chance to diversify his pages with the comments of one who to a quick wit added a sharp word. Arneth has helped him noticeably in presenting the acts and character of Maria Theresa, though her bitter implacability is allowed to shine through his narrative. Connecting the Queen of Hungary with her most notorious female contemporary in France, we may say that Mr. Perkins renders full justice to Mme. de Pompadour's accomplishments. Even in hell there are gulfs of varying profundity. Mme. de Pompadour was graceful and had large views. Beneath her circle was the deeper depth of the Du Barry.

Mr. Perkins affords the reviewer a scant gleaning of slips and mistakes. If he falls into any serious errors of fact, they have eluded us. At rare intervals he leaves the path of mathematical exactness, but the following examples will prove that our worst censure of this nature is but slight: Vol. i., p. 23: "There were no families in France during the eighteenth century exercising a political influence to be compared with that of the Bedfords, or the Pelhams, or the Newcastles in England." As family stems one would hardly distinguish between the Pelhams and Newcastles. Vol. i., p. 337: "For the first time the cry was heard, 'Long live Frederick the Great!' Many a sovereign has been thus greeted in his lifetime, but since Charlemagne, only Peter of Russia and Frederick of Prussia have retained the title with posterity." Is it quibbling to recall the Saxon Emperor, Otto I., and Alfred of England? Vol. ii., p. 449: Mr. Perkins implies that Voltaire was out of France when living at Ferney. "The events of the Revolution would not have frightened Voltaire into conservatism. His body he would have kept safely at Ferney, but reactionary principles would not have been advocated by his trenchant pen." Ferney was close to the frontier but still in France. We cite two or three cases of this kind to emphasize Mr. Perkins's accuracy, not his inaccuracy. In proportion to the bulk of the work the number of slips is insignificant.

DANISH ARCTIC EXPEDITIONS, 1605-1620.

The Danish Expeditions to Greenland in 1605, 1606, and 1607; to which is added Capt. James Hall's voyage to Greenland in 1612.

The Expedition of Captain Jens Munk to Hudson's Bay, in Search of a Northwest Passage, in 1619-'20. Edited with notes by C. C. A. Gosch. London: The Hakluyt Society. 1897. Cxvii., 204, pp. and cxviii., 184 pp. 8vo, with maps and illustrations.

In several previous volumes the Hakluyt Society has published new editions of the original accounts of all the English voyages in search of a Northwest Passage to India which were undertaken between 1576 and 1632, when, after the return of Foxe and James, the search was discontinued for a considerable period. These voyages form a distinct and connected series. Between the years indicated, only one expedition was sent out with the same object from any country besides England, viz., the Danish expedition to Hudson Bay under Jens Munk in 1619-'20; and inasmuch as that expedition was piloted by Englishmen and was intended to follow up the results obtained upon some of the English voyages, it may fairly be looked upon as closely connected with the latter. The Society, therefore, deemed it desirable to complete the series of works relating to the expeditions in question by adding an English version of Munk's narrative of his voyage; especially since Munk's book, which was published in Danish in 1624, has never been translated into any other language, and its contents have been known to the world at large only through the medium of incomplete and unreliable abstracts. This having been decided upon, it was also resolved to supplement the English version of Munk's 'Navigatio Septentrionalis' by the addition of the voyages of James Hall from Denmark and England to Greenland in 1605, 1606, 1607, and 1612. The latter were in some respects forerunners of Munk's expedition, and form with it a notable chapter in the history of Danish Arctic enterprise. Nor were these Danish voyages to Greenland without connection with England and the English voyages in search of a Northwest Passage, since the chief pilot, James Hall, to whom the credit of the discoveries made chiefly belongs, was an Englishman, while one of the vessels of the expedition was commanded by another Englishman, John Knight, who in the following year directed one of the English expeditions above referred to. John Cunningham, a Scot, was in charge of the expedition of 1605, and afterwards commanded one of the vessels on the second voyage. In addition to other reasons which made the reprint desirable, by joining together the accounts of all the voyages to Greenland in which Hall took part, it has been possible to collect in one place all that is known of the life and work of a man who occupies a very honorable place among early Arctic explorers.

The present work consists of two distinct parts, or "books," each constituting a volume complete in itself and with its own index. Book I. contains reprints from Purchas (1625) of Hall's own accounts of the voyages of 1605 and 1606, and of Baffin's account of the voyage of 1612; also a reprint of Gatonbe's relation of the latter voyage, taken from Churchill's 'Collections of Voyages and Travels.' To these are added another account of the voyage of 1605 by Hall himself, accompanied by maps, now first printed from a manuscript in the British Museum, and translations of two Danish accounts of the voyages of 1605 and 1606. Two appendices follow, one treating of an ancient chart now preserved in the Royal Library at Stockholm, of much interest in connection with Hall's voyages, and here reproduced in photolithography. The final chapter or second appendix discusses one of the mythical islands of the boreal Atlantic which long held a place on the charts, under the name of Busse Island.

Book II. contains a translation of Jens Munk's 'Navigatio Septentrionalis,' made from the edition of 1624, and corrected by means of Munk's original manuscript, which is still preserved in the University Library of Copenhagen. This is preceded by a brief but interesting biography of Munk himself, in which some curious and widely received

errors relating to his life and death are corrected. The volume is completed by a voluminous commentary on the voyage and the map prepared by Munk and illustrating his contributions to geography.

The discovery of Greenland by Icelanders in the tenth century, and the possession by Norway in the thirteenth century of colonies in both Iceland and Greenland, are matters of historical record. Later, with Norway, these colonies became a part of the dominions of the King of Denmark. The communication between Greenland and Denmark, after having been kept up for five hundred years, entirely ceased in the fifteenth century, owing to various causes. Of these the principal one was, perhaps, the fact that, the revenue from Greenland being specially allotted to the royal household, the trade had become a monopoly, and was neglected when war and other pressing affairs took up the attention of the King. The existence of this distant dependency was, however, not forgotten, and, during the sixteenth century, the proposition that the former communication should be reopened was several times mooted, partly on account of the interest felt in the fate of the Scandinavian colonists, who were still supposed to exist, and partly in the hope that a profitable trade might spring up. Nothing, however, was done until the matter was taken up by King Christian IV., who sent out three well-equipped expeditions in 1605-6-7, for the purpose of ascertaining the best route to Greenland, of exploring the land, of searching for the old colony, and of re-establishing there the dominion of the Crown.

The expedition of 1605 consisted of three vessels of the Danish navy under the command of John Cunningham, assisted by James Hall, who acted as first officer and pilot. The latter was a man of some Arctic experience, and may have accompanied Davis in 1586. The expedition sailed on the 2d of May, and took the route between the Orkneys and Shetland and so nearly due west to Davis Strait. When near Greenland, one of the vessels, commanded by Lindenow, separated from the others, on account of some difference of opinion as to the best route, and forced its way through the ice to the coast, where, after various perils, it made harbor and remained several days trading with the natives for furs, making prisoners of two Greenlanders, who were carried back to Denmark. Cunningham and Hall, with the other vessels, continued to the northward, reaching the coast on the 12th of June, at a point which they named King Christian's Fjord, now recognized as Itivdlek Fjord of modern maps. Thence Hall in the pinnace explored the coast northward nearly to Disco Bay. What was supposed to be a silver mine was discovered on this excursion. After Hall's return to the vessel on the 10th of July, the expedition sailed for Denmark, carrying with them four natives whom Cunningham had captured in accordance with his instructions; the object of this abduction doubtless being to procure men who, after some teaching in Denmark, might be used as interpreters on future voyages. As a set-off it may be mentioned that the expedition landed two condemned criminals in Greenland and abandoned them there; this being construed by the authorities as an act of clemency, giving to these wretches some faint chance of preserving their lives. Both incidents throw a curious light on the customs of the time.

In 1606 five vessels were sent out under the command of Lindenow, with Hall as pilot; but only two seem to have reached Greenland, where most of their energy was expended in loading up with the supposed silver ore. On this occasion, also, several natives were secured with their boats and carried away by force. These people, though treated kindly in Denmark, did not survive long, and it is told that the last one made a desperate attempt to get back to Greenland from Denmark in his kayak, was overtaken and brought back, and thereupon pined away and soon died.

The ore brought back turned out to be worthless, and the second voyage resulted only in disappointment, but the King decided to make one more effort to find the ancient colony, and in 1607 two vessels set out for this purpose, under the command of Carsten Richardson, the course of the navigation being placed in the hands of Hall. They took the same route as before, but kept more to the northward, reaching the eastern coast of Greenland between the parallels of 63 degrees and 64 degrees. They were prevented from landing by the pack ice, and, after many fruitless endeavors, were obliged to set sail for home. It was not until the middle of the century that another attempt was made to discover the site of the lost colonies. In 1612, however, a private expedition was sent out by certain merchant adventurers of London, under the command of Hall. Nothing is known about the precise object of the voyage, but as a goldsmith was sent with them it may be surmised that faith in the supposed silver mine played a part in it. Two vessels were dispatched, which skirted the Greenland coast from the vicinity of Godthaab northward. The larger vessel was left in the southern Isortok Fiord, while Hall explored in the smaller one. On his return he took his ships to Itivdlek, and then started in the smaller one for the silver mine. Halting in Amerdlok Fiord, on the 22d of July, Hall was killed by a Greenlander, with a dart, as he was in a boat alongside the ship. He was buried on one of the islands; his comrades proceeded to the mine which the goldsmith tested and found wanting; after which the expedition returned to England.

The expedition of Munk, in 1619, was sent out to search for a Northwest Passage, on the western shore of Hudson Bay, where the incomplete explorations of Button in 1613 left room for hope of a practicable outlet to the westward. It was composed of two vessels of the Danish navy, a sloop called the *Lamprey* and a small ship named the *Unicorn*. The party comprised sixty-four men and officers, and sailed from Denmark May 9, 1619. They sighted the southern extreme of Greenland, entered Frobisher Bay, passed through Hudson Strait to Hudson Bay, and finally entered the estuary of the Churchill River, the "Hubbart's Hope" of the early explorers, now known as Port Churchill. Here the party wintered. They were unsupplied with proper clothing or equipment for an Arctic winter, their barber surgeon was utterly incompetent, the men gradually succumbed to scurvy and cold, and by spring only Munk and two others were left alive. These, by great exertions and after great hardships, got the sloop out of her winter quarters and succeeded in reaching Norway in September, 1620.

The journal of Munk is of pathetic interest, picturing with artless simplicity their sufferings and his final escape, which, under the circumstances, bordered on the miraculous. The journal shows him in a most favorable light as regards everything but Arctic experience. He opens his heart to the reader, who feels that he is dealing with a true man. While the voyage was by no means without geographical results, the account of it is more interesting as the story of a good and simple soul, sore beset, yet maintaining faith, hope, and courage.

The volumes exhibit the usual elegance of the Society's publications, and are well indexed.

A Short History of British Colonial Policy. By Hugh Edward Egerton. 1897. London: Methuen & Co.

Mr. Egerton's modest preface disarms the critic. He apologizes, not being an author of eminence, for adding to the number of books, but reminds us that while various phases of colonial policy have been treated, no one has hitherto dealt with the subject systematically on historical lines. But on many accounts we must pronounce his apologies unnecessary. A brief glance will satisfy the reader that a valuable and interesting book lies before him, and from the multiplication of such books the world does not yet cry to be delivered. The author does not attempt a narrative of events, the evolution of a story from a mass of authorities. He proposes to give a mass of opinions, and therefore to allow the authorities to speak for themselves. The free employment of quotations which results from this method produces an agreeable variety in the style, and adds weight to the conclusions of the author.

Five periods are recognized—the period of beginnings, that of trade ascendancy, that of systematic colonization and the granting of responsible government, that of the *laissez-aller* principle, and that of "Greater Britain." When Englishmen began to establish colonies, the Government had no colonial policy. It chose the easy course of letting the colonists take care of themselves, and, in the cases where it undertook to govern, it very soon abandoned the task, and contented itself with a formal recognition of its authority. But by the middle of the seventeenth century the merchants of England had come to influence the policy of its Government, and for a century at least the theory was unquestioned that colonies existed for the good of the trade of the mother country. The great wars of the earlier half of the eighteenth century were wars for commercial supremacy; the colonies were defended against other Powers that they might be made use of by English merchants. The mercantile system, however, caused the loss of the American colonies, and the treatment of those that remained became much more liberal. For a time there was something like a policy of systematic colonization, together with a disposition to grant self-government; but with the victory of free trade, and the resulting prosperity, there came a feeling that, since the colonies would eventually be independent, it might be as well for the mother country not to trouble herself about them. This feeling was short-lived, and at the envious outbursts of other Powers England awoke to the possibilities of a permanent colonial empire.

Such a work as this appeals as a whole primarily to Englishmen. To them it cannot fail to be wonderfully suggestive. They may well feel that the free spirit of their institutions has been the great cause of the prosperity of their colonies. The policy of the home Government, as carried out by the various functionaries that have attempted the regulation of the colonies, has been almost invariably unwise. Many excellent governors have been sent out, but they have been thwarted by the interference of the Colonial Office, or recalled by the change of ministers, before their judicious measures could take effect. Many foolish governors also have been put in charge of the colonies, and they have sometimes done irreparable mischief. Parliament long ago practically recognized its incompetency to legislate for the colonies, and the general result has been that the more important of them have taken the working out of their destinies into their own hands. The success of England's colonial policy, so far as it has been successful, may be fairly said to be due to its letting the colonies have their own way. The American colonies were lost by trying to govern them from England; the others would have been lost or ruined had not this practice been abandoned.

Readers of Mr. Bryce's 'Impressions of South Africa' will be interested in comparing his brief sketch of British policy with Mr. Egerton's detailed account. With some exceptions, the latter confirms Mr. Bryce's judgments, and it is highly satisfactory to find these independent writers reaching substantially the same results. Upon this part of Mr. Egerton's book, and upon those relating to the existing colonial possessions of England, we shall not dwell, although we may advise those who think that the development of the Dominion of Canada receives less attention from Americans than it deserves, to consult Mr. Egerton's pages. On the other hand, the policy of England toward those colonies which grew into the United States is a matter which deserves very different treatment from that which it has been the fashion to give it. The view taken in our school histories is, as a rule, shamefully inadequate and outrageously chauvinistic. We cannot but urge those who wish to teach American history that is true rather than popular to prepare themselves by studying Mr. Egerton's book. A full half of it is devoted to the affairs of the North American colonies, and it is a most valuable repertory of facts commonly ignored by our popular writers. Our country has recently escaped an appalling peril due almost entirely to the senseless traditional hatred of England instilled into the mind of every pupil in our public schools. We know of no better corrective for this feeling than such an impartial examination of the records as Mr. Egerton lays before us. His sympathies, so far as he displays them, seem to be rather with than against the colonies, and his research has been most extensive. He reveals much that was injudicious and exasperating in the conduct of the imbecile statesmen who had charge of the government of our colonies; but that these colonies were oppressed, according to the standard of oppression in those days, he conclusively disproves. We must confess that the reader will encounter some dry passages in this book. That, however, is to be charged to the nature of the subject, not to the author's treatment of it.

Evolutional Ethics and Animal Psychology. By E. P. Evans, author of 'Animal Symbolism in Ecclesiastical Architecture,' 'The Criminal Prosecution and Capital Punishment of Animals,' etc. D. Appleton & Co. 1898. Pp. 386, including a bibliography and an index.

To all "disinterested" lovers of equity and of anecdote and gossip this book will be welcome. It is a plea for a recognition of the inalienable rights (within limits which, it must be confessed, are left by the author somewhat vague) of the lower animals to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, and is composed, in the really charming proportion, for a scientific treatise, of a score of pertinent and often recondite illustrations to a unit of theory.

It should be said at once that the title of the book is unfortunate. To perhaps the majority of the "profession" in matters ethical the phrase "evolutional ethics" is chiefly significant of what the person who takes it seriously fails to understand. Happily, however, neither the phrase nor the special implications of it that offer themselves to criticism are essential to any portion of Prof. Evans's argument.

"The only firm foundation of animal ethics" —of the claim in behalf of animals to a recognition in the world of morals—Prof. Evans's thesis affirms, "is animal psychology. It is through the portal of spiritual kinship erected by modern evolutional science that beasts and birds, 'our elder brothers,' as Herder calls them, enter into the temple of justice, and enjoy the privilege of sanctuary against the wanton or unwitting cruelty hitherto authorized by the assumptions and usurpations of man."

In primitive societies, Prof. Evans says, tracing not so much the implications of evolutional ethics (whatever in the language of reason that may mean!) as the successive stages in the history of morals, the only basis of moral obligation that is in practice recognized is bodily as distinguished from spiritual kinship—community of ancestry, membership of the same tribe. Societies less primitive recognize the bond of a common worship. Societies still less primitive recognize the bond of a common humanity, of a kinship that is spiritual. And to the benefits of a spiritual (and even of a physical) kinship the lower animals have every right.

It is in the elaboration of the last of these propositions that the most serviceable portion, we should say—the chapters forming the second part—of Prof. Evans's book consists. It is only on an anthropocentric theory of the universe that an anthropocentric ethics can be justified; and an anthropocentric theory of the universe is at the present day an anachronism simply. Earlier "speculators," notably theologians, have endeavored to make good a distinction between man as in some sort essentially possessed of rights, and the lower animals as in some sort essentially possessed of nothing of the kind, but they have been doubly ill-advised in their venture. The differences upon which they have fastened have been singularly devoid of ethical significance; and there is, in any event, no sufficient reason to believe such differences exist. In the chapters "Mind in Man and Brute," "Progress and Perfectibility in the Lower Animals," "Ideation in Animals and Men," "Speech as a Barrier between Man and Beast," and "The Æsthetic Sense and Religious Sentiment in Animals," Prof. Evans argues the case in the negative, and marshals admirably the evidence in support of it.

As our author is a scholar, he will not regard it as "small fault-finding" to note that he has in many places in this book not said what, plainly enough (he is always perspicuous), he means. It should also, perhaps, be said that in the matter of works on psychology in general the bibliography includes too little or too much. It is difficult to conceive why works on psychology in general should be given a place in such bibliography at all; and surely, to choose one instance out of several, it is little better than caprice, in a case in which the analogy between man and brute is the main concern, to enroll Bain's 'The Senses and the Intellect,' and to omit his 'Emotions and the Will.'

La Jeunesse de Napoléon: Brienne. Par Arthur Chuquet. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 8vo, pp. 494.

Our Paris correspondent has anticipated our review of this work, but it may still be worth while to study the author's method. He has thought, and, as the result shows, has rightly thought, that full acquaintance with the surroundings of an historic person at each stage of his development will enable us better to understand the man. He has, therefore, devoted an opening chapter to the island of Corsica, its history, the character of its people, its relations to Genoa and to France, the aspirations of the people, their deep sense of oppression, their amiable traits as well as their intense explosive passions; their persistence, also, as shown in their vendettas and their attempts at revolution. He connects Napoleon with all this by sketching the traits in which the Emperor revealed himself as a true Corsican—vain, boastful, swept by gusts of feeling, careless of consistency or even of truth, bombastic, yet with a basis of great powers all his own, and the redeeming quality of never forgetting a kindness.

An outline of the family history traces the pedigree of both father and mother, and describes the peculiarities of each, both natural and acquired. We are made acquainted also with the circle of near relatives and friends, the nurse and the housekeeper, and the bitter poverty of the whole establishment which led the father to cultivate the friendship of those in power, and to besiege the Government to get scholarships for his children in the French public schools.

Brienne is shown to have been no military school in any proper sense, but only one of a dozen schools under the charge of different orders of priests, where children of decayed and impoverished members of the nobility were educated for the public service at the charge of the treasury. Beginning with a primary instruction, the scholars were taught an ordinary curriculum, including some Latin, mathematics, history, geography, etc. The differences among these schools have been traced by M. Chuquet with singular industry. He tells us the characteristics of the superior at the head of each, of the members of the faculties, and the special reputation which the schools enjoyed. We are thus made to understand just what the Brienne school was, and why the young Corsican with his Italian patois had to put time upon his French that others would give to dancing or to poetry, and was handicapped in his competition with his mates, who were native Frenchmen.

But the boy showed abilities which gave him the reputation of one who might have a future, though not high in class standing.

His success in mathematics made him choose the artillery as his corps when he was transferred to the École Militaire at Paris. At that time the artillery was the corps d'élite of the army, and represented the intellectual side of the military profession. It showed what stood for brilliant school work, therefore, when Bonaparte, a boy of sixteen, was sent by his school, second in a list of fourteen, to be examined at Metz in competition with graduates of other schools from all parts of the kingdom for admission to the artillery. The chief examiner was Laplace, the author of the 'Mécanique Celeste.' Bonaparte passed forty-second in a list of a hundred and eight, and was one of those immediately awarded a lieutenancy instead of being put on probation as a supernumerary. Considering his youth, for he was among the youngest of the competitors, his school work had been successful.

The author takes up with great detail the careers of Bonaparte's schoolmates, both at Brienne and at the École Militaire. It is full of interest, for it shows not only how many of them became distinguished in their country's service, but how close were the relations which the Emperor maintained with them after he acquired power. To have been his schoolmate or his teacher was a recommendation which never lost its power. As the list of those he employed or promoted grows, the impression deepens that, whatever his faults, he never lost the kindly recollection of his playmates and competitors in the schools. This was enough to make him erase a name from the list of émigrés, though the man had fought against the republic. It was enough to have professed repentance and the desire to return to France. What might seem a mere school list is skilfully worked up, enlivened here and there by contact with the great central figure, and made to have a cumulative effect in illustrating the personal qualities of Napoleon himself.

The chapter on "Garrisons and Leaves-of absence," which closes the book, is a similar bit of good workmanship, in which the petty experiences of a young officer in his first stations and camps in time of peace are made to throw light upon the process by which Bonaparte was growing and developing in the period just preceding the great Revolution. A home visit to Corsica after seven years of constant separation from his family proved the genuine affection with which he loved them all, and the enthusiastic rebound of his feelings towards the picturesque but half-savage island of his nativity, of which he had dreamed that he might be the emancipator.

The extended studies of all phases of the circumstances surrounding the young Bonaparte seem in each instance to be carefully planned with a view to the creation of strong local color. A good deal of art was needed to prevent this from appearing to be the undue exaltation of unimportant details into significant facts by virtue of their mere connection with the hero; but M. Chuquet has had the ability to succeed in his task. He has made an atmosphere of time and place, of social and official relations, in which the young student seems very real and comprehensible, and fits into his place and his surroundings in a very natural way. As separate studies of school methods, of military life, of society both Corsican and French, and of the antecedents of men who made their mark upon their epoch, the book will be very useful, apart from its connection with Napoleon.

Marriage Customs in Many Lands. By the Rev. H. N. Hutchinson, B.A., etc. With many illustrations. D. Appleton & Co. 1897.

In preparing this volume, the writer's object, so we are told, was not to discuss the scientific questions connected with the origin of marriage, but to present to the general reader a careful account of some of the quaint and interesting customs that have prevailed, or may yet be in force, in different portions of the world. In doing this, he was obliged to trust, in good part, to the works of travellers and others, and this has occasionally led him to the use of a terminology that might have been modified to advantage. Take, for instance, the statement that marriage by purchase prevails to some extent in India (p. 4), in Morocco (p. 98), among some of our own Indians, etc., etc., and it is difficult to reconcile it with the fact that, either wholly or in part, the so-called purchase money was handed over to the bride. Evidently in a case of this kind there was no question of buying and selling as we understand it, but rather it seems to have been an ingenious device for providing the young woman with a dowry. So, too, it seems hardly fair to say that she was bought, even if the father retained the whole of the purchase money, when she could at any time put an end to the transaction by refusing to carry out her part of the contract. Instances like these are, no doubt, survivals from the times when women were bought, but they are not bona-fide marriages by purchase any more than the custom of the Arabs, Turcomans, and others of "carrying off the bride" can be said to be a marriage by capture, when the woman is a party to the proceeding and actually connives at her seeming abduction. In other words, in these and all similar cases, the element of compulsion is wanting, and without it there can be no marriage either by purchase or by capture.

It is well also to remember that our author, even within the limits he has marked out for himself, does not profess to have exhausted the subject, and consequently that other forms of marriage may and, we may add, often do co-exist in those lands in which some of the more curious customs prevail. Penny weddings, for instance, and Fleet marriages, to say nothing of the purchase of a wife (p. 304), and "marrying over the tongs" or over a sword, have taken place in Great Britain within comparatively recent times; and yet to suppose that they were the only forms of marriage that existed in that country, or that they were even general, would be as great an error as it would be to infer that "spiritual marriages" were the rule in the United States because they had once been practised in Utah by the Mormons.

Useful as these hints may prove to the casual reader, they do not imply any reflection upon the author's plan of work, or upon the way in which he has carried it out. Indeed, so far is this from being the case that the very reverse is true; for it is no exaggeration to say that in the collection of quaint and curious customs he has brought together, and in the pleasant, gossipy manner in which he describes them, he fulfils to the letter the promise of his introduction. Literally speaking, in the search for material, he takes us from China to Peru—among all sorts and conditions of men; and he shows us, as in a panorama, a number of the many ways in which marriages are or have been celebrated at different times and by different peoples. To enumerate a tithe of these customs would lead us far astray, and we content ourselves with observing that, while they differ widely in some of their details, yet, on comparing them one with another, and noting the peculiar features that give to each its distinctive character, they will be found, as a rule, to be survivals of marriage either by purchase or by capture. Even among ourselves—and we are graciously supposed to have wandered far from the savage originals—many of the ceremonies are but modified forms of the older customs. The best man, for example (p. 295), at a modern wedding represents the friend who in early times helped to carry off the bride; and the honeymoon, instead of being a pleasure trip, as it is with us, was a rapid and hurried flight from the anger of an outraged father. The bride's cake, we are told, takes us back to the *confarreatio* of the Romans, and the habit of giving presents to bridesmaids and groomsmen is a relic of the days when women were bought, as was the charivari of the early French settlers in the Mississippi valley.

The illustrations, of which there are twenty-four, are taken from photographs or from "sketches drawn by artists well acquainted with the scenes which they depict"; and it is a pleasure to be able to add that they are much above the average of such work. The Hindu bride and groom, a Norway bride in full dress, and a Quaker wedding are perhaps among the more striking of these pictures.

The Expositor's Greek Testament: The Synoptic Gospels. By Alexander Balmain Bruce, D.D., Professor of Apologetics, Free Church College, Glasgow. The Gospel of St. John, by Marcus Dods, D.D., Professor of Exegetical Theology, New College, Edinburgh. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1897.

This book, for one of its class, is unusually attractive. The page is broad, the margins are ample, the typography is neat and fairly accurate, the paper of a dead finish and nonbibulous, and the volume so light that, although comprising some nine hundred pages, it can be held conveniently in one hand. It is so bound, too, that it lies open at any desired page.

The favorable prepossession thus created is in some respects confirmed by the contents. To be sure, it is a step of doubtful expediency to model a commentary after one which proved successful half a century ago, viz., Alford's; for, as the resources, so the needs of Biblical students vary with every generation. Moreover, the comparison which the avowed imitation suggests is one that the present work can ill sustain. Its marginal equipment, both as respects the critical apparatus and the illustrative references, is conspicuously inferior to its predecessor's, while its exegetical rivalry will not be universally conceded. It does, however, excel the majority of similar works, whether of earlier or more recent date, in what may be called practical exposition. Its general comments, particularly on the first three Gospels, are unusually fresh, terse, apposite, suggestive, as the editor's previous publications prepare one to find them. An

evident endeavor has been made, and with good success, to emancipate the teachings of Jesus from the limitations of time and place, and to show how they may become working forces in the life of to-day.

The feature of the work which will excite surprise is the taking of the so-called *Textus Receptus* as its basis. This step is all the more astonishing because of Professor Bruce's pervasive endeavor to break the domination of the "theological figment of inerrancy." That he should adopt a Protean and erroneous text, which has little but tradition in its favor, and is confessed to be "incomparably inferior" to recent attempted reproductions of the original, is inexplicable. The impression which this procedure gives of the present state of New Testament scholarship in Scotland is anything but complimentary. Probably nowhere else in Protestant Christendom would the perpetration of such an anachronism in a work of like pretensions with the present have been thought of. The editor's justifiable hesitancy about constructing a text ought not to have deterred him from at least adopting either that in which the leading critics concur, rendered accessible as it has been by Dr. Weymouth, or that which received the approval of the well-nigh two-score scholars of both continents who prepared the late revision of the English version. Congruously enough with this unintelligent conservatism we are treated to an account of the history of the printed text in which even the dates of the editions of Tischendorf and Tregelles are inaccurately given, and which betrays no sign that the labors of Griesbach, the editor who published a graded estimate of rival readings, in the light of the evidence available in his day, with a minuteness attempted by no other editor before or since, have ever been heard of. The comments made in the course of the work upon the standing textual problems are generally discreet; but the running citation of authorities, by reason of its meagreness, and its almost complete neglect of the early versions and fathers, amounts to little more than an ornamental fringe.

In the realm of strict exegesis Prof. Bruce's aim is not quite intelligible, nor are his results always sound. He does not shrink from quoting Greek and Latin authors without translating them, and on philological points is more likely to refer to Klotz, Lobeck, Hermann, Bäumlein, Passow, than to Winer or Buttmann or Liddell and Scott, although the latter authors may be no less explicit, and are ten times as accessible to the average student. Viteau's works on N. T. Grammar and Blass's seem to be unknown to him; but due recognition is given to Goodwin and to Burton's 'N. T. Moods and Tenses.' In his occasional attempts to handle philological niceties, he sometimes burns his fingers: for example, "ἀγαλλιάω is from ἄγαν and ἄλλομαι, to leap much" (p. 100). "ὁμοιώθη, Matt. xiii. 24, is an aorist used proleptically for the fut., as in I. Cor. vii. 28"; "ὑπάντησις = a chance or stealthy meeting; ἀπάντησις, an open, designed meeting" (p. 147); "ὅτι recitative. . . . introduces a suggested question: Why?" (Mk. ix. 28). His mode of dealing with delicate questions is illustrated in the Lord's prayer, where of the rendering "the evil one" he says, "The probability is in favor of the masculine, . . . but the change in the Revision is unfortunate." In reference to the story of the Gadarene demoniac he says, "The demoniac is an insane man; our Lord's 'Go,' in response to his request to enter into the swine, is a misunderstood 'Begone!' "; "there was doubtless a *coincidence* of the cure with the catastrophe"; "the number of the swine was possibly an exaggerated estimate." Of the various interpretations proposed for Matt. xxvi., 50, that adopted in the Revision, "*Do* that for which thou art come," is pronounced "the least satisfactory"; indeed, scant deference is paid to the Revised Version even in other cases (Mark vii., 19, for example) where it was mainly instrumental in introducing the translation now generally accepted. In several instances conflicting interpretations are introduced interrogatively and the reader is left to his own conclusions, a procedure recalling the famous exegete of the story who looked difficulties full in the face and *passed on*.

The desire of the author, evident alike in the Introduction and in the notes, to bring his work "up to date" in matters of criticism has made him somewhat unduly hospitable to theories which, if the future may be prognosticated from the past, are likely to prove ephemeral, and hence to give before long an antiquated cast to his work besides blurring somewhat at present the distinctness of its interpretations. The problem of the relation of our first three Gospels to one another through their underlying source or sources is one of the most delicate in literary criticism. But to solve it is the legitimate task of the critic, and not the prime business of the exegete. The latter's duty is to set forth the meaning which the given writer intended, or was originally understood, to convey by his language. To turn aside from that language to the consideration of conjectures about its origin, or its possible relation to similar utterances in other compositions, often tempts the interpreter to evade rather than discharge the task before him, and tends to confuse rather than enlighten his reader.

Prof. Dods, who deals with the Fourth Gospel, is largely exempted by the nature of the case from the temptation to blend criticism and exegesis. His preliminary account of the Gospel is fair and clear, although, like nearly all his predecessors, he fails to treat adequately of its internal characteristics in their relation to its genuineness. His exposition is carefully studied and sober, but lacks the pithy and condensed expression which gives freshness and movement to his associate's work. The latter is more helpful to the preacher, the former more valuable to the interpreter; but neither makes an indispensable addition to the apparatus of the thoroughly educated minister.

An Introduction to American Literature. By Henry S. Pancoast. Henry Holt & Co. 1898. 16mo, xiv. and 393 pp.

American Literature. By Katharine Lee Bates, Wellesley College. The Macmillan Co. 1898. 12mo, x., 325, and 10 pp.

Mr. Pancoast's is quite the best brief manual of his subject that we know—even better, for its humbler purpose, than the companion volume on English literature. National traits are well brought out without neglecting organic connections with the mother country. Forces and movements are as well handled as personalities, the influence of writers hardly less than their individuality. The book is patriotic without the scream of the eagle. While generally free from sectional prejudice, Mr. Pancoast (a Pennsylvanian) has in a few cases unduly emphasized writers of the Middle States. Certainly we should not include among them Bryant, whose formative period was passed in Massachusetts, and whose poetry derives its local color from Hampshire County. Elsewhere New Englanders will find much to be grateful for. Mr. Pancoast is cordial to the South—thoroughly appreciative of Lanier and just to Poe. Slavery is not suggested as a trammel on the literature of the Old South, but the author is duly hopeful for the New South, with its rich and individual promise.

Miss Bates's book is far from satisfactory. Not to enumerate her many errors of fact, we may remark that her style is so allusive that even where she is correct she will often fail to give correct ideas to those not already informed. There are fatal mistakes of perspective. Edward Bellamy and H. W. Mabie are mentioned in a book that does no kind of justice to Hawthorne. The last chapter, that on fiction, is quite the worst of all, and may suffer from haste in writing as well as insufficient study. There are rather unnecessary incursions into fields outside of literature, such as politics, music, and sociology, which exhibit blunders of almost the first magnitude. We intend to be candid, not cruel. Miss Bates has simply undertaken a task beyond her attainments. She has literary skill worthy of a better book. She is not often in bad taste, has humor, and says good things about life and books. One may frequently note a feminine charm in the insight that springs from affection. And here is a true saying: "In Jonathan Edwards and Benjamin Franklin, the two world-redeeming forces of spiritual aspiration and practical benevolence come into the sharpest contrast that our literature affords." The volume is attractively got up, and is illustrated with a fine collection of portraits. Both books are indexed.

The Sun's Place in Nature. By Sir Norman Lockyer. Macmillan. 1897. Pp. 360.

So far as form and style go, Mr. Lockyer writes well on every subject on which he employs his pen. Clearness is apparent, and vigor makes itself felt on all his pages. He has also done work that has given him a high place in the scientific world. And yet, with this double advantage, it is impossible to recommend his works, either to the student or to the general reader, as sources of well-digested and accurate knowledge of the subjects of which they treat. One of the most important canons of science warns the observer and investigator, in entering upon any difficult work, to guard against any preconception of what he is going to see or what conclusion he is going to reach. Another warns him against hasty generalizations. The best scientific workers of the day are so averse to setting forth theories in advance of having completed a sound basis for them, that they are quite content to let men of less reputation win the doubtful glory of having been the first to devise an explanation of some new fact. These canons Mr. Lockyer habitually violates. In making observations he is too much under the influence of preconceived theories to permit of confidence in his work until after it has been confirmed by others.

Eight years ago Mr. Lockyer propounded his "meteoritic hypothesis," that comets and nebulæ are formed of loose collections of countless small bodies, like meteorites, which are

constantly colliding with each other, and thus, by "striking fire," give off the light by which we see them. Two streams of such bodies may come into collision, and then we see a new star. There is probably not a competent authority in the world who maintains this theory to be probable; even its possibility is yet to be proved, yet Mr. Lockyer continues to write of it as if it had a prima-facie case in its favor, and makes it the basis of many of his explanations of celestial phenomena.

The immediate occasion of the present work seems to have been the discovery within the past three or four years of several new elements, notably argon and helium. The latter was inferred to exist in the sun, but was first found on the earth in the rare Norwegian mineral *cleveite*. The characteristic of the work, as of others by the same author, is the predominance of argument. An immense array of facts are marshalled with great ability, but they are set forth rather to form the basis of argument than to group them into an orderly body of knowledge. In consequence, it is impossible to make an intelligible summary of what the book contains, or what the reader may gather by its perusal, beyond the obvious fact that the author is still an adherent of the meteoritic hypothesis. The latter is mentioned or assumed in some form at every step, its truth being taken for granted, and its consequences traced out as if it were an accepted principle. The title of the book seems somewhat misleading. Only on the last page of the book have we been able to find anything about the sun's place in nature; and the one sentence that contains the statement has the air of being put in to justify the title.

The Grand Tactics of Chess. By Franklin K. Young. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1893.

It has been said of a recent history of Napoleon that, whatever the reader may think of the writer's opinions, he must admit that his illustrations are beyond reproach. And so Mr. Young's readers may thank him for a multitude of diagrams, which in many cases elucidate an otherwise incomprehensible text. Chess is so complex a game that it is the first duty of a writer on the subject to follow the excellent advice given by the late Master of Balliol College—"not to write anything that is not perfectly intelligible and which cannot be expressed in words without symbols." From this point of view, what can be said of the following sentence, which is taken at random, and is neither better nor worse than hundreds of others in the book? "White occupies the logistic horizon, thus opening communication with the kindred hypothetical force, and enabling a portion of the latter to enter the topographical zone and effect a junction with the kindred determinate force, the united forces being the greater force as compared with the adverse determinate force." To the average chess-player this statement is almost as puzzling as elementary education to a Tammany Mayor. It may be that in some of his other writings Mr. Young has given a vocabulary of this new language, but he can hardly expect his readers to undertake such preliminary training without protest. What makes his peculiarities particularly annoying is the fact that he is really a fine player, and that his theories, as far as they can be gleaned from diagrams, are both sound and useful. We can only hope that he may find it to his advantage to descend to the vernacular.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, Sarah L., and Gilbert, Charles B. A Reader for Fifth Grades. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co.
Baedeker, Karl. Egypt. Handbook for Travellers. 4th ed. Leipzig: Karl Baedeker; New York: Scribners. $4.50.
Brailsford, H. N. The Broom of the War God. Appletons.
Carlyle, Thomas. Frederick the Great. Vols. III. and IV. [Centenary Edition.] Scribners. $2.50.
D'Annunzio, Gabriele. The Maidens of the Rocks. G. H. Richmond & Son. $1.50.
Day, Lewis F. Windows: A Book about Stained and Painted Glass. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners. $10.50.
Dickens, Charles. The Old Curiosity Shop. 2 vols. Christmas Books. [Gadshill Edition.] Scribners.
Fuller, H. B. From the Other Side. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
George, Henry. The Science of Political Economy. Doubleday & McClure Co. $2.50.
Gilman, Theodore. A Graded Banking System. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Harte, Bret. Tales of Trail and Town. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Hazell's Annual for 1898. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Johnson, Prof. C. F. Elements of Literary Criticism. Harpers. 80c.
Margueritte, Paul and Victor. The Disaster. Appletons. $1.50.
Morgan, Harriet. The Sandman. Cincinnati: The Editor Publishing Co.
Orzesko, Eliza. Meir Ezofovitch. New York: W. L. Allison Co.
Peattie, Elia W. The Love of a Caliban. A Romantic Opera in One Act. Wausau, Wis.: Van Vechten & Ellis.
Poor, Agnes B. Boston Neighbors. Putnams. $1.25.
Sharpless, Isaac. A Quaker Experiment in Government. Philadelphia: Alfred J. Ferris. $1.50.
Smith, Miss Nora A. The Children of the Future. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Spillane, Rowena W. Shakespeare, Dickens, and Scott: Storyettes for the Children. Galveston: Clarke & Courts. $1.
Statham, H. H. Modern Architecture: A Book for Architects and the Public. Scribners. $3.
Story, A. T. The Building of the British Empire. 2 vols. [Story of the Nations.] Putnams. $3.
Swift, Lindsay. The Great Debate—Hayne and Webster. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 40c.
The Annual American Catalogue, 1897. New York: Publishers' Weekly.
The Year's Art. 1898. Compiled by A. C. R. Carter. London: J. S. Virtue & Co.; New York: Brentanos. $1.40.
Ussher, R. Neo-Malthusianism. London: Gibbings & Co.
Walton, Prof. J. S., and Brumbaugh, Prof. M. G. Stories of Pennsylvania. American Book Co. 60c.
Williamson, Mrs. Harcourt. The Barn Stormers. F. A. Stokes Co. 75c.
Younghusband, Capt. G. J. Indian Frontier Warfare. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Scribners. $3.50.

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The Nation.

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The Week.

The framers of the Constitution dreaded a powerful executive. They had themselves suffered, as their ancestors had suffered before them, from the tyranny of the King. They remembered how Parliament, over and over again, had come to the defence of popular liberty against the despotism of English monarchs. They feared that a strong President might overthrow the liberties of the republic which they were founding. They believed that Congress alone must have the power to declare war, because, as Story puts it, "the chief magistrate ought not to be clothed with a power so summary, and at the same time so full of dangers to the public interest and the public safety"; and that specific appropriations should be made by Congress, because, to quote Story again, "if it were otherwise, the executive would possess an unbounded power over the public purse of the nation." We have changed all this, and the unquestioned grant of fifty millions by Congress to the President, to be expended at his discretion, is only the final embodiment of a tendency which has long been plain to every observer. The American people no longer fear the executive, and they no longer trust the legislative body. This is equally true in city, state, and nation. In the present grave crisis we should hail the adjournment of the war-making branch of the Government, and gladly intrust the sole control of the controversy with Spain to the President, well knowing that he might, if he chose, take a course which would precipitate war.

Spain's alleged bankruptcy, as a reason why she will never think of fighting a nation able to vote $50,000,000 in one lavish lump, is no new consideration. It was urged in 1875, when we were talking of armed intervention in Cuba, and Caleb Cushing, our Minister at Madrid, wrote a letter of warning to Secretary Fish on the subject. Spain's finances, he admitted, were in a bad way, but it would never do for the United States to "confide in a deficiency of financial resources standing in the way, if Spain be hard pushed, and stirred up to make sacrifices in case of a war with the United States." In the first place, she would find considerable resources to draw upon in a moment of desperation. There was really much wealth in the country which would come forward in case of war. The Spaniards were "a people preëminently sober in food and drink," and hence their armies can be "contentedly supported" very cheaply, as the Duke of Wellington observed. Moreover, it is by no means true that war cannot be carried on by a country in financial difficulties. Mr. Cushing wrote (and his words are just as pat to-day):

> "The finances of Spain are not in a much worse condition than they were in the time of Charles V. and his successors of the Austrian dynasty. Great loans were rarer then than now. Spain relied much on wealthy Jews for anticipations, although Jews and Gentiles, in the matter of money-lending, incurred hazards quite in proportion to the profits, as illustrated in the hardships of the Jews in Spain, and the case of Jacques Cœur in France. In truth, the Fuggers of Augsburg are among the few houses of that class which remain to this day. Hence the terrible financial straits which the Philips—II., III., and IV.—were constantly suffering in Spain. Nevertheless, they sustained great wars all over the world."

One of the inevitable consequences of war, or even of war talk, is to postpone any and all attempts to reform the currency. We were getting into a hopeful state before the *Maine* explosion took place. A sub-committee of the committee on banking and currency had been appointed to prepare a plan, and there was every prospect of an early report. What prospect is there of the consideration of that or any other domestic reform in the midst of the passions that accompany war? The business of killing the enemy and of burying our own dead and tending our own wounded will supersede everything else. So far from reforming the currency, we shall deteriorate it from day to day. It took us fourteen years to get back to specie payments after the civil war. Yet one of the most probable consequences of a war now would be a fresh suspension, and a strong political party opposed to resumption at any time, on any terms, and in favor of the lowest scale of depreciation possible. The admirable work of the Indianapolis convention will be submerged. What we have learned by experience in a financial way (and we certainly have learned some valuable lessons since the panic of 1893) will be forgotten. Heaven only knows when we shall be sufficiently composed again to resume rational discussion of financial questions, or what kind of ideas will be dominant after a war, especially if it be a war undertaken to prevent the wicked Democrats from carrying the next Congress and upsetting the gold standard.

Since the Senate committee on commerce, by a unanimous vote, made an unfavorable report upon the outrageous nomination by President McKinley of a most disreputable negro politician for Naval Officer at New Orleans, the members of the upper branch show a growing disposition to resume the exercise of judgment upon the appointments proposed by the President. On Thursday a Pennsylvanian was rejected as Receiver of Public Moneys in Oklahoma, and a Texan as Indian Agent in Arizona, on the ground that such nominations violate the principle to which both parties are committed by their last national platforms, that appointments to Federal offices in the Territories should be made from residents. This action is the more notable because last year the Senate consented to repeated violations of this principle by the President, in one case to provide a place for a relative of Mr. McKinley.

The Republican city convention in Des Moines, week before last, adopted a resolution favoring the adoption of a civil-service system for the city based on merit and fitness, "believing it to be desirable in itself, and indispensable to the best results of municipal ownership of public franchises," which the platform also favored; and requesting the Senator and Representatives from Des Moines to favor the enactment by the Legislature of a general municipal civil-service law. The reform measure introduced in the Ohio Legislature proposes that the merit system may be introduced in any city if the voters shall declare in favor of it upon the submission of the question. The Cleveland *Leader* declares its firm conviction that, if the question of inaugurating this system were submitted to the voters of Cleveland, the proposition would carry by an overwhelming majority, and it also believes that a large majority of the people living in the cities of Ohio would approve the passage by the Legislature of the pending bill. All signs indicate that the reform is steadily gaining ground all over the country, through the public's growing appreciation of its great advantages over the spoils system.

Mr. John M. Good, who was elected Mayor of Springfield, Ohio, last spring, has been ousted from his office on a verdict by the Circuit Court that he was guilty of violating the corrupt-practices law of the State. This is the first decision of the kind, we believe, that has been made under any of the dozen or more corrupt-practices laws which we have in this country, although it is notorious that most of these are violated, more or less flagrantly, in every election. Mr. Good was elected as a Democrat by a plurality of 1,100. Under the law, which is known as the Garfield law, he was permitted to expend only $144.50, the amount of the expenditure being regulated by the size of the constituency. Not only was it proved in court that his expenditures had exceeded the lawful limit, but in its verdict the court said

that his sworn return of expenses was wilfully false in every particular, and that all the expenses named were for illegal purposes. Furthermore, it was shown that he had made promises to appoint specified persons to office, which was also an illegal act under the law, sufficient of itself to deprive him of his office. There is great astonishment in party circles in Ohio over this verdict. Mr. Good has been performing the duties of Mayor for nearly a year, and there seems to have been little expectation that the court would decide against him. Suit was brought by the President of a Trades Assembly, who was moved to do so through failure of Mr. Good to fulfil a preëlection promise.

The most important aspect of the incident is its notification to all politicians throughout the State that a corrupt-practices law is capable of being enforced as rigorously as any other law. This was a lesson which it was very hard for politicians to learn about civil-service laws, which for years they regarded as play or "fool" laws, passed only to quiet reformers, and not to be taken seriously or obeyed literally. The Garfield corrupt-practices law is one of the most recent statutes of the kind that we have, having been enacted in 1896. It was brought before the Supreme Court recently, on a charge of unconstitutionality, but was upheld as constitutional. It is a fairly good law, but is less stringent in some respects than similar laws in other States, notably those of Missouri, California, and Minnesota. Yet we doubt if it has been so openly violated as these laws have been in nearly every election held since they were put on the statute-books. The California law especially has been treated with open contempt by many candidates, who have filed burlesque reports under it, yet there has been no effort made to enforce its provisions. Under the Ohio law, any elector may file with the Attorney-General charges of violation against a candidate, and the Attorney-General is directed to bring an action, but the elector must accompany his charges with a bond of $1,000. In case the Attorney-General fails to act, the elector may bring suit himself. The burden thus placed upon the elector is a heavy one, and, unless he is animated by unusual zeal in the public interest, or by unusual personal animosity, he is not likely to undertake the task. If we could have in every State which possesses such a law an association or associations of men organized for the express purpose of seeing to it that all violators are brought to justice, there would soon be a change of attitude by the politicians.

Judge Woodward, who presided over the recent trial at Wilkes-Barre, Pa., of the Sheriff and his deputies who fired upon the mob of riotous strikers at Lattimer last year, seems to be a man of the same type as Judge Gary, before whom the Chicago anarchists were brought. It required both physical and moral courage in each case to insist that justice should be done when threats of actual violence were made in case of conviction, and it required also the judicial temper in its best development to make such rulings and deliver such a charge to the jury as should convince all fair-minded men that impartiality held absolute sway on the bench. Judge Woodward met all of these tests as well as Judge Gary. Nor are these exceptional cases, save for the intense interest felt in the trials. Our judiciary, as a whole, has well maintained its ancient reputation throughout the period in which labor troubles have subjected the bench to new tests of courage, ability, and fairness. So long as we can count upon a Gary or a Woodward in any emergency, we may retain unimpaired confidence in our courts.

A revolt of the right sort against Quayism in Pennsylvania has at last started. The movement to oppose the boss through the candidacy of a man who supported him only a few years ago could not arouse the spirit and enthusiasm which must be evoked in order to make the fight against Quay either threatening or inspiring. The leader in such a contest must be a man who has always been the outspoken opponent of bossism. Such a man is the Rev. Dr. Swallow, a plain-spoken and courageous clergyman, who is thoroughly informed as to the corruption of Quay rule, and who is not afraid to tell what he thinks about it. Dr. Swallow ran for State Treasurer last year as the candidate of the Prohibitionists, and gave the politicians of all parties a tremendous surprise by polling nearly 120,000 votes, and carrying about a dozen counties, including the one which contains the State capital. As the Prohibition vote the year before had been less than 20,000, it was clear that about 100,000 men had supported Dr. Swallow without any reference to his views on the liquor question, simply as a protest against boss rule. Some public-spirited citizens of Philadelphia, who were much impressed by his campaign last year, propose to put Dr. Swallow in the field this year as an independent candidate for Governor. Among the leaders in this movement are Philip C. Garrett (chairman of the old Committee of One Hundred), Archdeacon Cyrus T. Brady, and Mr. Herbert Welsh, while many other prominent citizens have already pledged their support to it. Dr. Swallow will stand, and his campaign will be watched with the greatest interest and the warmest sympathy by all friends of good government throughout the country.

The Populist Governor of Kansas has given out an address "going for" the Supreme Court of the United States, and it is announced that the pronunciamiento has the approval of the Populist Chief Justice of the State Supreme Court and of other prominent Populists. Its character may be sampled from the declaration that the recent decision of the highest judicial tribunal in the Nebraska railroad case "is an unclean victory in every aspect of the case, showing that, no matter how carefully the robes of justice are folded about the personnel of the Supreme Court, these robes can no longer conceal the cloven hoof of official malfeasance and usurpation." Gov. Leedy has decided to call a special session of the Kansas Populist Legislature to pass a maximum-rate bill of his own, which the Supreme Court cannot set aside without reversing its decision in the Nebraska case; and he serves notice that, "if the Court still pursues the corrupt and rotten practice that it has heretofore, by changing its decisions to suit the shifting interests of the railroad corporations, the remedy will be with the people in their dealings with the courts, or in building railroads of their own." The Republicans of Kansas will welcome this Populist plan of campaign. Leedy and his administration are already much discredited, and public sentiment has shown itself so much opposed to the extra-session scheme that the party must inevitably suffer from the unnecessary assembling of the Legislature.

Gov. Black is succeeding beautifully in his plans for the suppression of the inquiry as to the manner in which Superintendent Aldridge has spent $9,000,000 in improving the canals. Over two months have passed and a beginning has not been made. One month was consumed in convincing the Legislature that the inquiry should be taken out of its hands and placed in those of the Governor. The Governor has been empowered for a month to select a commission to do the work. He has asked the Chamber of Commerce to select some persons to go on the commission, and it has done so. Still, no commission has been appointed. It is discovered now that the bill, drawn to meet the Governor's personal wishes in the matter, requires that the members of the commission shall serve without pay, and provides only $10,000 for all expenses incurred in the inquiry. Under these unfavorable conditions, the Governor is said to be meeting with difficulty in finding men who are willing to go on the commission, and he is deeply pained by this fact. When it is borne in mind that the commission will be without power to compel the attendance of witnesses, or in other ways to secure valuable testimony, it is not strange that nobody of consequence cares to go upon it. Something

of this kind was foreseen when the Governor's plan was proposed, but he had it "jammed through" just the same, and the outcome vindicates his perspicacity. The inquiry is safely side-tracked till after election, and that was the main object to be accomplished.

The members of our Municipal Assembly from the Boroughs of Brooklyn, Queens, and Richmond are in a very enviable position as regards the use of city money for the Birth Celebration. The Mayor is in favor of an appropriation of $50,000 as a starter for the celebration, and a resolution recommending it has been presented in both houses. Under the charter, no money can be expended in this way except "by the votes of four-fifths of all members elected to each house." This places a veto power in the hands of one more than a fifth of the members in each house, or six in the Council and thirteen in the Board of Aldermen. Brooklyn, Queens, and Richmond have thirteen members of the Council and twenty-four members of the Board of Aldermen. They have ample power, therefore, to hold up the appropriation indefinitely, and this they are determined to do. The Mayor has been very rigid in enforcing economy upon these boards, and has refused to allow them what they regard as adequate funds for setting their borough machinery in operation. Their turn has come now. They say that if economy is a good thing, the more of it the better, and that one man should not have a monopoly of indulgence in it. When the Mayor becomes convinced that there has been too much economy in the distribution of public money for the boroughs outside the old city limits, they will be able to take the view that it is not inconsistent with true economy to use $50,000 or more of the public money for a Birth Celebration. Their position is a fine one, and we congratulate them heartily upon it. As a demonstration of the "home rule" possibilities of the new charter it is quite the most striking yet made.

Monday's heavy engagements of gold in Europe, for importation to the United States, bring the total imported or engaged within the past three weeks to $21,000,000. This large and sudden importation, though doubtless emphasized by foreign purchases of our securities in the recent break of prices, is fundamentally a response to the money-market situation. The merchandise movement between this and foreign countries had, it is true, created a large credit balance in favor of the United States. But throughout last year, and during the first month of the present year, this balance was quite offset by the difference in discount rates between our own and foreign markets. During recent months, in fact, the London rate for time loans had ruled actually above the New York rate. This situation made it both feasible and profitable for sterling bankers, instead of forwarding maturing bills to London for collection, to extend such bills through the use of funds raised in the New York money market. The result of this process was that, despite the large merchandise exports of last autumn, sterling exchange continued close to international parity, and the movement of gold was inconsiderable.

As it was the action of the money markets which made this situation possible, so it was the money markets which, three weeks ago, prevented its longer continuance. Active interior demand for money, in connection with the expanding trade exchanges of the West and South, foreshadowed a change in the New York money market more than a month ago. The recent uneasiness over the Cuban situation—causing, as such misgivings always do, a greater caution among the lending institutions—hastened and emphasized the coming change. The result was an abrupt advance in short-time money at New York from 3½ to 4½ or 5 per cent. Immediately, as will be inferred, the "holding-back" of sterling drafts became unprofitable. It was cheaper for foreign debtors on exchange to borrow in London than in New York, and for holders of unemployed capital there was a more remunerative field in the United States than in Great Britain. The fall in foreign exchange, and the consequent heavy remittances of foreign gold, were a logical result. Presumably, if the "war scare" subsides, it will be found that international balances and money market parities have been again restored. For by precisely this mechanical process just described European capital has supplied the needs of the local discount market while foreign borrowings in that market were reduced. The rate for loans in New York would, therefore, logically grow easier, even while the London rate was rising; a double movement which must render less and less profitable the further continuance of the drain from that market to the United States.

Sir William Harcourt's observation that England had no great trade interests at stake in countries where the people wear no clothes, goes far towards explaining the fact that English anxiety about affairs in China is so much greater than over occurrences in the Niger country. In Africa it is largely a question of securing strategic positions for the distant future; of making ready for colonists yet to be. But in China, opening now to the world in spite of herself, there already exists a vast market, and one which is capable of almost indefinite expansion. Capt. Younghusband's article on Mantchuria in the last *Nineteenth Century* indicates the remarkable richness and promise of the province into which the Russians are now pushing their way. Here are the greatest forests of the best timber now left untouched on the earth's surface. Here are navigable rivers piercing the land in all directions; coal and mineral deposits; a soil well fitted for a varied agriculture; a hardy population numbering 20,000,000, in a province that might easily, Capt. Younghusband says, support 40,000,000. The imperilling of British trade, present and future, in such a region as this is a much more serious affair than a conflict over some wretched African outposts at Brussa. Yet the Russians are taking possession of Mantchuria with the slow push of fate. They already have nibbled away the land on the north; they already have possession of the chief seaports; by railroad building and the steady incursion of traders they make it clear that they mean ultimately to control everything. Who is to prevent them? China confesses herself unable to do it. Lord Salisbury, in broken health, is scarcely the man to challenge the Russian advance in Mantchuria. He is much more likely to propose, in the line of Mr. Curzon's guarded suggestion the other day, the seizure of other parts of Chinese territory as an offset to Russian predominance in the North.

The result of the latest referendum in Switzerland was the decision, made by an overwhelming vote on February 20, that all the railroads should be bought and managed by the Confederation. This was the more surprising as recent elections had all gone against centralized powers of government. A proposed Federal bank, a Federal monopoly of the match industry, larger control of the military by the general Government, had all been voted down. But the nationalization of the railroads went through with remarkable ease. The arguments which persuaded the voters seem not to have been based upon absolute reason. The question of buying the roads was skilfully mixed up with that of fixing the rates for freight and passengers. Every voter has dreamed of free transportation and frequent excursion trains, when once a benevolent Government got things in its own hands. Then there was the appeal to national pride. Were the free and independent Switzers going to let foreigners draw 6 per cent. on Swiss railroad bonds, and fix rates at their pleasure? No, said the indignant voters; we will buy the railroads of the foreigners, borrowing the money of them to do it, and making them take less than 6 per cent. on the loan, if they kindly will. And we will at once put down the rates, unless we have to keep them up in order to pay the interest on the money with which we buy the railroads.

THE GRANT OF FIFTY MILLIONS.

The country has now voted $50,000,000 for national defence, but against what or whom must we defend ourselves? No man speaking with authority at Washington or anywhere else has said. We are absolutely in the dark as to who is going to attack us and why. Some of the Congressmen who have talked with the President may have been given to understand his reasons for wishing to put the country in a state of defence; but if so, they have not stated what those reasons are, nor has the President. Whatever favored Congressmen may know or suspect, whatever the President's advisers may keep locked in their breasts, the people as a whole have not one authentic word to guide them as to the policy of the Administration respecting Cuba, either in the past or in the future.

We will not say that this is a ridiculous or preposterous situation, but shall content ourselves with pointing out how unprecedented it is. It is safe to assert that no monarch or ministry could get from the merest semblance of a Parliament $50,000,000 for war purposes without one lisp why it was needed and against whom. Mr. Cleveland, at the time of the Venezuelan upheaval, asked for only $100,000, but even for that trifle he felt compelled to lay the whole correspondence before Congress. But there is a still closer precedent in the action of our Government at the time of the former Cuban rebellion and our threatened intervention. Secretary Fish sent a very important communication to Madrid on November 5, 1875. It did not lead to war, though it might easily have done so. It did lead to strained relations with Spain, and the rumors about the negotiations caused great uneasiness in Congress and throughout the country. Towards the end of January, 1876, Congress called upon the Secretary of State for the correspondence, and it was promptly laid before the House. If there was a reason for war or a danger of war, Congress then felt that it and the country were entitled to know it. Congress and the country seem content now to rest in entire ignorance.

The Cuban correspondence of Mr. Fish (Senate Doc. 213, 54th Cong., 1st Session) is interesting reading for other reasons. It shows how almost every phase of the present troubles was then met and peacefully disposed of. This is reassuring. Still more reassuring is it to find that President Grant took a definite position in November, which looked straight to war, and abandoned it in March, when by doing so peace could be promoted. On November 5, 1875, Mr. Fish wrote to Caleb Cushing, our Minister at Madrid, that the President had a "firm conviction" that "whatever might be the vicissitudes of the struggle, and whatever efforts might be put forth by the Spanish power in Cuba, no doubt could be entertained that the final issue of the conflict would be to break the bonds which attached Cuba as a colony to Spain." But by March 1, 1876, President Grant had come to admit that "discovery and long occupation have made the island a possession of Spain, and the United States has no desire to disturb the relations which result therefrom." If a Grant could thus change front, may not even a McKinley waver?

There lives in honorable retirement in Princeton, N. J., a statesman whose fame, in spite of errors and defects, will, we believe, grow, and deservedly grow, for many generations. One of the most courageous and patriotic acts of his illustrious career was the issue of bonds, beginning with the contract of 1895, in order to procure money to save the national credit and ward off a business panic. It saved us from a genuine commercial catastrophe of the first order. He made a vain attempt to have these bonds made expressly payable in gold. For this transaction he was loaded with such abusive blackguardism as has seldom been heaped on a public man. Everything Republican orators and journals could do to make his loan a failure was done. Epithets of the grossest kind were poured on him. The illustrious Lodge joined the Populists and mining Senators in heaping vituperation on him. The contract under which the loan was made, Lodge, "the conscientiously equipped literary man," pronounced "on its face the blackest public contract ever made by the Government of the United States." The loan was a success, and gold came into the Treasury. When the Republican national convention met at St. Louis in 1896, its platform followed up the cue furnished by the Republican Congressmen. It said, speaking of Mr. Cleveland's administration:

> "It has been a record of unparalleled incapacity, dishonor, and disaster. In administrative management it has ruthlessly sacrificed indispensable revenue, entailed an unceasing deficit, eked out ordinary current expenses with borrowed money, piled up the public debt by $262,000,000 in time of peace, forced an adverse balance of trade, kept a perpetual menace hanging over the redemption fund, pawned American credit to alien syndicates, and reversed all the measures and results of successful Republican rule."

Well, if Mr. Cleveland had not borrowed that money, there would be none in the Treasury to-day except what has been received from the Pacific railroads. The vote of $50,000,000 for national defence would have been a *brutum fulmen* unless the President had been authorized to borrow it by the sale of bonds. The silly boasting about it as "surplus" is purely mendacious. It is borrowed money left over from Mr. Cleveland's administration. It may be right and proper to use it, as it is being used, for purposes of national defence; it may be right and proper to give the President discretion in spending it, but it is wrong to lie about it. The *Tribune* of Thursday published complacently the following extract from the *Daily Bondbuyer:*

> "Nothing in all history, ancient or modern, can be regarded as a parallel to the vote of the United States Congress giving President McKinley authority to expend in his own discretion $50,000,000 of the surplus gold in the United States Treasury for the national defence."

The rhodomontade of this needs no characterization; but it is also mendacious, and, by quoting it without comment, the *Tribune* makes itself a partner in the falsehood. There is no "surplus gold" in the Treasury. There is some borrowed gold in the Treasury. To call it "surplus" is a bald falsehood. One hundred times in history, both ancient and modern, rulers of states have been given borrowed money to use for military purposes, as our ruler has been.

On Tuesday of last week, Mr. Cannon of Illinois, chairman of the committee on appropriations, joined the ignoble herd of falsifiers and perverters as follows:

> "Now, a word in conclusion. We have got the money in the Treasury to meet this appropriation if it is expended, and that, too, without resorting, in our opinion, to further taxation. Therefore, there is no coupling with this a proposition that would probably be made in most countries in the world under similar circumstances to levy additional taxes to meet the expenditure. I say again, we are satisfied that revenues to be yielded from present revenue laws will afford sufficient money to meet this expenditure and, in addition thereto, the ordinary expenditures of the government." [Applause.]

Almost every line of this statement contains an attempt to deceive. The suggestion that we have got this money in the Treasury, and, therefore, shall not need, if it is expended, to resort to "further taxation," is an undoubted *suggestio falsi.* First, Mr. Cannon tries to make it appear that this money is the product of taxation. It is not. It is the product of a loan made by Mr. Cleveland, as Mr. Cannon well knows. Second, he tries to make it appear that if other countries had this amount of borrowed money in the Treasury, they would not spend it, but would levy fresh taxes. This is untrue on its face. Third, he tries to make it appear that the present revenue law has produced, or will produce, this amount of surplus, when he knows well that the revenue has, since June 30, fallen short of ordinary expenditures by $52,254,617. There is, therefore, a deficit, not a surplus, of that amount in the Treasury, and but for Mr. Cleveland's loan the Government would be now borrowing money, not only for national defence, but for ordinary expenses.

It is shocking to the moral sense that at such a moment, when we are all supposed to be more than usually impressed with a sense of public duty, when one of the most solemn problems which can arise in the life of a nation is pressing on us for solution, the leading men of a great party, and its leading journals, should fall to lying like clockwork about

the national finances. It is still worse that their lying should be that unusual, base kind which involves the slander and depreciation of a great citizen, whose silence in the presence of it all reflects far more credit on us than our readiness to hand over the money with which he has provided us to President McKinley without restriction. That we have among us one man who, after having done his duty and deserved well of the republic, can bear being lied about without a sign even of amusement, is worth more to us than half-a-dozen battle-ships.

AFTER INTERVENTION—WHAT?

The speeches exchanged by President McKinley and the new Spanish Minister on Saturday were brimful of peace on earth and good will towards men. Each pledged himself to do all in his power to promote the cordial relations existing between the two countries. Mr. McKinley was very impressive in declaring his intention to do so, and he was evidently sincere. It is to be noted, however, that while this exchange of courtesies was taking place, the stock market was "going all to pieces," and that the newspapers of Sunday morning, even those that are the least sensational in tone, published more than a full page of news items about preparations for war. Among these was an interview with Gen. Wesley Merritt, who professed his willingness to undertake the invasion of Cuba with 25,000 to 30,000 men.

This was an extraordinary outgiving from a high officer of the army, and would subject him to a severe reprimand under like circumstances in any country of Europe. It is in keeping, however, with our slap-dash way of doing the largest things, such as appropriating $50,000,000 to be expended in the sole discretion of the President. Whether Gen. Merritt's idea of the size of the army needed for the successful invasion of Cuba is right or wrong, it raises the question what is to be accomplished by an invasion of Cuba. There are perhaps 100,000 Spanish troops in the island, the remainder of the 250,000 sent thither having succumbed to disease and the hardships of the service. It may be presumed that those who remain are acclimated and able to stand a good deal of pounding. Presuming that Gen. Merritt's 25,000 men would all escape the diseases of a tropical and malarious climate, and would dispose of the Spanish troops still there, what next?

There was a statement published in Havana the other day, signed by prominent citizens thereof, to the effect that 80 per cent. of the property of the island was owned by men who were not only opposed to the present rebellion, but opposed to autonomy also. This statement was published because the signers of it were opposed to Gen. Blanco's programme. They want the old system maintained, contrary to the declared wishes and purposes of Spain. Are we to put them down after we have disposed of the Spanish troops in the island? Supposing they should take arms to defend themselves against Gomez after the Spanish forces are wiped out or withdrawn. In the latter event there would be a republic in Cuba. All that prevents a republic in Cuba now is the Spanish authority. Remove that, and we have government by the majority, which is our ideal.

Even this simple thing has to be inaugurated and set going. In the case supposed, Gen. Merritt would be under the necessity of holding and administering in some fashion a territory 760 miles long—say, the distance from New York to Toledo—containing a population of 1,500,000, one-third being colored, and all unused to self-government, and the more intelligent part, as we have seen, opposed to that kind of government. In the event that we disestablish the present government we must put something in its place, and this must be done by elections. We must undertake in Cuba what we undertook in the South thirty-three years ago. It will be nothing short of reconstruction, but it will be more difficult than reconstruction in the Southern States was, because it must be imposed upon a people who do not speak our language, who do not think our ideas, and who will be sure to hate us if we try to coerce them. Add to these embarrassments the fact that the Cubans are Roman Catholics, while we are mostly Protestants, and we have as many incongruities as the British had originally in India. But there is this difference in the two cases. British rule in India in the first instance was the despotism of a private trading company, irresponsible to the last degree. We have nothing in our system of government which corresponds to it. We have no way of ruling a dependency except by the ballot. We should be obliged to impose upon Cuba, in the case supposed, what we actually imposed on the South after the civil war—that is, carpet-baggers, negro suffrage, and a chaos of institutions; and we should get our pay eventually in the addition to our Congress of two Senators and ten or twelve Representatives no better, but perhaps worse, than those whom the South gave us during the reconstruction period. If a local revolution or a Kuklux régime should follow, such events would be in accord with the course of Spanish-American republics down to the present day and with well-remembered events in our own history.

We have been told—indeed, we are told every day or two—that President McKinley is about to send in to Congress a number of consular reports about the condition of affairs in Cuba which will so powerfully stir the feelings of our people that he will be compelled to intervene at once. If this be true, it is assuredly the part of wisdom not to send those reports to Congress at all, since the publication of them would not give us any rights, privileges, or powers that we do not now possess. We have been minding our own business until the present time, except so far as we have contributed to the relief of destitution in this island. If we are such a volatile people that we cannot bear to read tales of bloodshed and cruelty resulting from war in another country without rushing blindly to take part in it, then that is the best reason for keeping such exciting tales from the public ear. It is true that the Senate has called for these papers, if their production would not be incompatible with the public interests, but the President must judge whether such a communication is desirable at this time or not. If it is not desirable, the Senate resolution cannot excuse him for producing a state of feeling which may result in war. He should bear in mind, too, that a war which the conscience of the nation does not heartily support, a war which leaves a doubt in the mind of Christian men and women whether it is right for us to engage in it, is politically unwise and dangerous. The enthusiasm which the first smell of gunpowder creates will be a very feeble reliance unless it is sustained by the conviction of substantial citizens that we are following an imperative call to duty; that we have weighed the consequences, and that we have well considered what we are to do after we shall have successfully intervened in Cuba and assumed the responsibility of governing it.

"SUSPENSION OF JUDGMENT."

Capt. Sigsbee of the *Maine*, in the first moments of excitement after the explosion, telegraphed to us all for a "suspension of judgment" about the causes of the tragedy. What he meant was simply that we should not form an opinion about these causes until we were in possession of all the knowable facts. No request could be more reasonable and human. But to make an examination of the tragedy with a view to forming a rational opinion about it, far from suspending our judgment, we ought to keep it in constant activity. Judgment means the faculty of the mind which discovers the relations between ideas and facts, or between different facts. Judgment is a constant collector and comparer of facts with other facts, or of facts with ideas. It is necessary almost at every moment of our existence. We need judgment in ordering our dinner, in crossing the crowded streets, or in buying a newspaper at the stand. A man without judgment is an imbecile, and a man who "suspends his judg-

ment" is a man who proposes to act like an imbecile.

There never has been a time in our history when the constant use of our judgment was more necessary than at this crisis. Those who have "suspended their judgment" during the last two or three weeks are either fools or knaves. In the first place, we have to use judgment, as we have said, in forming an opinion as to the cause of the explosion, and the first step to be taken for this purpose is the collection of facts and probabilities bearing on explosions on board men-of-war in general, and then on this explosion on board of this man-of-war in particular. The man who pays no attention to these facts or probabilities "suspends his judgment," and sinks to the level of the animal. An elephant feels a thorn in his foot; he looks up and sees a man near by; he concludes that it is the man who has pricked him, and, owing to the absence of judgment, rushes at him and kills him. A rascally newspaper man dislikes Spaniards, or wants a war to help to sell his paper, or is "short" of stocks and wants a fall, so "he suspends his judgment" and says the Spaniards blew up the *Maine*. If he finds the people do not believe him, he invents "proofs," and sells them at a cent a dozen. In other words, he pretends that his judgment is at work when he has really suspended it for purposes of his own, and is simply lying. In fact, "suspension of judgment," whenever there are any signs of war, takes place with us on a scale which is most alarming in a country in which public opinion is expressed through the newspapers. The ideal use of the press would be the giving of assistance to the public in the use of its judgment, by furnishing it with the facts and considerations necessary to make up its mind rationally—that is, under the laws of proof. The actual object of the Jingo press is to confuse the public mind by producing facts that are not facts and proofs that do not prove. So that a large portion of the "news" is very like raw meat for wild beasts. It makes them roar and lash their tails, and makes reason seem unnatural or ridiculous.

It must be said, however, that it is not only the Jingo newspapers which are to blame in this matter. Congress is nearly as much given to suspension of judgment about war as the press. When any President proposes a war to Congress, it hardly ever asks, "Why should we go to war? What has happened to make it desirable? Can we not get along without it? It will involve great loss of life and destruction of property." The Constitution intends that it should ask these questions, but it never asks them. There is no more *discussion* of war in the Legislature than in an Ojibway council. Judgment is instantly "suspended," and it says to the President, "Here is $50,000,000. Kill as many men as you can with it, and destroy as much property. You can tell us why you did it when it is all over." If judgment remained active, the two houses would find out first why there had to be a war, and whether there was not another way to the same end. Then they would examine our means of offence and defence, the state of our armament by land and sea, the extent of the enemy's resources, and, having ascertained all this, would say to the President: "Yes, by the exercise of our judgment, we have discovered that our quarrel is just, and that by employing force we shall probably attain our end, and we see clearly that no other course is open to us. But we cannot suspend our judgment at your request. The Constitution forbids it, and so do religion and humanity."

One of the greatest differences, not only between men and animals, but between adults and children, is the possession of this power of judgment by men and its absence in beasts and boys. It is through judgment that men learn fear of consequences. It is owing to want of judgment that horses run away, cows get mired, elephants tear down fences, and boys leave home to become bandits. Of all the acts performed by a nation, going to war with another nation is the most solemn and far-reaching in its consequences. Currency bills, tariffs, immigration laws, force bills, interstate commerce laws, are all trifling in comparison. None of them has results which can for one moment be compared to the results of war—the moral, material, and financial results. And yet there is no national act which is determined on with so little judgment. You could to-day get twice as much consideration from Jingoes for the purchase of a railroad or the improvement of a harbor as for a proposal to kill thousands of Spaniards and burn their houses. Why this should be we do not pretend to know. The ordinary explanation of philosophers is, the survival of the combative instinct of primitive savagery; but why has this savage instinct survived in this one field of human activity and not in others? I get my living by spinning, or weaving, or digging, and not by hunting or fishing. I treat my wife with tenderness, and relieve her of all hard work, instead of beating her and smoking in the sun while she toils. I send my children to school and church, instead of training them to take scalps and burn houses. I put the old in refuges, instead of leaving them to perish by starvation. I sit by the hour listening to a man, to whom I pay a salary, advising me to forgive my enemies, to cultivate charity, to return good for evil, to visit the widows and the fatherless in their affliction. Why, then, do I occasionally rush out and, with loud yells, make as many widows and fatherless as I can, and urge any blackguard I meet to tell me stories that will make me more bloodthirsty and unforgiving? We do not know. It is one of the great mysteries of the universe, including human nature.

THE MORALITY OF CROWDS.

A Frenchman, M. Le Bon, last year produced a book entitled the 'Psychology of Crowds,' which, though containing many extravagant generalizations, especially in the latter part, is well worth reading in connection with any study of the phenomenon which is now occupying so much of our attention, called "yellow journalism." As we see to-day, in spite of all the ridicule that has been lavished on the "yellow journals," in spite of the daily exposure of their lying, in spite of the general acknowledgment of the mischief they do, in spite of the general belief in the baseness and corruption and satanism of their proprietors, their circulation is apparently as large as ever. The Government and decent people are still obliged, as much as ever, to keep contradicting their "fake" stories and to keep reassuring the public against their alarms. There is a widespread belief that one of them is short of "stocks"; that another has, just as if he were the devil himself, laid a large wager that he will bring on a war within a certain period. None of these things seems to produce much, if any, effect. We made inquiries the other day, about their sales, of a newsdealer in a small suburban village. He told us he sold 150 of the yellowest, 110 of the next yellowest, 10 of the most blackguardly and unscrupulous, only 2 of the *Tribune*, and 1 of the *Times;* this after the yellows had been notoriously lying and trying to bring on a war for over two weeks. There was probably hardly one of these purchasers who, if questioned individually, would not confess that he did not believe a word he read in his paper. Yet it would be found on further talk about Cuba and the war, and the duty of our nation, and the conduct of the Spaniards, that his opinions on all these subjects, or on nearly all, had acquired a distinctly yellow tinge. You would not come across, in any of them, any signs that he had been seeking light at any of the sources from which civilized and Christian men are usually supposed to ask guidance about either public or private affairs, under trying circumstances.

M. Le Bon has an explanation of this which is at least worth attention. He treats a "crowd" as something entirely different psychologically from the individuals composing it—with different morals, different standards of belief, different views of expediency, complete indifference to the laws, customs, and traditions even of their own civilization. Of course, at an earlier period every one was familiar with all these as characteristics of what is called a "mob."

But, according to M. Le Bon, a considerable number of them have been transferred to a portion of the vast masses of electors by whom every democratic country is now ruled. He argues against the way in which some writers have condemned the conduct of crowds under *all* circumstances. "The crowd," he says, "is often criminal, without doubt, but also it is often heroic. It is crowds that are most easily presuaded to give their lives for the triumph of an idea or belief, and that can be most easily roused into enthusiasm for glory or honor."

Le Bon defines a "crowd" as a body of persons animated by the same thoughts and desires, for reasons they cannot formulate, which as individuals they would probably largely ridicule or repudiate. Under this definition, we may fairly call the victims of the greenback "craze" or the silver "craze" a crowd. It will undoubtedly also cover the readers of the yellow journals, and the Jingoes generally. All these persons desire war for reasons they cannot state, or which as individuals they would disown. War is, now that slavery and polygamy are gone, the last relic of a barbarous world. It remains, unhappily, owing to the weakness of human nature, the only mode, in the last resort, of deciding disputes between nations. Three hundred years ago or later, it occupied a higher place than this, for it was a favorite amusement of kings and nobles. "I have loved war too much," said Louis XIV. on his deathbed. Every king had his wars, as he had his chase, and the Lodges and Roosevelts of those days kept halberds and crossbows over their mantelpieces, ready to be taken down whenever the King called on them to help him to punish some "insult" or seize some territory. The education of young men was mainly military. Killing people was considered the only profession fit for a gentleman. The whole modern world was infected with the same disease. The Roman idea that the proper use of war was to subjugate and introduce a higher civilization, gave way to the mediæval one, that the proper use of war was to humiliate somebody and show your power. A long war was waged between Bologna and Modena about the possession of a wooden bucket, which Tassoni, an Italian poet, has burlesqued in a delightful poem. In fact, from the year 500 to the year 1800 war seems to have been considered the chief end of man.

Since 1800 better ideas have taken possession of the world. It is true, armaments are larger than ever, but every Power protests its dislike of war and its firm determination to use its force only for defensive purposes. But it is, of course, impossible to deny to a great nation the influence which comes from the possession of great strength. Every nation is entitled to profit, even materially, by the civic virtues, the courage, foresight, prudence, skill, and political sagacity which have built it up, and we are far from alleging that a nation like the United States, or England, or Germany has not the right to keep "a mailed fist" ready to enforce, if necessary, its own ideas of law and justice. But the ideas it enforces should be those of law and justice, and the use of the "mailed fist" should be resorted to only when all else has been tried and failed. It should never be forgotten that war is and must always be a judgment in your own cause, or, in other words, on its face a violation of one of the first principles of morality. Therefore, the greater the Power, the greater should be the morality behind the Power. No killing or house-burning any more, except as a dreadful and last necessity. No fights between nations over trifles light as air, or over barbarous notions about the impalpable thing called "honor," any more than between duellists. The necessity of war should be plain and its issue reasonably certain.

If all this be true, it is easy to imagine the wonder with which civilized men saw, three or four years ago, the beginning in America, of all countries in the world, of the Jingo movement, which maintained that war was a means of moral discipline; that national character suffered for want of war; that love of war should be taught even to children in order to make war easy. For two whole years these Jingoes hunted poor Mr. Cleveland towards war; even chaplains prayed that legislators might have a real swashbuckler temper. Since his time this bellicose mood has been kept alive by the Cuban affair, but the military gospel was losing some of its absurdities until the *Maine* explosion took place and the yellow journals began to sit on the matter. The "craze" then passed one stage further, and Le Bon's "crowd" appeared on the scene in its fullest development.

A leading Western paper, the Detroit *Tribune*, lately published an article which King Clovis might have written, had he known how to write, advocating war for business reasons, and showing that war is profitable, if not too big—views distinctly belonging to the year 500, and an extraordinary mixture of economical ignorance and animal ferocity. In the phrase, "That there is profit in war could not be so widely believed if it were not true," there is an illustration of M. Le Bon's theory—so apt that we are sending it over to him for the next edition of his book. If we went to any one of the individuals composing this editor's "crowd" and said to him, "Your business, you say, is languid and the future uncertain. Now, if I can show you that it can be greatly improved by killing a few men and burning three or four inhabited houses, will you come and help me to do it?" he would probably eject us from his premises with indignation. But when "the crowd" says it, he believes it must be true, and that it is a perfectly proper mode of improving the times. Every man of the crowd probably has a wife whom he loves and children that are the delight of his life. He sympathizes deeply with other husbands and fathers. If you proposed to him to work off his woollens or cottons by killing a few of them, he would be shocked. But when "the crowd" proposes it, he sallies out and makes all the widows and orphans he can, and gloats with his neighbors over the sorrow and destruction he causes.

A NEW CHARTER FOR BALTIMORE CITY.

BALTIMORE, March 11, 1898.

Like the earlier flat towns of provincial Maryland, Baltimore Town was designed essentially as a market-place and entrepôt, where local traffic could be carried on, imports be entered, exports be cleared, and public dues and taxes be paid. It was endowed with no exceptional political or civil privileges, and had virtually no organic life of its own. Not until 1796, sixty-seven years after its erection as a town, were corporate life and privileges conferred. During the greater part of this period, administration remained vested in a board of designated commissioners, holding permanent tenure and filling their own vacancies—practically, a standing committee of the General Assembly. At the close of the Revolutionary war, Baltimore Town had clearly outgrown its original administrative shell. A form of government devised for a port of entry and strained to satisfy the needs of a straggling village was manifestly inadequate for an incipient city. A measure of local self-consciousness had developed with the events of the war, and, after a series of unsuccessful attempts, Baltimore City was incorporated by an act of the General Assembly, on the last day of December, 1796. A supplementary statute of the following year made the act of incorporation perpetual.

For one hundred years, this original charter has remained the basis of the corporate government of Baltimore. Its practical significance has long been reduced to a minimum by the mass of amendatory legislation enacted by successive General Assemblies. But it has never been displaced by a second fundamental instrument. The Constitution of Maryland of 1867 incorporated certain important features of the existing city government, but expressly reserved to the General Assembly the right of subsequent legislative control. From time to time, the accumulation of amendatory legislation has become intolerable, and relief has been afforded by the codification and incorporation into the statute law of Maryland of all laws relating to Baltimore. It is the latest of such codifications (article 4, "City of Baltimore," of the Public Local Laws of Maryland, 1888), together with a very considerable number of supplementary statutes since enacted, that constitute the actual "charter" of Baltimore. It has been described by a distinguished jurist of this city as "an incongruous medley of constitutional provisions and statutes enacted at various times and often for merely temporary purposes." To this might be added the equally conservative statement that no city in the United States has labored for so long a period under

a more antiquated, cumbrous, and inadequate instrument of government.

Intelligent agitation for a thorough revision of the charter culminated, last November, in the passage of an ordinance authorizing the newly elected city executive, Mayor Malster, to appoint an unpaid commission of eight persons to draft a new charter for the city of Baltimore, to be submitted to the General Assembly for enactment into law at the current session. Mayor Malster at once appointed a model "New Charter Commission," incidentally arousing by the excellence of his selections widespread anticipation of a reform administration—a sentiment which has excited keen interest in the course of subsequent events. The personnel of the commission was as follows: Hon. William Pinkney Whyte, who has served acceptably as Mayor of Baltimore and as Governor of Maryland; Hon. Ferdinand C. Latrobe, who enjoys the distinction of having been seven times elected to the mayoralty, and who is intimately acquainted with every phase of municipal development; Dr. Daniel C. Gilman, President of the Johns Hopkins University; Mr. Samuel D. Schmucker, and Mr. George R. Gaither, jr., skilled lawyers of the city; City Solicitor Thomas Ireland Elliott; City Councillor Thomas G. Hayes, and City Attorney Lewis Putzel. The commission was bi-partisan in composition, and at once commanded public confidence and respect. It is within bounds to state that embarrassment would be experienced in attempting to select eight other citizens of Baltimore as familiar with the defects of the local political framework, or better fitted to suggest measures of improvement. The commission organized promptly by electing ex-Gov. Whyte chairman, and appointing Mr. Frederick T. Dorton Secretary, and at once set to work. The time available for the completion of the work was little more than three months; but by intelligent division of labor, harmonious coöperation, and extraordinary industry and devotion, a new instrument has been drafted within that period and submitted to the General Assembly within the past week.

The new charter represents a conservative adaptation of accepted principles of municipal reform to local requirements and established usage. In very few respects has there been a complete or radical departure from the administrative forms to which the citizens of Baltimore have long been accustomed. On the other hand, recognized elements of municipal improvement have been intelligently incorporated, and the influence of recent municipal reconstruction in the United States, notably in New York city, has been decided. The most important principles which have consciously governed the commission in the preparation of the charter, are:

(1.) Location of definite responsibility upon the Mayor and all public officials.

(2.) Minority representation and concentration of administrative duties in departmental boards.

(3.) Separation of municipal from State and federal elections.

(4.) Appointment of experts in all departments requiring professional knowledge and skill.

(5.) Municipal control of public franchises.

(6.) Check upon municipal expenditure and indebtedness.

(7.) Removal of the public-school system from all possible political influence.

(8.) Public supervision of the indigent sick and poor while subjects of municipal aid.

The charter retains the traditional corporate framework—a Mayor and a bicameral Council. The term of the Mayor is extended from two to four years, and his salary and necessary property qualifications are increased. The lower chamber, or "First Branch," of the Council remains constituted of one member from each of the twenty-four wards of the city; but the term has been extended from one to two years. The upper chamber, or "Second Branch," heretofore composed of one member elected for two years from every two contiguous wards, has undergone important modification. The city is now to be divided into four "Councilmanic Districts," from each of which two Councilmen are to be elected for four years, one-half of the entire body retiring every second year. The President of the Second Branch is made an independent official, with the same property qualifications as the Mayor and receiving a salary considerably larger than the Councilmen proper, and is elected at large for a term of four years. Ordinances require for passage the votes of a majority of the members of each branch and the approval of the Mayor.

Fundamental characteristics of the new instrument are the concentration of power in the hands of the Mayor, and the unification of related departments of the municipal service. To this end, all administrative branches of the city government are arranged into departments, and subdivided into subdepartments, the heads of which are appointed by the Mayor. Regard for local conservatism prevented the Commission from vesting the power of absolute appointment in the Mayor, but the right of confirmation is transferred from the joint convention of the two branches to the Second Branch of the Council. The Mayor can remove any of his appointees without cause within the first six months of their term of office; thereafter only by preferring charges and after trial. The heads of departments and subdepartments are given absolute power of appointing and removing subordinates. They are also given the privilege of the floor of the First Branch of the Council, with the right to participate in the discussion of matters relating to their respective departments.

The departments of municipal administration, as provided by the charter, are: Finance, Law, Public Safety, Public Improvements, Public Parks and Squares, Education, Charities and Corrections, Review and Assessments. Under these are logically arranged as subdepartments the essential branches of the municipal service. In control of the department is a board, composed of the heads of its subdepartments. Thus, the Department of Public Improvements comprises four subdepartments—the City Engineer, the Water Board, the Harbor Board, and the Inspector of Buildings; while the Board of Public Improvements consists of the City Engineer, the President of the Water Board, the President of the Harbor Board, and the Inspector of Public Buildings. The subdepartments represent, with one or two noteworthy exceptions, existing municipal departments. Complexity has been reduced, and contradictions and duplications eliminated, but the endeavor of the Commission has throughout been to effect maximum improvement with a minimum wrench.

The nearest approach to radical change has been made in the financial department of the city government. The municipal budget has heretofore been prepared and submitted to the City Council by a joint "Ways and Means Committee" of the two branches. The new charter provides for the creation of an entirely new Board of Estimates, composed of the Mayor, the City Solicitor, representing the Department of Law; the Comptroller, representing the Department of Finance; the President of the Second Branch of the City Council, representing the legislative department; and the City Engineer, representing the Department of Public Improvements. The Board of Estimates is required to prepare and submit to the City Council in October of each year a precise estimate of the necessary appropriations for the next ensuing fiscal year, arranged in three distinct lists: (1) departmental estimates, (2) estimates for annual appropriations, (3) estimates for new improvements. The City Council may reduce, but not increase, the several amounts fixed by the Board, and may not insert any new item. In the same manner the Board of Estimates is required to submit to the City Council an estimate of the annual tax levy, which may be increased but not reduced by that body. Any ordinance authorizing a public improvement to exceed in cost the sum of two thousand dollars must be submitted, after its first reading in either branch of the Council, to the Board of Public Improvements, for report as to its desirability, and to the Board of Estimates, for report as to the ability of the municipal treasury to meet the expenditure, and no ordinance can become valid until both of these reports have been received. The danger of floating indebtedness is reduced by the provision that if municipal revenue is insufficient in any year, there must be a *pro-rata* reduction in all departments; any surplus accruing must be credited to the general sinking fund. A supplementary bill appended to the charter limits the bonded indebtedness of Baltimore to 7 per cent. of its taxable basis.

The administration of the public-school system also undergoes wholesome reconstruction. The existing board of twenty-two Commissioners (one from each ward), appointed by the City Council, is replaced by a smaller body of nine Commissioners, appointed at large by the Mayor for a term of six years, one-third of the entire body retiring every two years. This board in turn appoints a Superintendent of Public Instruction, six or more Assistant Superintendents, and a number of unpaid school visitors.

In placing the municipal elections in May, distinct from the autumn State and federal elections; in providing expert service in departments wherein technical and professional skill is necessary; and in exercising municipal control over municipal franchises, the Commission has incorporated accepted principles of municipal reform. The provisions concerning franchises limit the grant of specific rights in or relating to public property to a term of twenty-five years, subject upon revaluation to renewals for a not longer period. In such grants the municipality may reserve the right to assume control of the plant, with or without further compensation, upon the termination of the franchise period.

Viewed in its entirety, the proposed charter is an admirable instrument, eminently creditable to the intelligence and conservatism of its authors. If enacted in its present form, it may not effect immediate reforma-

tion in local administration, but it can hardly fail, as the Commission modestly claim, to "remedy many of the faults of the old law, and to provide such a law as will materially contribute to the future development and prosperity of the great metropolis of Maryland." The measure is now pending before the General Assembly in Annapolis. Intelligent sentiment is outspoken in its advocacy, and at this time of writing scarcely a voice has been lifted in opposition. A codification of existing local laws has been submitted for reënactment in conjunction with the new charter. The whole forms a volume of 350 printed octavo pages, and, with little more than a fortnight of the legislative session remaining, the mere bulk of the proposed legislation will perhaps serve as its most effective safeguard against mutilation. H.

CHARAVAY'S LAFAYETTE.—I.

PARIS, February 23, 1898.

There has been in existence for a few years a Society for the History of the French Revolution, which is very active, having already published eighteen octavo volumes on various topics. It may be said, in a sense, that everything is interesting in history, but some of these volumes have more value than others. M. Aulard, who lectures at the Collège de France on the subject of the French Revolution, which he has made his special subject, is one of the chief contributors. He has published the 'Secret Memoirs of Foumier l'Américain,' which might perhaps, be as well forgotten, as this Foumier was no better than a crazy fanatic; the 'Register of the Deliberations of the Provisory Consulate'; the 'Account of the Sittings of the Deputies of the Communes, from the 5th of May, 1789, to the following 12th of June'; 'The State of France in the Year VIII. and the Year IX.' We find among these volumes some valuable documents, such as the 'Members of the Convention,' the 'Regicides,' 'Science during the Terror,' the 'Constituents,' the 'Members of the Imperial Nobility'—the Empire being evidently considered as a sequel of the Revolution.

A new volume has just appeared which is a complete biography of Gen. Lafayette. It has no less than 653 pages, and contains many illustrations, from engravings of the time. The author is not a writer, in the ordinary sense of the word; he makes no pretension to style, and, if he did, it would be unfounded. It is enough that his facts are exact. Exactitude, indeed, may be said to be his mission and his trade, for he entitles himself archivist-palæographer. M. Étienne Charavay is very well known as a great dealer in autographs and as an expert in graphology. (He was one of the experts in the Dreyfus trial.) His ambition grew among the autographs and the manuscripts by which he is constantly surrounded, and he thought of using, himself, some of the documents which fell into his hands. In a literary sense, his biography of General Lafayette may be said, without too much severity, to be very indifferent; as an historical document it is almost irreproachable, and I believe that very few errors of dates or of facts can be found in this account of a most eventful life, which extended from 1757 to 1834, and was involved in the most important events in two hemispheres.

The chief documents which have been used by M. Charavay are the 'Mémoires de ma main,' written by Lafayette himself, and published in 1837, by his son, with the letters which accompany them, a document of the first order; the administrative and historical archives of the Ministry of War, where is found the correspondence of Lafayette during the first campaign of 1792; M. Doniol's publication, 'History of the Participation of France in the Establishment of the United States of America,' a work in seven volumes which gives all there is to be found on the question in the archives of the Foreign Office and the Navy. M. Charavay has used also the work of Mr. Charlemagne Tower entitled 'The Marquis de Lafayette in the American Revolution,' the national archives, and various fragmentary publications. With all the respect that must be shown to the historical school, which pretends to be scientific and chiefly documentary, we have often to regret that our modern historians are somewhat too dry, too much lost in details, too much wanting in general ideas; they are photographers rather than painters. We know a great deal about Lafayette after we have taken the trouble to peruse M. Charavay's volume, but we feel that something is wanting: the General's psychology has not been analyzed; he is not sufficiently alive; the play of human passions, mental perplexities, conscientious doubts—all that cannot be enumerated, seems to have escaped and vanished.

Gen. Lafayette will always be judged from two different standpoints. In America, as he was moved only by the most generous and noble motives when he volunteered to join the cause of American independence, his American reputation, if I may say so, can suffer no blemish; his name, which occurs even in the geography of the States, will be remembered for all time with veneration. Americans can certainly be said to have among their national characteristics a strong sense of gratitude; even to this day, I know that any person having a family relationship with Lafayette is sure of a warm reception in all parts of the Union. The letters written by Washington to Lafayette at different times, which are given in M. Charavay's volume, testify to the feelings which the revered founder of American independence professed for the young Frenchman who had left all the pleasures of the most brilliant court in the world, to partake of the dangers of a people fighting for its liberties. This portion of Lafayette's career is so well known in America that I will not dilate on it. I would rather consider Lafayette in that portion which was spent in Europe. As a Frenchman, the part which he played, though it was always inspired by the most generous and disinterested motives, is open to criticism; and no wonder, for he lived in those dangerous times when it is often more difficult to discover the path of duty than to follow it. Lafayette was often called the "hero of two worlds"; in one of these the hero had a much more difficult task than in the other.

We find him on the eve of the French Revolution among the members of the Assembly of the Notables which had been convoked by Louis XVI. for the reform of the financial system. A letter published by M. Bardoux in 'La Jeunesse de La Fayette' shows him in these colors: "To-day we visited M. de La Fayette. . . . It seemed as if I were in America rather than in Paris. There were a number of Englishmen and Americans, for he speaks English like French. There was an American Indian in his costume, in place of a messenger. . . . This savage man calls him 'father.' . . . Everything breathes of simplicity. Marmontel and the Abbé Morellet dined there." La Fayette figures in the list of the Notables as "Messire Marie-Paul-Joseph-Roche-Yves-Gilbert du Motier, Marquis de La Fayette, Maréchal des camps et armées du roi, major-général dans l'armée des États-Unis de l'Amérique septentrionale." In the Assembly Lafayette introduced a memorial against the onerous contracts made by the state: "The millions abandoned to cupidity and depredation are the price of the tears and perhaps the blood of the people." The memorial ends with an appeal to "the justice and kindness which we know to be the natural sentiments of his Majesty." Lafayette was born with the feelings of the great English Whig families. He considered himself as the natural advocate of the people; but, far from being a demagogue, he was a born aristocrat, and all his instincts were aristocratic. It was said by the enemies of Lafayette that he bought some estates in Auvergne, in view of being made a duke, and that his opposition was caused at first by the fact that he did not get a dukedom. There are always mean people ready to find mean reasons; if Lafayette had been a duke, he would have been a duke with the sentiments of an English Whig duke; his behavior and his sentiments would not have been in the least affected by a royal favor which he would have considered a very natural one. The truth is, that he was essentially a liberal—so much so that, hearing the governor of the Dauphin, the Duke of Harcourt, speak of the books which ought to be placed in the hands of the young Prince, he said: "I believe that he would do well to begin the study of the history of France with the year 1787."

His popularity was very great. He wished to make extensive reforms in the state, but without convulsions. He took an active part in the provincial assemblies of Auvergne and in the second Assembly of the Notables. When the States-General was summoned, he was offered a nomination by what was called the *Tiers;* but he was a nobleman, and he refused it and was elected as a member of the nobility. (The Duke d'Orléans accepted a nomination by the Tiers, much to the disgust of the court and of the nobility.) His position was delicate in the States-General: he was elected by the nobility, his sentiments were those of the Tiers; he did not conceal them. When the three orders united in a National Assembly, he became freer. He was in the chair when the news arrived of the taking of the Bastille; he observed that "the dignity and the duty of the Assembly obliged it to continue calmly its deliberations." He did not approve of uprisings of the populace, but he would not separate himself from those who incited them, and he could not help feeling the intoxication of popularity. On the 15th of July, 1789, he was proclaimed by the people, "in the delirium of its enthusiasm" (such were his words), Commander-in-chief of the militia of Paris.

"I wished," he says, "to proceed to Versailles, but the chief of the city declared to me that, in order to save Paris, I must not go away for a moment. Forty thousand people are assembled; the fermentation is at its height; I appear, and a word disperses them. I have already saved the lives of ten persons

who were on the point of being hanged in various quarters; but this furious and intoxicated people will not always hear me. At this writing eighty thousand persons surround the Hôtel de Ville and say that they are deceived, that the troops must not leave Paris, that the King ought to come. They will recognize only what I have signed. When I am not there their heads are turned."

It might be said that this formidable popularity turned Lafayette's head also. He was the real king of Paris, while Louis XVI. was the king of Versailles. He organized the National Guard with the help of Colonel Mathieu Dumas, and gave it the tricolor cockade, "which," he said, "will make the tour of the world."

The famous days of the 5th and 6th of October marked at once his triumph and the weakness of his ephemeral power. He was obliged to follow to Versailles the populace which intended to bring the King and the royal family back to Paris. With great difficulty he saved the King and the Queen; he had to appear on the balcony of the château, to speak to the infuriated crowd, and to promise to go back to Paris with the King. He had on this occasion one of those inspirations which speak more loudly to a crowd than words. He took Marie Antoinette on to the balcony, presented her to the people, and kissed her hand. The Queen had, not long before, been obliged to fly, half dressed, from her room; several of the Gardes du Corps had been murdered in defending the door of her apartment. The royal family returned to Paris under the protection of Lafayette. The King seemed to be his prisoner; he had himself become the prisoner of the Revolution. The fatal days of the 5th and 6th of October marked the beginning of the era of disorders which culminated in the horrors of the Terror.

Correspondence.

MINOR CONSEQUENCES OF WAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: No doubt many of the larger results of war for Cuba have been closely considered by the principal business men of our country. The large sums of money to be suddenly raised, the probable waste and expensive fiscal errors such necessities may involve, the far-reaching changes in manufacturing and commercial industries, all to be retraced after the war, with destruction to some and danger to all—all these subjects have no doubt been earnestly pondered by those who have most at risk.

Of course, the military success of such a war can be in no doubt. It would be a contest of national vigor against senility, of wealth against poverty, of unlimited credit against financial exhaustion, of seventy against seventeen millions of population, with three thousand miles of distance to restrict the already scanty resources of the weaker party. We must suppose that Cuba will inevitably and quickly be occupied, when we may expect annexation to be urged by every needy patriot in search of a job. Glory may be left out of the calculation.

The result of annexation on our national institutions, laws, and character may be inferred from the modifications all these have suffered from the recent creation of half-a-dozen fraudulent States without proportionate constituencies. But there are also certain minor consequences likely to be disastrous to localities, which are worth considering, especially by such localities. Take the State of Florida as an illustration. We may say, in general terms, that if that State be divided equally by an imaginary east and west line, it will be found that the inhabitants of the northern half are chiefly occupied either in nursing back to life their thrice destroyed orange cultivation, or in entertaining idle or well-to-do Northern visitors. Neither of those useful callings is likely to build up or sustain a very powerful Commonwealth. But the people of the southern, and at present the most growing, half now find almost their only industry either in illicit trade in contraband of war, or in manufacturing American tobacco into "Havana cigars" by importing and disguising it with a small proportion of the unrivalled Cuban leaf. On this last and principal industry the entire profit is maintained by the enormous American duties on finished cigars. But such duties will disappear with annexation, and all "Havana" cigars will again be made in Havana, as they were prior to the heavy duties caused by our civil war, which have ever since been maintained and occasionally increased.

For the United States at large that may be a small matter, not even comparable with the far greater loss, for instance, of the Cuban sugar duties. But of such prosperous centres of the Florida industry as Key West the result will be ruin. Its numerous factories and population must go, and with them the rapidly growing values of railroads, real estate, and all fixed improvements. The unprofitable drainage expenditure of millions by Mr. Disston and others has demonstrated that the southern half of Florida is chiefly an irreclaimable swamp. Hence to destroy or remove its only profitable industry is to reduce it to the uninhabited condition it had always retained till within a few years past. In that case, can the precarious industry of the northern half maintain the values placed there recently by Northern capitalists? Nay, can they maintain a State organization at all? or must not what is left of it become a corrupt political borough, like certain far Western "States," living on the sole industry of "politics," supported by Federal taxation wrung from other communities?

Will this inevitable result of annexation escape the Florida statesmen, or are they indifferent to it? I. J. W.

Philadelphia, March 14, 1898.

OUR OWN NAVAL STATION IN THE PACIFIC.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In discussing the Hawaiian question some time ago in the *Nation*, I assumed that nobody would tolerate an argument that we ought to have a naval station in the Pacific for purposes of offensive war. Defensive reasons, I had imagined, would alone be urged. I perceive, however, that many of our patriots, of a more aggressive turn, demand a naval arsenal in those waters as the base of a sprightly campaign or two against China, or Japan, or Russia, or, at any rate, against the foreign shipping of the Pacific. Now, taking this argument seriously, where in all reason could we better locate such a station than on islands we already own, the Aleutians?

The Aleutian Archipelago (*Ultima Thule* no longer) is, it may surprise many to learn, almost within the path of all ships plying between our western coast and Asia. This is true whether the voyage is from San Francisco or from Seattle. In the former case the ship has but little farther to go until she reaches her course north and west of Seattle and skirts the Aleutians. Acquiring our geography from the flat maps of the schoolroom, we may, of course, be surprised to learn this, just as it was at first surprising to learn that a ship bound from New York to England must, apparently turning a corner, shave the coast of Newfoundland. It may also be surprising to be told that many of these islands are not further north than Dublin or Liverpool, and some of them further south. Enjoying the Japan current, the Gulf Stream of the Pacific, they possess a climate sufficiently genial for the works and habitation of civilized man. Nor are they deficient in safe refuge for vessels. Dutch Harbor, on one of them, is already a port well known to mariners, a stopping-place for all ships bound for the mouth of the Yukon, and a most important point for our revenue fleets in the south Alaskan waters, the Arctic, and the Bering Seas. Yet it is, at the same time, but a very little north of the course of almost the entire shipping between Asia and North America. If, then, we wish a naval station from which either to menace or protect that shipping, the location is the best attainable.

Against this what can be urged on behalf of Hawaii for similar uses? Is Hawaii in the path of all that valuable and rapidly increasing commerce? By no means. A ship calling at Honolulu, between either San Francisco or Seattle and Yokohama or Hong Kong must lose three or four days in doing so. Not one ship in a dozen—perhaps I might even say in twenty—calls at the Hawaiian Islands on such a voyage, whether coming or going. Both steam and sailing craft pass far to the north and close to the Aleutians. In the Australian shipping alone is Hawaii in the path of vessels. The Australian traffic, however, can make no pretensions to the volume of the Asiatic. As to their relative growth, at least, no one would institute a comparison. Not only this, but as a base of offensive operations against Asiatic countries, the Hawaiian Islands are several thousand miles further distant from those coasts than are the Aleutians, while they are not so near even to any part of our own. Consider also the rapid development of Alaska. Have we not that extensive coast to protect?

But our naval authorities want Hawaii. Of course they want Hawaii. Did any one ever know a place belonging to some one else that they did not want? Name a spot in the seas, name a port on any coast, and your naval authority can furnish you a respectable argument that we ought to have it ourselves. Did they not nearly commit us to the purchase of St. Thomas, from which we rescued ourselves by our national honor forfeited to the Danes? Every other country under the sun, we were told, had a few of the West Indies. If this country wished to hold up its head any longer, it must have some islands too. A country without islands was a poor, pitiful sort of a country. Besides, St. Thomas abounded in negroes and rum. Did we not stand in need of negroes? Did we not stand in need of rum? The naval arguments, in addition to these, were that the harbor of St. Thomas would have been of great ser-

vice to us in the rebellion just past, and that when we should have another rebellion between the same parts of the country ages thence, St. Thomas must prove invaluable. Amiable gentlemen!

FREDERICK BAUSMAN.

SEATTLE, WASH., March 4, 1898.

WHO WILL TEACH THE TEACHERS?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The recent movement to establish better methods of teaching history in secondary schools will certainly bring little improvement as long as the teachers remain in their present ignorance of the facts of history. Under existing conditions there is great danger that improved methods will signify the substitution of mere trifling for solid work. I have noticed that candidates for admission to college who know most about methods, have too often learned little else. The pursuit of crazy notions has proved more attractive than grubbing in Oman. A more alarming symptom of this evil is to be found in the "Report of the first annual meeting of the New England History Teachers' Association." The committee who prepared it show in it their preference for Greek history; and yet, while proposing a highly technical plan of studying the history of ancient Greece in connection with other subjects, they betray an amazing ignorance of its simple facts. I have never before seen such an accumulation of obvious misstatements, distorted views, and long-antiquated hypotheses packed into so brief a space. Below are a few examples of these, with my corrections:

First we shall notice some model questions and answers to be used by teacher and pupils:

"Q. In what relation does the Peloponnesian war stand to preceding Greek history?
"A. It destroys the Confederacy of Delos."

The fact is that the Delian Confederacy ceased to exist twenty-three years at least before this war began.

"Q. In what relation does the Confederacy of Delos stand to preceding Greek history?
"A. It is one of the epochs in the development of the 'Democracy of Athens.'"

This answer is absurd. The Delian Confederacy was a phase of Greek federalism.

The answers to most of the other questions are equally faulty. We pass next to the "Perspectives," or outlines for the use of pupils. On p. 26 the Committee say that "Lycurgus's constitution" resulted in the conquest of Peloponnesus. The truth is that the Lacedæmonians conquered Messenia, but not the rest of Peloponnesus. In the following passage, p. 27, referring to Solon, there is an accumulation of errors:

"Political Reforms.—Timocracy of four classes. Ecclesia admits all free citizens and controls magistrates by ἔνθυνα [for εὔθυνα]. These reforms only nominal, for four blood tribes are 'political bosses' who control votes in Ecclesia."

In fact, the timocracy of four classes was not a reform of Solon; the Assembly did not control magistrates in the manner stated; the comparison of the tribes with political bosses is grotesque; and the term "blood tribes" implies a misconception of the nature of the Greek tribe. Just below, the Committee declare that the Athenian Assembly had legislative power before Cleisthenes, whereas in reality it never exercised such power. On p. 35 they say that Athens fought the battle of Thermopylæ!

These may be taken as fair examples of the many errors contained in the Report. With such ignorance of the simple facts of history, how can these teachers grapple successfully with the "Parallels," the "Correlates," the "World-ideas," and the other mighty notions for which the "Perspectives" provide?

GEORGE WILLIS BOTSFORD.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 10, 1898.

FOREIGN EXPRESSAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your number for March 10, "P." narrates an instance of double charge in foreign expressage. He thinks that, had the books in question been sent by mail in three or four small packages, they would have reached their destination more quickly and at much less cost.

I am not so sure about that. There is a German monopoly which seizes upon all mail matter that can by any means be construed as constituting "packages," forwards them at its leisure—and very leisurely leisure it is!—and charges heavily before it will surrender them. I have had a good deal of experience. It has repeatedly happened that parcels mailed to me from Russia, with postage fully paid (they would not be accepted otherwise), have been seized by that German company, forwarded on the slowest available steamer, and delivered only on payment of dues which far exceeded the postage. I paid $1.15 on such a package in December last, and the package was very much smaller and lighter than the ten books mentioned by "P." could have been. It, also, was literary matter, non-dutiable.

The German Government *does* levy such a tax in that it permits that packet company to seize prepaid mail matter at its own sweet will. It reminds me of the indignation I encountered in Austria when I suggested that the revenue stamp affixed to every number of my daily paper from Vienna (over and above the subscription price) was a tax on civilization. "We are not so barbarous as to tax intellectual work!" cried the Austrian. The retort is obvious.

ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

NEW YORK, March 10, 1898.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter of your correspondent "P." in regard to "Foreign Expressage," in the *Nation* of March 10, moves me to make public my own recent experience with the United States Express Company, which advertises itself as a forwarder of valuables "by connecting expresses throughout the entire United States and foreign countries." On the 4th of January, ult., this company accepted a package for delivery at Ousland, Mandal, Norway, the sender prepaying the seventy-five cents charges called for by the printed tariff of the company. About a week ago I received a letter from Norway saying that the package had just arrived *by post* from Hamburg, with two kronor (fifty cents) postage due thereon. The package could have been sent by mail from here for fifty cents; but to secure certainty and celerity in delivery it was sent by express—only to have it go finally by mail, and to be six weeks in transit.

F. H. PUTNEY.

WAUKESHA, WIS., March 12, 1898.

Notes.

Benjamin R. Tucker, No. 24 Gold Street, will shortly have ready a full report of 'The Trial of Émile Zola,' making a pamphlet of 300 pages.

'The Meaning of Education,' by Prof. Nicholas Murray Butler of Columbia, will be among the spring publications of Macmillan Co., together with 'Greek Tragedy in the Light of Vase-Paintings,' by J. H. Huddilston.

Among the authorities who are writing for the new 'Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology' which Professor Baldwin of Princeton is editing for the Macmillans (in addition to those announced some time ago), we note Profs. Simon Newcomb (physical science), Minot of Harvard (biology), Hadley and Simeon Baldwin of Yale (economics and law), Wheeler of Cornell (language), Giddings of Columbia (social science). The organization, which is now complete, includes a board of "Consulting Editors," comprising three for English, besides the general editor, four for German, and the same number for French, all among the best-known names in their departments, as may be judged from the following who constitute the English committee: H. Sidgwick (Cambridge), A. Seth (Edinburgh), W. James (Harvard). These "Consulting Editors," we are informed, are all giving positive counsel and aid to the work. A special feature is to be the very extensive bibliographies, which are mainly in the hands of Dr. Benjamin Rand of Harvard. The publishers expect to issue the work in two volumes early in 1899.

Dodd, Mead & Co. have nearly in readiness 'Robert Burns and Mrs. Dunlop,' correspondence now first published, with elucidations by William Wallace; 'Charles Dickens,' a critical study, by George Gissing; 'Wisdom and Destiny,' essays by Maurice Maeterlinck; 'The Diplomatic History of America, in its First Chapter (1452-1493-1494),' by Henry Harrisse; and 'Folks from Dixie,' by Paul Laurence Dunbar.

From T. Fisher Unwin's list we select 'Karl Marx and the Close of his System,' from the German of Prof. Böhm-Bawerk; 'Leo Tolstoy; or, The Making of a Prophet in the 19th Century,' by G. H. Perris; 'Paul Krüger and his Times,' by F. Reginald Statham; 'Memorials of an 18th Century Painter (James Northcote),' by Stephen Gwynn; 'British Guiana; or, Work and Wanderings among the Creoles and Coolies, the Africans and Indians, of the Wild Country,' by the Rev. L. Crookall; 'Saunterings in Florence,' a tourists' handbook, by E. Grifi; and 'Over the Alps on a Bicycle,' by Elizabeth Robins Pennell, illustrated by Joseph Pennell.

Mr. Lang's "Gadshill Edition" of Dickens's works (London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Scribners) proceeds with a stout volume of Christmas Books and 'The Old Curiosity Shop' in two volumes, all with the original illustrations, and all in the open typography of the first of this series. Mr. Lang has some very just remarks on Dickens's pathos and the changed view of it which our generation has to own, as well as on his vague sentimental philanthropy, with never a hint of ways and means for rectifying the abuse aimed at in the story. From Scribners, also, we have the third and fourth volumes of 'Frederick the Great' in their truly fine and very inexpensive "Centenary Edition" of Carlyle's Works; and another

volume, 'Pipes o' Pan at Zekesbury,' in the handsome reprint of "The Poems and Prose of James Whitcomb Riley." Finally, the fourth, remodelled Baedeker's 'Egypt,' in a single volume for Upper and Lower. Five additional maps have been added by the latest editor of this incomparable handbook, Prof. Georg Steindorff of Leipzig, fresh from a special journey to the country in 1895. Later than that is the rising into being of the new Museum of Egyptian Antiquities, which on p. 75 is only "projected." The next edition will, in fact, have to undergo a complete renovation in the section now denominated "The Museum of Gizeh."

Bulwer's 'The Caxtons,' with sixteen illustrations, forms the newest in the line of standard English novels attractively brought out by the Putnams in conjunction with Service & Paton, London.

We have been tardy in reporting the issue of volume xi. in Macmillan's edition of Turgeneff, 'The Torrents of Spring,' and volume vii. in that of Björnson, 'Captain Mansana, and Mother's Hands'—both enjoyable possessions. And now we must welcome the long-contemplated Globe Chaucer, edited by Alfred W. Pollard, with three special collaborators, one of whom is an American, Prof. Mark H. Liddell of the University of Texas. Mr. Pollard has taken the "Canterbury Tales" and the "Legend of Good Women" for his province, together with glossary, preface, and introduction. General principles have to some extent governed all the editors in evolving a text, and the result, though popular, is really a scholarly addition to existing texts. Each editor presents a diagrammatic scheme or genealogy of the MSS. compared. A select number of variant readings are given as foot-notes. Each page bears at the top the line numbers of the included poetic fraction, as 167-234, 235-291, etc. In the glossary, we remark the generally single reference to a use of the word, as a concordance was out of the question. In brief, in its apparatus as in its text, this is an edition to be thankful for.

The Rev. N. R. Johnston's autobiographic 'Looking Back from the Sunset Land' (Oakland, Cal.), with its sub-title, "People Worth Knowing," tells of life in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Vermont, and on the Pacific Coast. It would have been more readable if the humane author had lost his note-books, his minute transcripts from which confine the interest of his story almost to those who hold, with him, that "the most important convention or legislative body in any land is the annual Synod of the old Covenanter Church." Mr. Johnston has not lived so much out of the world as this belief would imply, for he has preached anti-slavery doctrine in the Green Mountains, has ministered to the freedmen in the Sea Islands and to the Chinese in California. His retrospect has value in all these aspects, the first involving contact and friendly coöperation with the Garrisonian abolitionists, who figure in his pages. It is also curious to study the adjustment of his *ex-officio* anti-slavery and non-voting denomination to the exigencies of the civil war, and to contrast with our author's inflexible orthodoxy, fixed as the monument on Bunker's Hill, his dislocated life, begun in the sunrise, and apparently destined to end in the sunset, land of our American continent. The volume contains a number of portrait illustrations, Covenanter, abolition, and Chinese.

The Boston Book Co. puts out No. 2, Bulletin of Bibliography Pamphlets, in tiny form: 'Bermuda in Periodical Literature,' by George Watson Cole of No. 36 West Seventeenth Street, New York, who asks for corrections and additions.

Three volumes of 'Annals of the Cape Observatory' have recently appeared. Volume iii. contains 'The Cape Photographic Durchmusterung for the Equinox 1875,' by David Gill and J. C. Kapteyn (Part I., Zones —18 deg. to —37 deg.). Volumes vi. and vii. are devoted to 'A Determination of the Solar Parallax and Mass of the Moon, from Heliometer Observations of the Minor Planets Iris, Victoria, and Sappho, made in the years 1888 and 1889.' This work is the outcome of coöperation with the observatories of Yale College, Leipzig, Göttingen, Bamberg, and Oxford, "to determine some of the fundamental constants of astronomy with a higher accuracy than had hitherto been attained." An appendix to 'Cape Meridian Observations, 1890-'91' contains W. H. Finlay's "Star-correction tables," which have been found so convenient at the Cape Observatory, where they have been in use since 1892, that they are now printed for the use of astronomers.

An appreciative notice of the late Dr. Frederic Dawson Stone, librarian of the Pennsylvania Historical Society, accompanies a portrait of him and a list of his authoritative works in the January number of the Society's *Magazine*. A portrait of the late William Spohn Baker also enriches the number.

The Landmarks Club of Los Angeles, Cal., lays claim to priority as an "incorporated effective movement in all the United States to preserve . . . historic treasures." It is now a little more than two years old, as we read in the local *Land of Sunshine* for March, and "has secured (free) long leases on the two most important missions within its jurisdiction," San Juan Capistrano and San Fernando Rey. At each it has saved the chief buildings against the elements for another century. It has restored them in the only true sense of replacement, with repairs and buttresses for crumbling masonry. This work has been conducted by experts in Spanish-American architecture. The magazine gives a number of views, "before and after," which exhibit the club's well-directed activity.

M. Réne Doumic's "À Propos du *Désastre*," in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for February 15, is like an *envoi* following the story itself, which appeared in recent issues of the same review. The poetic memorial of the ill-fated army of Metz is here conceived of by the critic as an inspiring and opportune example of military discipline and honor for the whole army and the entire nation. Faith in the army and its chiefs (in spite of Bazaine) is the lesson taught by the brothers Margueritte to the people of France. This is not what Zola has taught in 'La Débâcle.' M. Doumic mentions neither the author nor the book by name, but his allusion is as plain as is the bearing of the whole article upon recent events. It does not impress one pleasantly, now that the court has sent to prison the man who defended what is greater even than the glory of an army, viz., simple justice and humanity.

The latest number of the *Zeitschrift für Deutschlands Buchdrucker* contains some interesting statistics of the German press in 1897 as compared with that of Austria and of Switzerland. Besides 3,056 *Fachzeitschriften*, representing some special department of study, there were published in the German Empire during the past year 3,477 political journals in 1,752 different places, making one newspaper to 12,092 inhabitants and to every 152 square kilometres of territory. In Austria, on the other hand, there is only one newspaper to 72,290 inhabitants and to every 1,167 square kilometres of territory, whereas in Switzerland there is one newspaper to 7,581 inhabitants and to every 107 square kilometres of territory. In these figures the effects of laws and police regulations restricting the freedom of the press are clearly perceptible. Switzerland, which enjoys the greatest liberty in this respect, stands first; then comes Germany, where the editor has the fear of leze-majesty ever before his eyes, and lastly Austria, where every effort is made to hamper the development and minimize the influence of journalism by arbitrary and absurd prohibitions, and especially by onerous stamp duties, which increase the cost and restrict the circulation of newspapers. Germany has nine newspapers, which appear more than twice daily, Switzerland one, and Austria none. There are also in Germany 79 papers issued twelve or thirteen times a week, 1,185 six or seven times a week, and 1,745 from two to five times a week. Fully one-half of the German political journals are independent, and do not discuss public questions from a partisan standpoint.

The belated number of the *American Journal of Archæology* for October-December, 1896, appeared only recently. The whole number is devoted to the first instalment of the results of the expedition to Crete which Prof. Halbherr undertook in behalf of the Archæological Institute of America. The number contains two articles entitled: "Inscriptions from Various Cretan Cities," and "Christian Inscriptions"—in all, 103 inscriptions, none of which are of importance. The first two numbers of the new series of the same periodical have also appeared, and we are informed that six other articles relating to Crete by Messrs. Halbherr, Orsi, Mariani, and Taramelli are already in type and will shortly appear in the *Journal*. Prof. Halbherr also announces that four more articles on Cretan matters will be sent to the editors early in 1898, and that additional articles, completing the series, will be prepared during the course of the present year. The greater part of the *Journal* for a year to come will be taken up with the results of Dr. Halbherr's explorations.

On Washington's Birthday the Rev. J. Edwin Odgers, Hibbert Lecturer in Ecclesiastical History, gave at Manchester College, Oxford, the first of three evening lectures on "Some Aspects of the Later Paganism," especially as it appears in the Latin Christian apologists. Christian authors seem to give us a travesty of the serious thought of Paganism, which now had its outlook towards Monotheism and anon merged into Telluric Pantheism. Strange and innovating rites, such as those of Mithras, loomed up in latter-day Paganism. These can now be studied with increasing facilities and encouraging results. Here the lecturer briefly sketched the old-time "agricultural" religion of Rome, dwelling upon the impersonal and abstract nature of its deities. The great gods of Roman state religion had no history, no adventures. In this regard they are sharply contrasted with the gods of Greek Olympus. The lecturer entered into sundry details of various late

worships, illustrating his points by many inscriptions and statues found of late years by Italian excavators. After the Greek gods came in at Rome and apparently triumphed over the old impersonal abstractions, they were promptly discredited by the sceptical and rationalizing play of Greek philosophic thought. Euhemerus and his preposterous explanations of mythology were taken seriously. A process of syncretism began, which was accelerated by the importation of new and vividly conceived divinities from the East, and favored by the gradual failing of interest among the Romans in their old ancestral rites. The upshot of all these tendencies seems to have been in some sort a reversion to the early Roman impersonal conception of divinities, a "deanthropomorphization" of the Græco-Roman divinities, which ran parallel to the course of Stoicism and tended towards a general acceptance of the doctrine that

> "All are but parts of one stupendous whole
> Whose body Nature is, and God the soul."

Early in April a celebration is to be held at Florence, Italy, in honor of two natives of that city, intimately associated with the discovery of the new world, namely, Amerigo Vespucci and Paolo del Pozzo dei Toscanelli. The latter died in 1482, but his map was used by Columbus on his first voyage and served to direct its course. The selection of April for the celebration is quite arbitrary, although it may be due to the fact that the first expedition in which Vespucci took part, under Pinzon, sailed from Cadiz on May 10, 1497, returning to the same port October 15, 1498. The project of transporting the ashes of Amerigo Vespucci from Seville to Florence interested the Florentines in the family history of their illustrious townsman, and led to the discovery of his sole direct descendant in the person of an old lady of fourscore years, whom her father, having no son, christened Ameriga in memory of their illustrious ancestor. She married Viscount Talon, an Italian officer, who was mortally wounded in the battle of Solferino. Viscountess Talon now lives in Florence in needy circumstances, and receives from the Italian Government the sum of 13½ lire (about $2.50) a month in compensation for the death of her husband in the service of his country. The statement in the *Nazione* of February 1, that she has a small pension from the Spanish Government, is incorrect; she has never received anything from this source.

In this connection it is interesting to note the recent discovery of the fresco of a Pietà by Domenico Ghirlandajo in the Church of Ognissanti on Piazza Manin in Florence, with portraits of different members, men and women, of the Vespucci family. The portraits are two-thirds life-size, and Amerigo is represented as a young man about twenty years of age. The painting is described by Vasari, but was covered with whitewash during the restoration of the church in 1616. The removal of this coating has brought the fresco again to light in an admirable state of preservation.

The proposed memorial to the late "Lewis Carroll," namely, an "Alice in Wonderland" cot at the Hospital for Sick Children, Great Ormond Street, London, will demand a thousand pounds. Subscriptions in this country may be sent to the Macmillan Company, No. 66 Fifth Avenue, New York.

A notable presentation of the Roman chorus has just been given at Middlebury College, Vermont. It was the crowning feature of a convention of the teachers of Latin in the fitting schools of Vermont, held March 11 and 12, and was carried through under the direction of Prof. Sanford of the chair of Latin. The chorus itself was the sophomore class in Horace, and it was, according to an eye-witness, a memorable sight when the 34 costumed singers and musicians moved slowly up the central aisles and grouped themselves on the platform. Three odes were sung, and all were received with the heartiest appreciation. The work of the singers alternated with a vivid illustrated presentation, by Prof. Sanford, of the Rome of the days of Augustus. Later in the evening a reception was tendered by the class of 1900 to the members of the convention and the faculty. Among those in attendance were many of the most prominent educators of Vermont.

—Apropos of Prof. Sterrett's communication in the *Nation* of November 11, 1897, "Who Are the People of Asia Minor?" a correspondent in that country writes as follows:

"I think Prof. Sterrett's view of the Turkish peasantry, or rather the non-Turkish peasantry, is correct; but the strange thing about it is that they did participate in the Armenian massacres. In all this region, and I believe the same is true of the region lying between us and Samsoun, the killing was done principally by the Turks of the cities and villages. The Koords gave themselves up to plunder, but did not kill much. This was not true of the region around Diarbekir and from there to Bitlis, Moosh, and Van. In that region the Koords slaughtered right and left. I do not know how to explain the participation of the village Turks in the massacres. I sometimes think nothing but Satanic possession can explain it. They themselves speak of it with regret now. But certain things may be said. First, they believed they were authorized by higher powers to kill the Armenians and take their property. Second, it seems to me that Moslem emissaries had been preaching a jehad against the giaours for some time previous to the outbreak. Third, when the thing once started, the thirst for blood and the frenzy carried everything before it. Fourth, it must be said that some of the most diabolical acts were committed by village Moslems. It is difficult to distinguish between your non-Turkish Moslem peasants and the Turks, so there is room for question which committed these acts. But in all this region the executioners were village and city Moslems rather than Koords."

—The first report of the Historical Manuscripts Commission of the American Historical Association makes an excellent showing. In addition to a statement of the principles on which the Commission have proceeded, and a useful list of printed guides to archives and other repositories of historical manuscripts, the report includes five sets of papers, all of value and interest. Sixty-one letters of Phineas Bond, British Consul at Philadelphia, to the Foreign Office of Great Britain, written during the years 1787-'89, contribute a good deal to the rather scanty knowledge of the economic conditions in America at that time. A long letter of November 10, 1789, to the Duke of Leeds, seems to have furnished Hammond, the British Minister, with the store of grievances on which he drew in his correspondence with Jefferson, in 1792, regarding American infractions of the treaty of 1783. Some intercepted letters from an unknown correspondent in America, written in 1756 to the Duke of Mirepoix, French Ambassador to Great Britain, together with letters from Halifax and others in reference to them, shed some new light on the movements in the colonies during the Seven Years' War, besides showing how much better informed the French were than the English regarding American affairs. Considerably more important are the letters of Stephen Higginson, written between 1783 and 1804. More than ordinarily readable, they are of especial interest as showing the view of things taken by a Federalist who, though not himself actively engaged in politics, was nevertheless, during this critical period, the familiar correspondent and trusted adviser of leaders like John Adams, Nathan Dane, Hamilton, and Knox. Four of the letters (Nos. 48-51) unfold what the editor fairly describes as "a curious transaction—a high Federalist of the 'Essex Junto' selling arms to the Virginia arsenal of 1799, built, as John Randolph years afterwards publicly declared, for the protection of the State against those Federal encroachments against which the Virginia Resolutions of 1798 were directed; or, if this is not effected, showing his correspondent how they can be sent to Toussaint l'Ouverture with great profit, and with the connivance of the Government, while the Secretary of State is assured that his Federalist friend has concluded not to send them thither."

—A series of extracts from the diary of Edward Hooker, while of less positive value than the other papers in the volume, gives an entertaining picture of political life in South Carolina in 1805-'8, as seen by a New England youth fresh from college. It is to be hoped that the Commission may see their way to printing the rest of this diary, including the parts, omitted here, picturing social life in South Carolina at the time. Perhaps the most important documents in the report are those relating to the proposed expedition of George Rogers Clark against Louisiana, in 1793-'4, selected from the Draper collection in the possession of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin. The expedition, as is well known, was set on foot by Genet shortly after his arrival in the United States; but Clark, who had already offered his services to Spain, appears from the documents here presented to have been the author of the plan. How much Jefferson knew of the proposed movement is not entirely clear; but that he knew a good deal about it is certain, and Genet professed, at least, to believe that Jefferson "was privately satisfied with his plans." Adequate financial support from France, however, was not forthcoming, while Genet's indiscretion soon alienated popular sympathy. It should be noted, also, that the correspondence appears to confirm the explanation of Gov. Shelby of Kentucky regarding his own attitude towards the expedition. We must not leave this interesting volume without commending the admirable editorial notes with which it is equipped.

—Lloyd's 'Clerical Directory' (Hamilton, O.: *News and Telegraph* Publishing Co.) is a well-meant attempt to supply the American Church with a statistical book of reference modelled after the style of the English "Crockford." It is intended to give, in regard of each of the clergy, his place of birth, college, and seminary, with his academic degrees and honors, the dates of his ordination to the diaconate and priesthood, and by whom he was ordained; the positions he has held, with their dates, and any printed works he may have published, with records of their publisher and price. To bring

out the first issue of a list so crowded with minute statistics is a work of immense labor, and complete accuracy in the accomplishment of it is a thing hopeless to expect. We will not, therefore, judge the editor of the present venture too severely, although the inaccuracies in his book are many, and although gross blunders, like setting down St. Paul's School as being in Concord, Mass., occur far too often. Nor can the print or the paper or the binding of the volume be praised. Yet, after all these things are allowed for, the book has a distinct value. An imperfect list of this sort is, at least, better than no list at all, and one may hope and fairly expect to find the present issue greatly improved next year and as years go on. One difficulty, on which the editor can hardly have counted beforehand, has been the reluctance with which a certain number of the clergy have furnished the information asked for. Some have evidently feared that a knowledge of their age or of their foreign extraction (English, for the most part, or Canadian), would do them some injury in American eyes. Others, in a somewhat amusing way, resented the editor's circular as an impertinence. One reverend gentleman writes: "Your circular of June 4 was received. I do not understand that you have authority to demand the circumstances of my life and services, and very respectfully decline to furnish you with the information desired." Another is still more peppery: "The American Church has all the information about her clergy that she ought to have. At any rate, she has got all about me that she will ever get."

—The third volume of the translation of Nietzsche's Works (Macmillan) is numbered vol. x., and contains the 'Genealogy of Morals' and 'Poems,' the former being translated by Mr. W. A. Hausemann, the latter by Mr. J. Gray. The editor also, as the chief apostle of Nietzsche *in partibus infidelium*, supplies one of his pretentious introductions, in which it is noteworthy that he gives up as unphilological Nietzsche's derivation of moral terms from the antithetical valuations of actions accepted by a blonde master caste and a dark (malus = μέλας) slave race. But he still clings to the notion of a "master" morality, and seeks to illustrate Nietzsche's fancy by appealing to the English code of manners with its ideal of "gentlemanliness" and its divergence from the principles of Christian morals. The illusiveness of this illustration appears, however, as soon as we reflect that we have no right to expect an exact coincidence between an æsthetic valuation of conduct, such as that expressed in a code of manners, and an ethical valuation as expressed in a code of morals, and that the moral judgment always has to emphasize those aspects of conduct the observance of which is inadequately provided for by the other forces operative in the social life of the community. We ordinarily call morally wrong only such socially injurious conduct as does not obviously involve bad manners or foolishness and imprudence, or inflict immediate unpleasantness upon the agent.

—In spite of the fact, however, that its central idea is but the discovery of a prehistoric mare's-nest, the 'Genealogy of Morals' probably exhibits Nietzsche at his best. It has more coherence, both of thought and of style, than the majority of his other productions, and less of the froth and foam of an unbalanced mind, while it startles us even more frequently than is his wont by those strange flashes of insight which penetrate the surface of the social life and reveal the titanic forces that struggle dumbly at its core. Nor need we hesitate to concede that there is an element of truth in his contention that, in the secular struggle of brain with brawn, the moral and religious beliefs of mankind have often been subtly moulded by the former and daringly affirmed by the fiat of the latter. But the various strands have been too inextricably woven into the fabric of the social life to render it possible to disentangle the contributions of each, and the strength and weakness of the same fibre vary most surprisingly in different parts of the texture. Still, we can dimly discern the truth which is exaggerated in Nietzsche's account of the origin of "bad conscience," viz., that the struggle which transmuted the "ape and tiger" into civilized man involved cruelties as terrible as any which the imagination of Mr. Wells has conjured up in the unhallowed 'Island of Dr. Moreau'; we can perceive the truth, also, which peeps through the denunciations of Nietzsche's essay on the significance of ascetic ideals, viz., that asceticism is simply *training*, the training of a refractory and discordant nature. For these and other reasons the present volume will probably be found the most valuable and interesting of Nietzsche's works, and it would have been an agreeable surprise to find the translation also an improvement on its predecessors. Such, however, is unfortunately not the case. The rendering resembles Carlylese rather than English, and too often requires a reference to the German to become intelligible; at its best it is wooden, at its worst it translates, *e. g.*, "frevelhaft" by "frivolous" (p. 145)! We are subjected to annoyance, also, by mistakes about the use of will and shall (*e. g.*, pp. 191, 194), and the absence of an index, which in so discursive a writer as Nietzsche is indispensable. It is to be hoped that the editor will see his way to providing one for the whole translation in the end, but it would be far better to add an index to the outfit of each volume.

—Prominent representatives of Oriental and Biblical research in Germany, among them Wellhausen, Delitzsch, Kittel, Socin, Hommel, Nöldeke, and others, have united in the publication of an Appeal, the object being the organization of a "Deutsche Orient-Gesellschaft." This society proposes to be national in character, and by the establishment of local unions in the larger cities, and by securing a large number of contributing members throughout the empire, expects not only to awaken a wider and deeper interest in the remnants and remains of ancient civilization in the Tigris-Euphrates valley, in Mesopotamia and Western Asia in general, as well as in Egypt, but, further, to secure the necessary funds to make excavations and bring monumental relics of these civilizations to the museum in Berlin. Hitherto German scholars have been compelled, as a rule, to depend for their working materials in this department on the expeditions which the governments or private liberality in England, France, and America have sent to the East. Lack of funds and of organization and coöperation has made the Germans mere lookers-on in this eager search and research. The Appeal in question draws attention to the wealth of Oriental antiquities deposited in the museums of London, Paris, and New York, silently contrasting this with the lack of such raw and original material in German collections. A preliminary commission has already been sent East by the "Orient-Komité," an organization on a smaller scale that has in recent years been supported by a few wealthy Germans. The Appeal declares that it shall be the purpose of the new society (1) to study Oriental antiquities in general, and Biblical archæology in particular; (2) to secure monuments of Oriental antiquity especially for the Berlin museum, and possibly for collections that may be founded in other parts of the empire; (3) to popularize the results and investigations in Oriental research and arouse a general interest in these investigations. The Prussian Cultus Ministry has warmly approved of this project, and Prince Heinrich von Schönaich-Carolath has accepted the Presidency of the Gesellschaft.

RECENT BRITISH POETRY.

There is said to be, at this moment, in both hemispheres, an epidemic of assassinations; and this is perhaps at its worst when it takes the form of that Oriental punishment which consists in being smothered with honey and then hung up to be stung to death by wasps. Another youth of fine poetic gifts is just now being offered as a sacrifice to that sensationalism which is as marked in the literary criticism of London as is the love of political sensation in the American press. Melancholy shadows of transient fame rise up to testify to the outcome of this sensationalism in the past: Philip James Bailey, Alexander Smith, Sydney Dobell; and more recently Francis Thompson. Each of these found his first crude work embraced with such enthusiasm by his early critics that he took not a step farther, and presently dropped into oblivion. Now comes the *Academy*—originally founded by Dr. Appleton, as one of his biographers tells us, to be "a critical record of real work by real students"—and heaps upon Stephen Phillips's 'Poems' (John Lane) such a crushing eulogium as is more fatal to genius than the *Quarterly's* treatment of Keats, or the "This will never do" which was supposed to have annihilated Wordsworth's "Excursion." How infinitely more wholesome was the early censure which made Tennyson withdraw from his collected writings the foolish lines,

> "O darling room, my heart's delight,"

or which led Browning to elucidate his "Sordello" by head-lines. Fortunately for American literature, this terrible forcing process of London has only once been conspicuously brought to bear on an American poet; and surely the commonplace later career of "Joaquin" Miller gives a sufficient warning against taking these sudden ardors as a substitute for permanent fame. In the case of Stephen Phillips, one sees another in the long line of inspired schoolboys; it is evident that the laurels of Thompson have not suffered him to slumber, and that Le Gallienne's prettinesses have beguiled a naturally strong talent. "Beautiful Death" is a mere hammering out into a thinner surface of George Eliot's "Oh, may I join the choir invisible"; and the otherwise spirited phrase (p. 16),

> "Not for that face that might indeed provoke
> Invasion of old cities,"

is irresistibly suggestive of Marlowe's most famous lines. On the other hand, we find everywhere a tendency to words too big or too little for the occasion; too big, as where Mr. Phillips says (p. 53):

> "Frail was she born; petal by petal fell
> Her life till it was strewn upon the herb;
> Like petals all her facies lay about";

or too little, as in this (p. 79):

> "I in the greyness rose;
> I could not speak for thinking of one dead.
> Then to the chest I went,
> Where lie the things of my beloved spread."

Fine single lines occur, but only in the midst of those that are trivial and halting, as these (p. 34),

> "Out from the arms of that shadow
> Swiftly she burst and eager now";

or sprawling into cumbrous excess of syllables, as in that underscored below (p. 60):

> "Thou maiden with the silent speckless ways
> On plant or creature squandering thy heart;
> Thou in caresses large shalt spend thy life,
> *Conspiring with the summer plans of lovers, scent*
> From evening hedge the walk of boy and girl."

The one poem in the book which not merely has unusual strength, but adds enough of complete unity in expression to be called a work of art, is this which follows; and if Mr. Phillips is ever to attain maturity, it must be by following in this direction (p. 6):

THE PRISONER.

> Backward the prison door is flung,
> Without the young wife stands;
> While to herself she murmurs with bright eyes,
> And over-eager hands.
>
> They brought the young man out to her,
> That was so strong erewhile;
> Slowly he ventured up to her strange arms
> With unrecalling smile.
>
> O like a mother she must lead
> His slow and wandering pace;
> He stammers to her like a little child,
> And wonders in her face.
>
> O like a daughter must she live,
> And no wife to him now;
> Only remain beside those ailing limbs,
> And soothe that aged brow.
>
> "Husband," she said, "I had rather closed
> Those wild eyes on the bier,
> Rather have kissed those lips when they were cold,
> Than seen them smile so drear!"

In passing from Mr. Phillips to Mr. Watts-Dunton's 'The Coming of Love, and Other Poems' (John Lane), we turn to something not merely mature, but in a certain sense Elizabethan in character—Elizabethan in its broad, free handling; in its tendency to dramatic forms which combine, like old-time masques, ingredients that seem in themselves incongruous (as, for instance, gypsies, sea-birds, and Alpine glaciers); Elizabethan in ardent, yet not ungenerous British feeling; and Elizabethan, above all, in the spirit of the sea. As fearlessly as Mr. Kipling, Mr. Watts-Dunton gives himself to the surges, while escaping altogether that pedantry of detail under which even Mr. Kipling's most ardent admirers are beginning to chafe at last, and which seems to belong rather to a landsman just taught the vocabulary of the forward deck than to one cradled on the sea. Whether Mr. Watts-Dunton has not carried the Elizabethan comprehensiveness of *menu* too far when he flings in his two celebrated sonnets, "Natura Benigna" and "Natura Maligna," as mere ingredients in a picturesque gypsy romance, we will not venture to decide; but he certainly grasps the Stormy Petrel as completely for his own as did Shelley the skylark, or Keats the nightingale, or Lowell the bobolink (p. 10):

MOTHER CAREY'S CHICKEN.

> From out thy jail thou seest yon heath and woods,
> But canst thou hear the birds or smell the flowers?
> Ah, no! those rain-drops twinkling on the buds
> Bring only visions of the salt sea-showers.
> "The sea!" the linnets pipe from hedge and heath;
> "The sea!" the honeysuckles whisper and breathe,
> And tumbling waves, where those wild-roses wreathe,
> Murmur from inland bowers.
>
> These winds so soft to others—how they burn!
> The mavis sings with gurgle and ripple and plash,
> To thee yon swallow seems a wheeling tern;
> And when the rain recalls the briny lash,
> Old Ocean's kiss we love. Oh, when thy sight
> Is mocked with Ocean's horses—manes of white,
> The long and shadowy flanks, the shoulders bright—
> Bright as the lightning's flash—
>
> When all these scents of heather and brier and whin,
> All kindly breaths of land-shrub, flower, and vine,
> Recall the sea-scents, till thy feathered skin
> Tingles in answer to a dream of brine—
> When thou, remembering there thy royal birth,
> Dost see between the bars a world of dearth,
> Is there a grief—a grief on all the earth—
> So heavy and dark as thine?
>
> . . . . . .
>
> And now to see thee here, my king, my king,
> Far-glittering memories mirrored in those eyes,
> As if there shone within each iris-ring
> An orbèd world—ocean and hills and skies!
> Those black wings ruffled whose triumphant sweep
> Conquered in sport!—yea, up the glimmering steep
> Of highest billow, down the deepest deep,
> Sported with victories!—
>
> To see thee here!—a coil of wilted weeds
> Beneath those feet that danced on diamond spray,
> Rider of sportive Ocean's reinless steeds—
> Winner in Mother Carey's Sabbath-fray
> When, stung by magic of the Witch's chant,
> They rise, each foamy-crested combatant—
> They rise and fall and leap and foam and gallop and pant
> Till albatross, sea-swallow, and cormorant
> Must flee like doves away!
>
> And thou shalt ride no more where thou hast ridden,
> And feast no more in hyaline halls and caves,
> Master of Mother Carey's secrets hidden,
> Master and monarch of the wind and waves,
> Who never, save in stress of angriest blast,
> Asked ship for shelter—never till at last
> The foam-flakes hurled against the sloping mast
> Slashed thee like whirling glaives?
>
> Right home to fields no seamew ever kenned,
> Where scarce the great sea-wanderer fares with thee,
> I come to take thee—nay, 'tis I, thy friend!
> Ah, tremble not—I come to set thee free;
> I come to tear this cage from off this wall,
> And take thee hence to that fierce festival
> Where billows march and winds are musical,
> Hymning the Victor-Sea!

It is at least a well-intentioned error to smother a young poet with praise; it is surely a more agreeable task to build the monument of one long since dead and reintroduce him to the public, as Miss Guiney, with faithful love, has done for James Clarence Mangan in his 'Selected Poems' (Lamson, Wolffe & Co.). With her usual felicity and vigor of expression, she says of her hero: "He has been, for half a century, wandering on the dark marge of Lethe. It will not do, as yet, to startle him with gross applause. Otherwise his gratified editor would like to repeat, introducing Clarence Mangan, the gallant words with which Schumann once began a review of the young Chopin: 'Hands off, gentlemen; a genius!'" (p. 112). Yet Mangan gave the proof of absolute genius only in one song, "My Dark Rosaleen"—supreme among all Irish lyrics, and one whose characteristic is that, more than any poem ever written, it so intensifies the love of country, under the name of love of woman, that the two supreme passions absolutely meet and coincide, so that the reader is swept away and does not care whether it is the patriot or the lover who sings, for one strain suffices to utter the heart of each (p. 116):

> "Woe and pain, pain and woe,
> Are my lot, night and noon,
> To see your bright face clouded so,
> Like to the mournful moon.
> But yet will I rear your throne
> Again in golden sheen;
> 'Tis you shall reign, shall reign alone,
> My Dark Rosaleen!
> My own Rosaleen!
> 'Tis you shall have the golden throne,
> 'Tis you shall reign, and reign alone,
> My Dark Rosaleen!
>
> "Over dews, over sands,
> Will I fly for your weal:
> Your holy delicate white hands
> Shall girdle me with steel.
> At home in your emerald bowers,
> From morning's dawn till e'en,
> You'll pray for me, my flower of flowers,
> My Dark Rosaleen!
> My fond Rosaleen!
> You'll think of me thro' daylight hours,
> My virgin flower, my flower of flowers,
> My Dark Rosaleen!"

And the most interesting and remarkable part of Miss Guiney's admirable introduction is its full exhibition of the fact that this wild lyric, which, more than all others, might seem to have been struck off at a white heat, was in reality but one out of three versions of the old Irish strain on which it is founded, but which has nothing of what Miss Guiney well calls "the stormy beauty" of Mangan's lay. In like manner, Mangan often, though not always, improved the German ballads which he purported to translate, as, for instance, Freiligrath's "Lady Eleanora von Alleyne," which he amplifies and makes more dramatic than when it left the hands of its author, or Schnetzler's ballad of the Mummelsee, which we judge from internal evidence, though it is not included in this edition, to be also by Mangan. He was, in truth, one of the daring Fitz-Gerald school of translators, and did not hesitate, in transferring a statue from the clay into the marble, to throw in all the added graces that he could.

To those who remember the late Mathilde Blind in her brilliant and affluent youth, when the inherited spirit of German radicalism filled her fine face with ardor, and when she found in Darwin something as stimulating and elevating as a new revelation from heaven, there will be a positive satisfaction in the brief 'Selection' from her poems, edited by Mr. Arthur Symons (London: T. Fisher Unwin). His tribute to her in his preface is simply admirable—brief, lucid, sympathetic, discriminating, and offering, with the admirable portrait, a better memorial than most elaborate biographies. Many of the poems are fine; the love-poems pure and passionate, while those bearing upon the sordid tragedies of humble life are full of keen and saddened observation. Yet the most interesting of all is this glimpse, from within, of the point where the noblest agnostic may find his creed unsatisfying (p. 140):

THE AGNOSTIC.

> Not in the hour of peril, thronged with foes
> Panting to set their heel upon my head,
> Or when alone from many wounds I bled
> Unflinching beneath Fortune's random blows;
> Not when my shuddering hands were doomed to close
> The unshrinking eyelids of the stony dead;
> Not then I missed my God, not then—but said:
> "Let me not burden God with all man's woes."
>
> But when resurgent from the womb of night
> Spring's Oriflamme of flowers waves from the sod:
> When peak on flashing Alpine peak is trod
> By sunbeams on their missionary flight;
> When heaven-kissed Earth laughs, garmented in light;
> That is the hour in which I miss my God.

'Rampolli: Growths from a Long-planted

Root, being translations, new and old, chiefly from the German; along with a Year's Diary of an Old Soul,' by George MacDonald (Longmans), is a curiously named book, which recalls irresistibly to the American mind the 'Monologues of a Homeless Snail' of Yone Naguchi. It is in reality a volume of unusually good translations, including especially the rarely translated 'Hymns to the Night' of Novalis, and ranging as far as the hilarious chants to be found in Luther's 'Song Book' under the name "Of Life at Court." But all the last hundred pages are occupied by a really original and mystical series of religious reveries, under the quaint name above given, the "Diary" stretching through twelve long months, and hinting at personal sorrows unexplained. To enjoy it the reader must also be able to enjoy Novalis; but both of them leave in the mind a curious sense of elevation and of nearness to some higher source of life, like that for which Mathilde Blind yearned. Take for instance these stanzas (p. 289):

"Oh, what it were to be right sure of thee!
Sure that thou art, and the same as thy son, Jesus!
Oh, faith is deeper, wider than the sea,
Yea, than the blue of heaven that ever flees us!
Yet simple as the cry of sore-hurt child,
Or as his shout, with sudden gladness wild,
When home from school he runs, till morn set free.

"If I were sure thou, Father, verily art,
True father of the Nazarene as true,
Sure as I am of my wife's shielding heart,
Sure as of sunrise in the watching blue,
Sure as I am that I do eat and drink
And have a heart to love and laugh and think,
Meseems in flame the joy might from my body start.

"But I must know thee in a deeper way
Than any of these ways, or know thee not;
My heart at peace far loftier proof must lay
Than if the wind thou me the wave didst roll,
Than if I lay before thee a sunny spot,
Or knew thee as the body knows the soul,
Or even as the part doth know its perfect whole.

"There is no word to tell how I must know thee;
No wind clasped ever a low meadow-flower
So close that as to nearness it could show thee;
No rainbow so makes one the sun and shower.
A something with thee, I am a nothing fro' thee.
Because I am not save as I am in thee,
My soul is ever setting out to win thee."

Miss Mitford's old-time phrase, "He translated Horace, as all gentlemen do," might now be almost applied to the new translators of Homer, and especially of the tempting, familiar, gossiping 'Odyssey.' Mr. J. G. Cordery had previously done the 'Iliad' in a manner which made the *Spectator* declare it to be the best blank-verse translation of the greater work; and this praise might easily tempt the author to attempt the smaller task. Unfortunately the problem is here quite different, for the 'Odyssey' lends itself far more easily than the 'Iliad' to prose version; and the competition with such renderings is proportionately more difficult. After Palmer, or even after Butcher and Lang, blank verse seems a little monotonous and gratuitous; one is tempted to try Dr. Johnson's famous experiment, as performed on Sheils, the compiler of 'Cibber's Lives of the Poets,' when Johnson read aloud a page of Thomson's 'Seasons,' to Sheils's great delight, and then announced that he had omitted every other line. Yet Mr. Cordery has made his work, on the whole, readable—more so, for instance, than that of Lord Carnarvon—and he has a just right to claim, in his preface (p. xvii), that he has "eschewed the use of all mock-archaic diction in which so many translators indulge"; this being apparently a hit at Mr. Andrew Lang, who has certainly erred sufficiently in that direction. Yet it is to be noticed that Mr. Cordery himself uses such a phrase as "fair-snooded wives" (p. 65), which is at best mock-modern, and hardly accurate even as such, inasmuch as the Scotch snood is the attribute of maidenhood, not wifehood. It is rhythmically doubtful, too, whether Homer's alternative of Odysseus and Odyseus, with the accompanying change of quantity, is as permissible in English as in Greek, although Mr. Cordery employs it. For the rest, the translation is vigorous, sympathetic, and, for blank verse, reasonably close. Test it, for instance, in that fine and touching passage where Homer does not hesitate to make his great hero weep at the tale of bygone deeds (viii., 521):

So sang the glorious Minstrel of these things:
With grief Odysseus inly was consumed.
Tears dropped from either eyelid down his cheeks,
Ev'n as in tears a woman falling clasps
Her husband, who before his people's eyes
Hath perished for his children and his home;
And she hath seen him in his agony,
And wildly across his body showering herself
Lies shrieking, till her enemies lead her off,
Pricking her with their lances from behind,
To slavery, and to bear distress and toil,
While her fair cheeks thenceforward fall away
In grief most piteous; such the piteous tears
Odysseus shed.

In this passage the peculiar phrase "showering herself" seems a forced and yet rather felicitous equivalent for χυμένη, a word which certainly has a meaning less adequately expressed by Palmer's "flings herself" or Butcher and Lang's tame "embracing." On the other hand, to introduce the phrase "fair" before "cheeks" (παρειαί) is a distinctly modern and conventional touch which takes half the strength out of Homer's "with pain most pitiful her cheeks are thin." This is Palmer's version, and Butcher merely puts "grief" instead of "pain," while Lord Carnarvon solves the problem by altogether omitting the clause. There is in Mr. Cordery's book a good deal of this kind of inequality of execution, to which a translation of Homer into verse is always liable, but it is good honest work, nevertheless, and on the whole increases one's respect for the author.

The two aspects of the legal profession—the sublime and the trivial—were never perhaps better marked than in Addison M'Leod's 'A Window in Lincoln's Inn' (Kegan Paul), were it only in these two extracts from the close of "Outside the Window" (p. 28):

O men of laws,
Ye are not built until the end of time;
But temporary sheds and shanties, raised
Till law grows greater, needs a finer house,
When she shall pull you down and cast you by.
Yet, if we mould ourselves to finer clay,
We with our lives may build a house on earth,
Or help to build it. Stately towers rise,
Long graceful colonnades, translucent domes,
And when the work is done the world shall end.
And no more do we know the plan of it,
Or wherewithal we make it glorious,
Than coral insects working in the sea
Know what a wondrous land shall rise to life,
What woods, what shores, what flowers cover it.
And with our hearts a house is built in heaven.
If they are worthy, where the Source of all
Shall have his dwelling; using them perchance
As veined marble for the lower walls,
While the white angels make the coping stone.
. . . . . .
So moralizing in a lofty strain,
A sound of thunder coming from the door
Arouses me; the edges bending in,
As if a hurricane was clamoring
For my opinion on a point abstruse
Touching the mysteries of light and air.
"Who is it?" Hastily the Muse is sent
Under the table, and the law resumes.
Then enter Clerk: "For the last half hour, sir,
I have been hammering to make you hear."
"What is it, Edwards?" "Mr. Bullard's clerk
About the Wapping Mortgage." "Show him in."

(Scene closes on the poet discussing with the clerk whether the title is affected by a sub-demise to Skinflint in fee tail, with every appearance of interest.)

It is difficult to say anything about Mr. Le Gallienne's 'Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám' (John Lane)—a paraphrase from several previous versions, except that its title is in no way justified and its execution of little value. If a man ignorant of Greek were to reconstruct a versified 'Odyssey' from Palmer's or Butcher's translation, no value would be given to it by putting 'The Odyssey' on the title-page; and even a sonnet like that of Keats on Chapman's Homer would scarcely justify the title. It is a comfort to think that, as Mr. Le Gallienne frankly cuts free from FitzGerald, he makes no attempt to spoil the very finest passages of the latter's version, and the resulting effect of mediocrity must be divided between the other translators and their present poetic scribe. Not that Mr. Le Gallienne is always mediocre, for he has occasional streaks of something like genius; yet these are never continuous enough to constitute what miners call "pay gravel," and he has constantly affected that very form of London and Paris cynicism which he protests against in his best poem. He must needs bring it even into Omar Khayyám, as in the following stanza (p. 63):

O heart, my heart, the world is weary-wise,
My only resting-place is your deep eyes.
O wrap me warm in your illusive love,
For well I know that they are also lies.

This surely does not belong to the Vale of Cashmere, where lovers do not languidly exult in the faithlessness of their mistresses; it has a flavor of the Champs-Élysées and of Piccadilly.

A better book by another young English poet, whose greatest weakness lies in having been Mr. Le Gallienne's editor and endorser, is Mr. William Watson's 'The Hope of the World,' in which, though the title-poem is inadequate—as title-poems are wont to be—contains the following fine lines written on Salisbury Plain, and addressed to a lady whose kinsman, Mr. Aubrey de Vere, has revived the old Irish legends with such beauty. For those who recall the "billowing leagues" of that rolling prairie of English soil, and who will always associate with it the sheep-bells and the pewits—Mr. Watson does not mention the sky-larks, perhaps because they do not represent so much to him as to an American—these sixteen lines must have an unerring charm (p. 39):

TO MRS. HERBERT STUDD.

Amid the billowing leagues of Sarum Plain
I read the heroic songs which he, the bard
Of your own house and lineage, lovingly
Hath fashioned out of Ireland's deeds and dreams,
And her far glories, and her ancient tears.

The sheep-bells tinkled in the fold. Hard by,
A whimpering pewit's desultory wing
Made loneliness more manifestly alone.
Friend, would you judge your poets, try them thus:
Read them where rolls the moorland, or the main!

Not light is then their ordeal, so to stand
Neighboured by these large natural Presences;
Nor transitory their honour, who, like him,
No inch of spiritual stature lose,
Measured against the eternal amplitudes,
And tested by the clear and healthful sky.

This sonnet to Mr. Aldrich also deserves especial recognition (p. 56):

TO THOMAS BAILEY ALDRICH.

In answer to his sonnet "On Reading 'The Purple East.'"

Idle the churlish leagues 'twixt you and me,
Singer most rich in charm, most rich in grace!
What though I cannot see you face to face?
Allow my boast, that one in blood are we!
One by that secret consanguinity
Which binds the children of melodious race,
And knows not the fortuities of place,
And cold interposition of the sea.
You are my noble kinsman in the lyre:
Forgive the kinsman's freedom that I use,
Adventuring these imperfect thanks, who late,

Singing a nation's woe, in wonder and ire—
Against me half the wise and all the great—
Sang not alone, for with me was your muse.

If the words "weird" and "grewsome" did not exist in abundance just now on the lips of young ladies, it would be necessary to coin them, or something like them, to describe the favorite themes of Mrs. Shorter (*née* Dora Sigerson) in her 'The Fairy Changeling, and Other Poems' (John Lane). So many of these poems end in skeletons and shrouds and phantoms and churchyard mould that one would reproach the writer, were she anything but Celtic, with a most gloomy imagination; whereas she is very probably one whose delights are equal to her depths, and who is not in the least depressed by her own tragedies. As the daughter of an accomplished father, Dr. George Sigerson, she has doubtless been immersed from childhood in that fascinating world of revived tradition which has, in the hands of Mr. Yeats and Fiona MacLeod, produced results so remarkable; and though nothing that she has yet done has quite so fine and airy a touch as Mr. Yeats's world of fantasy, nor anything so altogether amazing in power as Fiona MacLeod's "The Prayer of Women" and "The Rune of Age"—nor has she even produced any single poem so haunting as Miss Alice Gillington's "The Doom-Bar" and "The Seven Whistlers"—yet there is in this volume a glimpse of latent strength and imagination which may yet place her by the side of the best of these. One of the most thoughtful of her poems is "Unknown Ideal" (p. 75), which appeared originally in the *Chap-Book*. Another is the following (p. 57):

THE KINE OF MY FATHER.

The kine of my father, they are straying from my keeping;
The young goat's at mischief, but little can I do:
For all through the night did I hear the Banshee keening;
O youth of my loving, and is it well with you?

All through the night sat my mother with my sorrow;
"Whist, it is the wind, O one childeen of my heart!"
My hair with the wind, and my two hands clasped in anguish;
Black head of my darling! too long are we apart.

Were your grave at my feet, I would think it half a blessing;
I could herd then the cattle, and drive the goats away;
Many a Paternoster I would say for your safe keeping;
I could sleep above your heart, until the dawn of day.

I see you on the prairie, hot with thirst and faint with hunger;
The head that I love lying low upon the sand.
The vultures shriek impatient, and coyote dogs are howling,
Till the blood is pulsing cold within your clenching hand.

I see you on the waters, so white, so still, forlorn,
Your dear eyes unclosing beneath a foreign rain:
A plaything of the winds, you turn and drift unceasing,
No grave for your resting; O mine the bitter pain!

All through the night did I hear the Banshee keening;
Somewhere you are dying, and nothing can I do;
My hair with the wind, and my two hands clasped in anguish;
Bitter is your trouble—and I am far from you.

The Workers: An Experiment in Reality. By Walter A. Wyckoff. The East. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897.

Mr. Wyckoff's book is sure to find readers, for it has the one indispensable literary quality of interest. What carries the reader along is not the sociology (the author is a lecturer on sociology at Princeton, and his experiment had a sociological motive), but the story. One of the things charged to the author for a fault by some critics—that he is constantly telling us of his physical sufferings in his self-imposed task—is, perhaps, a literary merit. It sounds true, and helps to make the rest credible. When the author imputes sufferings of the same sort to laborers inured to toil, he may be blamed for falling into a common sociological "pathetic fallacy," but he does not often seem to do this. That his own hands and feet were blistered, his eyes blinded, his throat parched, and his muscles tortured, were facts important to him and relevant to the story.

To sum up the narrative in a few words, it appears that the author, avowedly a man without much experience of life, was paying a visit at a country house on the Sound, when he fell in with a chance acquaintance—a man of the world—whose talk suddenly suggested to him the idea of making an experiment in life by sallying forth disguised as a laborer, and sharing, for a time, the laborer's lot, becoming himself a part of the labor "problem," and thus studying the social questions affecting the laboring man at first hand. No sooner said than done. He is on the road as a laborer without funds, looking for a job, and for several months he finds employment—as one of a "gang" under a boss, as a hotel porter, as a hired man at an asylum, as a farm hand, and as a lumberman or woodchopper in a logging-camp. How far he was actually disguised seems doubtful, for, according to his own account, he struck those with whom he worked as a nondescript, being taken, in one instance, not unnaturally, to be a "sky-pilot" (p. 219). But whatever they thought of him, he lived their life patiently, and his report of what he saw and heard is curious and interesting. We select a few of the points that have struck us, though the author does not dwell on them; his main object wisely being to report facts only, leaving others to draw conclusions.

The first fact to which the report points is the extraordinary ease with which employment is obtained in the United States—and that, too, in the Eastern States—by any one willing to work with his hands. Mr. Wyckoff starts out without either money, references, or good physical qualifications (for he is totally unused to manual labor), and yet finds work at every turn, and "no questions asked." His experience, so far as it goes, gives the lie to the common talk of the vast army of people who are out of work and cannot get it. The book confirms the view that, as a rule, any man in the United States who is willing to work with his hands can get food and lodging; *i. e.*, that the demand in the unskilled labor market is generally greater than the supply. Mr. Wyckoff's experiment was made in 1891. Had it been made in 1894, the test would, of course, have been more severe.

Another point very noticeable is that the picture here given of the laboring world does not warrant any new sociological conclusions whatever. Mr. Wyckoff represents the average laborer (what he calls the proletaire) as a good-natured nomad, very profane and loose in his morals, ignorant and coarse in his conversation, and dirty in his habits, brutal if placed in authority, and seeking relaxation from toil chiefly in the gratification of his appetites. About thrift our author has nothing to say, probably from not having seen much sign of it, and, from beginning to end, there is nothing in the account given of the laborer to please those who imagine his vices and troubles to be the result of oppression and wrong. The author's idea evidently is that what he describes and deplores is to be attributed to a lack of organization—this is almost the only inference that he allows himself. He shows (p. 69) how, if the proletariat were managed by an intelligent and superior "organization," everything would be much better than it is. But he does not seem to see that this organization must be produced by the very men of whom he gives such a deplorable account. It is individuals who produce organization in ordinary life, and if sociology can reverse the process, it is not too much to ask for a clear explanation of how it is to be done.

But the book has another feature which makes it really useful. We doubt if any American of the employer class can read it without a feeling that the picture tells a story of the whole civilization in which he lives. It is a thoroughly American book, and could have been written in no other country. As we lay it down we cannot help reflecting that there is in the description an exposure. At first we hardly perceive what it is that is laid bare, but on reflection find that we have really been reading about ourselves. These wood-men, and hotel-porters, and farm-hands, and day-laborers are ourselves, stripped of our civilization and inherited tastes and thoughts and sentiments, and doomed, in all our nakedness, without means and with little hope, to struggle through life as we may. And, so born again, what is there in us to make it likely that we should be very different from the proletariat here described? How large a proportion of our own class are free from the vices which play havoc a little lower down in the scale? Face to face with the human animal, turned adrift, hungry, and with unsatisfied wants, and surrounded, too, with preachers assuring us that we are entitled to a liberal share of all the world affords, what should we make of the labor "problem"? Man is the sport of his circumstances; character alone elevates him above them. This is as true of the plutocrat in his electric cab as of the motorman who drives him.

The book ends with a sermon and a prayer; the author, "sky-pilot" that he is at heart, perceiving after all that it is rather an attitude of mind that he wishes to encourage than an economic propaganda that he has to spread.

A Students' History of the United States. By Edward Channing. Macmillan. 1898.

A History of the United States for Schools. By Wilbur F. Gordy. Scribners. 1898.

Prof. Channing is at least to be praised for his courage. The large number of text-books in American history, some of them by well-known writers, lately put upon the market, all of about the same size and style, and all pretending to do about the same thing, has not deterred him from adding another to the list. Externally, his 'Students' History' makes a good impression. It is an attractive volume of six hundred pages, well supplied with maps and pertinent illustrations, and equipped with an excellent bibliographical "apparatus." Intended primarily for advanced classes in high and normal schools, or for such students as have

already used a more elementary work, it has little to do with the anecdotal and picturesque side of history, or with the minor details of military movements. In the apportionment of space, colonial events are subordinated to national; three-fourths of the book being given to the period after 1760, and considerably more than half to the period subsequent to 1783. From the standpoint of formal construction, hardly any work in its field shows a clearer perception of the broad proportions of things. As regards details, also, there is much to commend. Prof. Channing is particularly at home in American colonial history, and he has here given a clear and well-ordered account of the establishment and development of the colonies, their relations with the mother country, and the causes of the Revolution. The mass of facts is not great, but the selection is generally judicious, the treatment adequate, and the emphasis fair.

If the same praise to which the earlier chapters are fairly entitled could be accorded to the second half of the volume, we should feel bound to credit Prof. Channing with having produced a text-book of a high order. Unfortunately, however, we cannot think his treatment of the constitutional period altogether commendable. We hesitate to express an opinion which may, perhaps, do him an injustice; but it is impossible to feel here that he has at all points a thorough mastery of his subject, or an extensive first-hand acquaintance with it. For the space occupied, the information imparted is scanty: the facts are hardly more than the usual ones of elementary handbooks, while the point of view is, as a rule, conventional. Events in their isolation are treated clearly and, in general, accurately enough; but with events in their connection the author does not seem to be greatly concerned. On such important topics, for example, as the origin and development of political doctrines, the growth of parties, the influence of public men, the interaction of economic and political forces, or the embodiment of moral ideas in political action, the 'Students' History' makes but a slight contribution: every one of these matters is alluded to, but no one of them is, to our thinking, adequately set forth. It cannot be denied that a satisfactory treatment of these and similar subjects, in a limited space, is difficult; not to do it, however, is to incur the danger of making the exposition somewhat clearer than the period. The result of these shortcomings is that the latter half of the book lacks interest. That all the things of which Prof. Channing writes did really happen, and in much the way in which he describes them, the student will have no difficulty in believing; but why they happened, or how they could have had any particular interest for the persons concerned in them, is not always made clear.

A short introductory chapter of "Suggestions to Teachers," prepared by Miss Anna B. Thompson, of the Thayer Academy, Braintree, Mass., merits more attention than can be given it here. The whole array of "method" now thought necessary, by some teachers, for instruction in history in elementary schools—outline maps, note-books, digests, special reports, conferences, "fluents," "perspectives," "chains," etc.—is here set forth by an acknowledged expert, and illustrated by questions and topics appended to the various chapters. We have no doubt that any student who survived a thorough course of treatment along the lines here marked out would have a deep sense of the importance of history in the school curriculum, but whether he would have found time to study anything else seems doubtful. We agree with Prof. Channing, however, that while few teachers will be able to adopt all of Miss Thompson's suggestions, every teacher can derive assistance from them.

Several statements in the text need correction. Jefferson's ordinance for the government of the Northwest Territory was passed in 1784, not in 1785 (p. 247). The Whiskey insurrection occurred in 1794, not in 1796 (p. 294). Jackson's proclamation of 1832, to South Carolina, was issued December 10, instead of December 11 (p. 421). The "specie circular" of 1836 was not "to the effect" that nothing "save gold and silver *and notes of specie-paying banks*" was to be received in payment for lands (p. 434); no provision was made for the acceptance of notes of any kind. Lord Ashburton was not "British Minister at Washington" in 1842 (p. 438), but a special envoy. January 19, 1848, the date on which the first discovery of gold in California is said to have been made, was not "ten," but fourteen, days (p. 453) before the signing of the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (February 2). Douglas had been trying for ten years previous to, not *since*, 1854 (p. 465) to secure a Territorial organization for the Nebraska region. A slip on page 483, by which "acres" is substituted for square miles, makes the figures for the area of the country meaningless. John *W.* Crittenden (p. 498) should, of course, be John J. Crittenden. It was the New England Emigrant Aid Society, not the *Emigration* Society (p. 470), that helped the cause of freedom in Kansas. One error of peculiar importance should not be passed over. In speaking (p. 305) of Adams's message on the "X. Y. Z." affair, Prof. Channing says:

> "News travelled slowly in those days, and it was April, 1798, before Adams communicated to Congress the failure of this ill-starred commission. After narrating the facts of rejection, he concluded with the assertion that he would 'never send another minister to France without assurances that he would be received, respected, and honored as the representative of a great, free, powerful, and independent nation.'"

The reader would naturally suppose that the words quoted from Adams form a part of the message of April 3, of which the writer is speaking; as a matter of fact, however, they are not found in that message at all, but in a message of June 21. It is a curious coincidence that Prof. Channing's colleague, Prof. Hart, in his 'Formation of the Union,' should have fallen into the same ditch.

Mr. Gordy's book, written, apparently, for younger students than those whom Prof. Channing has had in mind, may be commended as a successful attempt to tell again the leading facts of American history. The claims of the preface would, perhaps, lead one to expect a volume of some distinction; but the work seems to be carried out along substantially the usual lines, though, so far as we have tested it, with care and accuracy of statement. The profuse illustrations are rather cheaply executed; many are "fancy" pictures of no historical worth. The scattered suggestions to pupils show the practical teacher, and the references prefixed to the various chapters are well chosen. On the whole, Mr. Gordy has produced a safe and usable book.

Life and Letters of Thomas Kilby Smith, Brevet Major-General U. S. Volunteers: 1820—1887. By his son, Walter George Smith. With portraits. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo, pp. 487.

The home letters of soldiers in the civil war will always be prized as original sources of history, and a new series is cordially welcomed. They are to be used by students with discretion, of course, for no historical material is more variable in value. They will give endless interesting work to the expert, not merely in collecting and sifting the evidence of the truth in regard to important historical events, but in studying the character and qualities of the men themselves who were in the struggle, and who were drawing their own portraits unconsciously in the freedom of intercourse with those nearest and dearest to them.

It is no disparagement to the clever work done by the author of the Memoir which makes a third of the volume, to say that the collection of letters must be considered by far the more important part of the book in both the aspects indicated above. During the campaign of Shiloh, the attack on Chickasaw Bluff, the capture of Arkansas Post, the siege of Vicksburg, and the Red River campaign, we have a full current account of the experiences of the writer, his comments on what he saw, his opinions of the men about him and over him, and his transcript of the emotions which stirred him, It would be hard to imagine a more unreserved disclosure.

Kilby Smith assisted in organizing troops in Ohio, in the summer of 1861, and at the end of October was made Colonel of the Fifty-fourth Ohio Infantry. He had been Deputy-Clerk of Court in Cincinnati, and an active young politician in the Douglas wing of the Democratic party. His regiment took the field in February, 1862, becoming part of the division which, with Gen. Sherman, joined Grant after the fall of Fort Donelson. He showed military aptitude in drilling his regiment and courage in leading it. He succeeded to the brigade command when his superior was wounded at Shiloh, was promoted Brigadier-General after Vicksburg, and commanded a division in Banks's Red River expedition. The greater number of his published letters were written to his mother, a woman of active mind and energetic character, proud of her son and ardently ambitious for him. Her praise stimulated him in his military work and in his epistolary composition. If the letters grow too rhetorical, we remember to whom they are addressed, and cannot find it in our heart to blame the young officer for an effusiveness so affectionately invited.

Conscious of good performance of duty and of the approval of Sherman and Grant, promotion was frankly sought, and all the influences likely to be useful were industriously used. Mother and wife took their part in an active correspondence, which rallied powerful friends to the work of securing the desired object. It was gained, perhaps, not much sooner than it would have been without so energetic efforts, and the distinction was gracefully and honorably worn when it arrived. It was part of Gen. Smith's temperament to enjoy keenly the recognition of others, and to rate at their full value the evidences that his comrades and fellow-citizens understood his career. A genial bonhomie made him a welcome guest and companion, so that, despite se-

rious inroads on his health made by disease incident to the camp, life did not appear to him, either in the present or in retrospect, in sombre colors. The letters of such a brave gentleman and good soldier, holding the mirror up to his daily life with its adventures, to his own heart with its hopes and fears, its aspirations and its disappointments, must needs be a typical study, which students of the period would not willingly lose.

A Group of French Critics. By Mary Fisher. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1897.

This group of critics is composed of the upright and delicate and narrow Scherer; Bersot, the philosophic moralist; the brilliant lecturer Saint-Marc Girardin; the fastidious, man-of-the-world recluse, the letter-writer Doudan; and the irritable and bitter journalist Gustave Planche. They all belong to another generation than the present, and are none of them of quite sufficient importance to demand much personal study. They are no longer living voices in any sense. A higher estimate than this is held of them by Miss Fisher, herself a very kindly critic, who has emptied on these pages the contents of her extract-book, mingled with selections from her own *pensées*, which are sometimes as well worth thinking as this:

"There is a vast difference between living in your opinions and having your opinions live in you. In the first case you use your opinions as you do your house and furnishings, for mere shelter and convenience. They are no more a part of you than your house and furnishings; and yet, like these, they may give you a certain prestige, a certain social status. . . . They are not *in* you but *on* you. In the next case your opinions are a living part of your character. They give shape and consistency to it. . . . If they change, it is by the slow vital process of waste and assimilation."

It is a pleasure to an American to read these lines, taken from one of Doudan's letters; he is writing of Abraham Lincoln:

"The democrats will do well to guard his memory preciously, for he is the finest portrait of their race. He is exactly the ideal democrat—simple, rugged, mild, patient, courageous when the primitive sentiments of human nature lay hold of him by the throat. Pericles did not speak so well of the young Athenians who died in the Peloponnesian war as he did over the American dead brought home to the great desolate cemetery near the city of Washington."

There would be a certain absurdity in criticising a volume like this. To criticise a criticism of critics would be to create one of those simulacra of literature that the reader of to-day accepts as solid substance.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arthur, Prof. J. C., and MacDougal, Prof. D. T. Living Plants and their Properties. Baker & Taylor. $1.25.
Baumbach, Rudolf. Nicotiana, und andere Erzählungen. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30c.
Bayne, William. James Thomson. [Famous Scots.] Scribners. 75c.
Chambers's Biographical Dictionary: The Great of All Times and Nations. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Chambré, Rev. A. St. J. Sermons on the Apostles' Creed. Whittaker. 75c.
Davis, Edith S. Whether White or Black Man. F. H. Revell Co. 75c.
Doyle, A. C. A Desert Drama. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Frazer, R. W. A Literary History of India. Scribners. $4.
Garnett, Richard. The Poetry of Samuel Taylor Coleridge. [The Muses' Library.] London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Scribners. $1.75.
Gill, Leonard. The Madness of Love. F. T. Neely.
Grosart, A. B. Robert Ferguson. [Famous Scots.] Scribners. 75c.
Harris, W. T. Psychologic Foundations of Education. Appletons.
Hempstead, J. L. Musings of Morn. F. T. Neely.
Henley, W. E. Poems. Scribners. $1.75.
Herbart, J. F. The Application of Psychology to the Science of Education. Scribners. $1.50.
Hopkins, N. M. Model Engines and Small Boats. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Jordan, Elizabeth G. Tales of the City Room. Scribners. $1.
Kelly, Edmond. Evolution and Effort. 2d ed. Appletons. $1.25.
Lloyd, A. H. Dynamic Idealism. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Lowell, J. R. Democracy, and Other Papers. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.
Mansilla, Lucio V. Rozas: Ensayo Histórico-Psicológico. Paris: Garnier.
Marsh, Rev. W. H. H. The New Testament Church. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society.
Matthew, J. E. A Handbook of Musical History and Bibliography. London: H. Grevel & Co.; New York: Putnams. $3.50.
Memoirs of a Highland Lady. Edited by Lady Strachey. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Meurice, Paul. The Letters of Victor Hugo. From Exile, and After the Fall of the Empire. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Morris, William. The Sundering Flood. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.25.
Mumford, G. S. An Island God: A Tale of the First Kamehameha. New York.
Nissen, Hartvig. Rational Home Gymnastics. Boston: R. G. Badger & Co. $1.
Overton, Dr. Frank. Applied Physiology. Advanced Grade. American Book Co. 80c.
Palmer, Bertha. Stories from the Classic Literature of Many Nations. Macmillan. $1.25.
Pausanias's Description of Greece. Translated with a Commentary by J. G. Frazer. 6 vols. Macmillan. $25.
Porter, Rev. A. T. Led on Step by Step: Scenes from Clerical, Military, Educational, and Plantation Life in the South, 1828-1898. Putnams. $1.50.
Rankin, R. O. The Girl from Paris. F. T. Neely. 50c.
Renan's Life of Jesus. New York: Peter Eckler. 75c.
Rendall, Prof. G. H. Marcus Aurelius Antoninus to Himself. Macmillan. $1.75.
Rowland, Kate M. Life of Charles Carroll of Carrollton. With his Correspondence and Public Papers. 2 vols. Putnams. $6.
Sabatier, Prof. A. The Vitality of Christian Dogmas. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. 80c.
Saint-Amand, Imbert de. Napoleon III. and his Court. Scribners. $1.50.
Scott, Sir Walter. Rob Roy. Old Mortality. Guy Mannering. The Antiquary. [Temple Edition.] London: Dent; New York: Scribners. Each two volumes at $1.60.
Sienkiewicz, Henryk. So Runs the World. F. T. Neely. $1.
Smith, Capt. Allen. Sarita. F. T. Neely. 25c.
Soans, R. G. John Gilbert, Yeoman: A Romance of the Commonwealth. F. Warne & Co. $1.50.
Stedman, E. C., and T. L. The Complete Pocket-Guide to Europe. New York: W. R. Jenkins. $1.25.
Stetson, Clarence. Why Not Cycle Abroad Yourself? New York: F. & E. Greenbaum. 50c.
The Annual Literary Index. 1897. Publishers' Weekly.
The Works of Geoffrey Chaucer. [Globe Edition.] Macmillan. $1.25.
Tourgée, A. W. The Man Who Outlived Himself. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Tweedie, Mrs. Alec. Through Finland in Carts. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan.
Underwood, Mary L. An American Mother, and Other Stories. Wausau, Wis.: Van Vechten & Ellis. $1.50.
Vedder, Prof. H. C. A History of the Baptists in the Middle States. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. $1.25.
Webb, T. E. The First Part of the Tragedy of Faust in English. New edition. Longmans, Green & Co.
Willoughby, H. L. Across the Everglades. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Wright, Rev. John. Prayers for Priest and People. St. Paul: Wright Publishing Co. $1.50.
Young, C. Howard. Sunny Life of an Invalid. Hartford, Conn.: The Author. $1.
Zola, Emile. Paris. 2 vols. Translated by E. A. Vizetelly. Macmillan. $2.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 24, 1898.

The Week.

Those who think a war with Spain would make Republican candidates for Congress run like wildfire next fall, should not forget that in Spain also the question of war has its political aspects. Spain will undoubtedly go all reasonable lengths to avoid war, but many things might be worse for her politically than war. If she were to sell the island of Cuba, or to acknowledge its independence, close observers of Spanish politics think there would be instant revolution. The monarchy would be gravely imperilled, and would probably fall. From two sides would the revolt against it come—from the Carlists, in the north, and from the socialistic or anarchistic Republicans in the cities. A very likely result would be a military dictatorship, under Gen. Weyler or some officer like him. This is an ending that the Spanish authorities would be justified in bending every effort to avert, and a war with the United States would avert it. Such a war might bring disaster upon disaster, it might result in the loss of Cuba, but it would consolidate the nation even in its calamities; it would make possible the continuance of the present form of government as one that had manfully stood for the national honor. War, or a feint at war, as an electioneering device is not, in fact, confined to American politics. We have nothing to teach the Spaniards in that political art.

Congressman Tayler of Ohio, who fills the seat formerly occupied by President McKinley, made a speech at the dinner of the Sons of the American Revolution at Delmonico's on Saturday evening, taking for his text the admirable behavior of President Washington when a streak of popular frenzy ran through the country in favor of plunging into a war of sympathy with the French Revolution. He pictured the arrival of Citizen Genet, the Ambassador of France, at Charleston, his triumphal march northward, his reception at Philadelphia, where nearly the whole population attended his steps, and where he proceeded to issue letters of marque and to direct how French prizes should be treated in American waters, and, because Washington did not move fast enough to suit him, finally took an appeal from the President to the people of the United States, and then, to his infinite surprise, found his functions summarily terminated. Any weaker man than Washington would have quailed before this storm, and even Washington shook. When Mr. Tayler made his application of this historic example to the present occupant of the White House, as a man who feels his responsibilities to the American people, to the world, and to posterity, and who considers not merely the passions of the moment, but the reflection which must come later, the whole room burst into applause. This was only one instance during the evening when the temper of the thoughtful public, represented by this patriotic society, was proved to be heartily in sympathy with the President and opposed to war, except in obedience to clearly defined duty and after peaceful methods have been exhausted.

The paper read by Senator Proctor of Vermont on Thursday, giving to his fellow-Senators and the country the result of his observations in Cuba, was a calm presentation of facts highly interesting in themselves, although mostly known before. It was put forth on his own responsibility solely. His own character is a sufficient guarantee of its truthfulness as to all matters of which he speaks from knowledge, and as to probabilities where he merely draws inferences from what he has personally witnessed. As regards the military situation, Mr. Proctor tells us that the Spanish army holds only the ground that it has enclosed with some species of fortification or trocha; that each railroad station is within such a trocha; that each railroad train has an armored freight-car loopholed for musketry; that small villages and blockhouses to hold the inhabitants of the country districts are seen at intervals along the railroad tracks, each enclosed in a trocha; that there is no human life or habitation visible from the railroads except these. The cities along the coast are in the hands of the Spaniards, but much the greater part of the eastern provinces and the greater part of the country taken as a whole, are either in possession of the rebels or so exposed to their ravages that the ordinary industrial pursuits, which depend upon peace and protection, are impossible. Even in the western provinces, the Spaniards, he says, "hold just what their army sits on." The "reconcentrados" are the country people who have been driven in by the troops lest they should furnish aid to the rebels voluntarily or involuntarily. This was a war measure, cruel undoubtedly, as war measures generally are, and we are now contributing the necessaries of life to its victims.

More important, perhaps, although less touching, are Mr. Proctor's statements concerning the political prospects of the island. Autonomy he considers now impossible, because it comes too late. Gen. Blanco is acting in good faith, he says, but the army and the Spanish citizens do not want autonomy. The men of influence and capital, the business community, are agreed that although autonomy might have been acceptable and successful in the beginning, the time for it is now passed. To sum up, the island is ruined and there is nothing to look forward to but the complete exhaustion of one side or the other. Does this pitiful condition concern us in any other way than by appealing to us as a Christian people to relieve human distress by furnishing food to the hungry and clothing to the naked? In other words, does it warrant us in declaring war against Spain? Perhaps this question may be answered best by asking whether we should think of interfering in case Cuba were a colony of France?

The letter from Mr. Theodore Roosevelt, the Assistant Secretary of the Navy, to a yellow journal which had invented an interview with him, a frequent yellow practice, is a model under similar circumstances, not only to all public men and public officials, but to all respectable citizens. Nothing has done more to promote yellow journalism than the connivance at its frauds involved in the silence of the victims about bogus interviews with them. Conversations with prominent persons have now become one of the principal journalistic modes of influencing public opinion. As long as these conversations are reported in a conscientious and decent way, and have been held with persons whose opinion about the matter in hand is really of importance, they may be very useful. The usual tendency of journalism to excess has, it is true, led to the practice of having interviews with men prominent for any reason, on all sorts of subjects, whether they know anything about them or not. But as long as these interviews are faithfully reported, the worst one can say of the practice is that it is silly. But the yellow journals have long ceased to report anything conscientiously, and this devilish industry is directly promoted by the habit of nearly all public men of letting fraudulent interviews with them, or invented stories about them, pass without notice.

There could not be a better illustration of the depths of iniquity and degradation to which this connivance—for connivance it is—leads than the impudent request of the yellow rascal in Washington, to a gentleman like Mr. Roosevelt, to refrain from exposing a lie, about himself, in order not to injure "sales"; followed by an announcement that he may have to "change his opinion" about

him. This is, in the mouth of a yellow journalist, a slightly veiled threat. It means that if you do not do what he wants, he will lie about you, distort what you say, depreciate you, or "keep your name out of his paper." This is the way yellow journalists punish a refusal to help their business, and it is generally so effective that some of our honest men are afraid to refuse to serve on their advertising committees, or accept board in their advertising yachts, and, much more, to refute their lies about themselves. Talk of the "white terror" or "red terror"; neither of them can approach the "yellow terror" among us. A letter like Mr. Roosevelt's is, therefore, of great value in setting an example of courage and patriotism. A gentleman telling a yellow scoundrel to do his worst, but that he will get no help from him in his crimes, is something which some of us would dread more than heading an assault on Morro Castle.

The abandonment of the Hawaiian treaty, after the pompous announcement, last fall, that its confirmation would be the first duty of the Senate when Congress met, is an excellent illustration both of the value of discussion and of the uncertainty of human affairs. The discussion was valuable and effective because it forced the friends of annexation to talk in terms of politics and political economy, and to abandon the missionary chatter about the wickedness of the natives and the unchastity of the Queen. They were constrained to tell us, willy-nilly, what would be the advantages of annexation to the people of the United States, and this, of course, gave its enemies their first clear opportunity of pointing out its disadvantages. The first disaster which overtook the missionary Government was the failure of the "key" theory, which was ruined in a day by Capt. Mahan's acknowledgment that to make a "key" of any use, you must have a large navy to take care of it. But the final blow came from the massacre of the colored postmaster and his family at Lake City, S. C., and close upon it the Cuban trouble. These two events have brought home to the popular mind the enormous difficulties into which we should be plunged by an attempt to rule dependencies inhabited by ignorant and inferior races, with whom it would apparently be impossible to get Americans to make any other union than would be necessary for purposes of carpet-baggery and corruption. When we got close to the problem, the prospect of two or three more "Southern States," to be policed, regulated, and kept civilized by lynch law, naturally appalled people. It appalls them still, and, in our opinion, their horror will dispose of the "joint resolution" as readily as it has disposed of the treaty.

The interesting information comes from London that the British Government is surprised by the formal assertion of our Senate committee on foreign affairs that "Great Britain is plotting for the absorption of Hawaii," and a "high official of the British Foreign Office" is quoted as saying: "It is unfortunate that the committee has such an erroneous impression." We should say rather that it is unfortunate that the committee should have for chairman such a man as Senator Davis. Neither he nor any member of the committee believes for a second that Great Britain is plotting to gain possession of Hawaii. They have no "erroneous impression" on this point. What they have done has been to put into a formal report a silly old humbug about British designs and British grabbing propensities which has been doing duty in this country for a quarter of a century. When an annexation scheme has been devised and argument in support of it has been scarce, the assertion that if we did not take Hawaii England would, has been put forward to fill the gap. None of the statesmen who have used it has believed it himself, any more than Senator Davis and his associates believe it now. Perhaps now that it has attracted attention and found contradiction from the British Government, it will be abandoned, but we are not sanguine of this.

The foreign service of our Government is again held up to contempt before the world, through the performances of another man who was given an office solely for political services. The United States Consul at Amoy, China, has just published in a San Francisco newspaper a letter in which he practically accuses Germany of grabbing a large territory in China, upon what he deems a trivial pretext; ridicules Germany's Emperor and his brother, Prince Henry; and, in relating the circumstances of England's objection to Russia's occupation of Port Arthur, says: "It has been so long since England fought a nation whose men wore pantaloons, that the sight of an anticipated enemy that is not dressed in breech-cloth, tunic, or turban would cause palpitation of the heart." This able representative of American statesmanship comes from Grand Junction, Col., and the sole reason for sending him to speak for our Government in China was the fact that "he was the Secretary of the Republican State central committee of Colorado during the McKinley campaign."

The result of the Republican primaries in Lancaster County, Pa., last Saturday had been awaited with great curiosity throughout the State, by both the supporters and the opponents of Quay. The opposition entered the contest with unusual advantages, its spokesman, State Senator Kauffman, who sought a renomination on his independent record in the last Legislature, being a worthy leader, while the great demonstration at the recent anti-Quay meeting in Lancaster, which was addressed by Mr. Wanamaker, had been full of encouragement. Despite all these advantages, however, the opponents of Quay were overwhelmingly beaten, a Quay man for the Senate distancing Mr. Kauffman by about 1,300 votes, and all the other Quay candidates for the various offices being successful by larger or smaller majorities. Nor can the anti-Quay people find any consolation in the explanation that this was a "snap judgment," which represents the opinion of only a small element in the party. The primaries everywhere were fully attended, and the vote closely approached the party strength, aggregating over 20,000, while in 1896 McKinley had only 24,337, including his Sound-Money Democratic supporters. Various explanations of the result are given. The anti-Quay people complain that the primaries were called before the usual time, and they allege that the machine had a big corruption fund, which was sent out into the towns and villages on Saturday morning, $4,000 going into Columbia alone, a place of about 10,000 people. They also point out that the Quay people had a perfect organization, and that most of the "practical politicians" in the county worked on that side. But none of these excuses will serve. The Quay people make the better claim when they declare that "the result shows that the majority of the Republicans of the county are well satisfied with Quay's rule."

Gov. Black's new civil-service law for New York State has been in operation for something more than six months, and the Civil Service Reform Association has satisfied a distinct public want in supplying a circumstantial account of the results achieved. The Association's report, made through its Secretary, Mr. McAneny, is based upon a careful examination of official records, and its accuracy cannot be questioned. It shows that the law is working precisely as its friends hoped, and as its opponents predicted that it would. The chief feature of the law was that which provided separate examinations for "merit" and "fitness," the former to be conducted by the civil-service boards and the latter by the appointing officers. The rating in each examination was not to exceed 50 per cent. The merit examinations were to be competitive and written, the latter written or oral, according to the wish of the appointing officer. When the new law went into operation in September last, there were in existence 75 eligible lists, containing 1,888 names. These were of persons who had passed the examinations and had been found fit for positions in the service. These lists were cancelled, and new ones called "merit"

lists, containing 1,426 names, were formed in their stead. Under the old law, when the head of a department wished to make an appointment, he had to apply to the Civil Service Commission for names from which to make it, and was obliged to select from the three highest on the eligible list. Under the Black law he sends notice to all those who have passed "merit" examinations that he is going to hold "fitness" examinations in person in order to decide upon which person or persons he will select. The result is that candidates are put to the expense of journeying to Albany for every new vacancy, with the prospect of not getting an appointment in the end. The appointing officer can rate any candidate's "fitness" as high as 50 per cent., and in this way can give a candidate with a low "merit" mark an average mark which will move him from the bottom to the top of the list. This power has been used so uniformly in favor of the lowest ranking candidates on the "merit" list that the attendance upon the "fitness" examinations grows smaller with every recurrence.

As might have been expected, Mr. Aldridge of the Public Works Department has especially distinguished himself as a rater of "fitness." He has, in full accordance with the provisions of the Black law, selected for Superintendent of the Middle Division of the canals a man who has served a term in the penitentiary, who has been fined also for petit larceny, and has, further, conducted a faro bank. As Superintendent this man has selected as subordinates two men who had served terms in the penitentiary, another who had been a letter-carrier and had been discharged from the Government service for drunkenness, and three others who are liquor-dealers. Next to Mr. Aldridge, the "best work" under the law seems to have been done by Lou Payn in the Insurance Department. Under that section of the act which permits the Executive to decide when competition is "practicable" and when not, the Governor excepted for Mr. Payn the position of "confidential examiner." The result is that while in 1896 there were two confidential examiners, there are to-day fifteen, thirteen of whom have been appointed since the first of last July. Another illustration of the use to which "excepted" positions are put is found in the creation of useless places like attorneys to State hospitals. These pay from $1,200 to $4,000 a year each.

The *Manufacturer* of Philadelphia takes up the subject of our trade with Canada in a very reasonable spirit, and gives some good reasons for believing that the time has come for a new treaty of reciprocity with that country. The immediate occasion for the expression of these views in a circle of high protective influence is the adoption of the preferential system of tariff duties by our neighbors under which Great Britain, or any other country which grants favors to Canadian exports, shall be entitled to a reduction of duties equal to 25 per cent., as against countries which do not grant such favors. This system has not yet gone into full effect. The Canadian law provides that the preferential tariff shall be 12½ per cent. the first year and 25 per cent. the second year and thereafter. Any country which chooses to avail itself of the preference under the conditions named, is at liberty to do so at any time. The question what we are to do about it is becoming important, and the *Manufacturer* has no hesitation in saying that we ought to open negotiations for reciprocal trade. "They [the Canadians] need what we have to sell," it continues, "and yet, strong as our industries are, we wrap ourselves up in a high tariff against Canadian goods and reject every overture which is made for reciprocal trade. What we are asked to protect is the poor American agriculturist!" And then it proceeds to show that "the Agrarian" has the best of it now in the Canadian market, seeing that he sells more than 12 per cent. of all the things that Canada takes from us, or 20 per cent. if we include raw cotton and tobacco. "Why should he," the *Manufacturer* asks, "have any fear of the Canadian producer?" Views of this kind coming from the very hot-bed of protection rather take our breath away.

The later accounts from London magnify greatly the effect of the victory of the Progressives at the London Council election. It is considered a tremendous slap in the face, particularly for Lord Salisbury and Mr. Chamberlain. The latter in particular raised Liberal wrath to boiling point by taking the stump in favor of the treatment of the election as a political struggle, and urging people to vote for the Moderates, as a mark of approval of Conservative policy in imperial matters. The district in which he did this most vigorously rolled up a tremendous Progressive majority. The Tories hate him so thoroughly that the party rather chuckles over such reverses. It seems to be generally acknowledged that the election has put an end to the Salisbury scheme of little municipalities. There could not be a better way of making the existing Council a small parliament, and the rival of that sitting at Westminster, than treating it as the representative of radicalism in imperial politics. Besides this, the vote is really an answer to the calumnies which have been put forth during the canvass about its administration of municipal affairs. This is generally acknowledged to have been very good, except by the high-and-dry partisans of the West-End policy.

One of Caran d'Ache's recent political cartoons represented the French Admiral arriving breathless in China, only to be confronted by a rueful John Chinaman displaying empty pockets and exclaiming, "You are too late. There is nothing left." In the distance were Russian, German, and English figures marching off with their garnered spoils. The new English concessions in China have not, perhaps, been sufficiently appreciated, owing to the fear that Russia was getting, or was about to get, still better terms. But the advantages gained for British trade and influence are by no means trifling. In the first place, beginning with next summer, all Chinese rivers are to be freely opened to British steamers. This means that English merchandise in English bottoms may be taken not merely to the treaty ports, but to every riverside town and station in the whole interior of China. The value of this grant is at once obvious. Then there were provisions guaranteeing that no part of the Yang-tse valley, where English influence has been predominant, should ever be alienated to any other Power; that the Inspector-General of Customs should always be an Englishman so long as British trade in China is larger than that of any other nation (it is now 82 per cent. of the total); and that a port in Hu-nan should be given Great Britain in two years' time. These very considerable concessions show that England will not be outstripped in the commercial development of China.

The question of getting security for costs for plaintiffs in libel suits has come into active discussion in England again, owing to the introduction of a bill dealing with the subject in the House of Commons by Sir John Wilcox. It is hardly likely, however, to pass in the present session. The difficulties of the matter were brought out recently by an interview between the Lord Chancellor and deputations from the Institute of Journalists and the Newspaper Society. The Lord Chancellor had really nothing to say against the Wilcox bill, except that it might deprive penniless or bankrupt persons of redress if libelled, which is, of course, a strong point. The London *Times* proposes to meet this by leaving discretion to the judge to whom application is made for the order for security. Let him decide whether the suit is frivolous or serious. The Lord Chief Justice did this substantially the other day, but too late, by laughing two cases out of court. But the defendant had already been heavily fined by having to pay the plaintiff's costs and his own. The question is becoming more and more serious for the newspaper world, by the business which has sprung up among speculating lawyers of watching newspapers in order to fasten on small bits of libellous news and get somebody to bring a libel suit on them.

"READY" FOR WAR.

In a more or less official way, the country was assured last week that it is "ready" for war, if war must come. Admiral Sicard at Key West, Gen. Miles, and the Navy Department and the Executive at Washington, all were quoted as declaring themselves satisfied that we are "prepared" for the war which all devoutly hope may be averted. But what is it to be ready for war? What is it that the country must provide and endure, face and suffer, if the smouldering flames of war, so long fuelled and fanned by rash hands, at last break fiercely out?

First, of course, comes the material enginery of war. This is easiest of all to make ready, though it is, too, the easiest place for awful mistakes and cruel deceptions to occur. The French thought they were fully ready for war in 1870. Ollivier's declaration that he would go into the war *à cœur léger* was made because he trusted the assurances of the Minister of War that the army was supremely ready, down to the last gaiter-button. Yet the same Marshal Lebœuf who had described France as *archiprête*, was in a few days sending frantic telegrams to Paris on account of the horrible confusion of the army even before the Germans made their lion-leap upon it. It is not probable that any such terrible awakening lies before us, though we must remember the new element of uncertainty that enters into a naval war—the uncertainty, that is, how modern battle-ships will behave in action. But it may fairly be said that, if it comes to a race for the bottom, the Spanish men-of-war will get there as soon as ours. This whole question of armament, however, is but a trifle in the serious preparation for war. Any rich nation can build or buy ships and guns. The real difficulties of being ready for war lie elsewhere.

If we are ready for war, we must be ready for a new unbridling of political corruption in connection with it. What is it that most dims the story of a just and necessary war like our civil war? It is the record of the harpies who fed themselves fat on the nation's suffering. The fraudulent army contracts, the scamped equipment and the cheating supplies, the swindling traders and the bounty-jumpers and the cotton frauds—these are the things that add a new disgrace, if not a new terror, to war. But it is perfectly certain that the things done in the green tree of the civil war would be nothing to what we should see in the dry tree of a war to free (that is, to annex) Cuba. The opportunities for a corruption which has in the meantime become systematized and scientific would be enormous. What a general unloading on the Government there would be—what contracts with a generous margin for all, what smuggling of tobacco, what stealing of sugar, what looting of land, what buying up of rich concessions in Cuba for a song! Every political corruptionist in the country would see wealth beyond the dreams of even his avarice, and would fly to Washington (never to the front) to get his share of the plunder. Even if the war were to be righteous in intent and glorious in result, the page of history narrating it would have all these foul stains on it, we may be absolutely certain.

More than this, while thus arming ourselves against a supposed foreign enemy, we should be throwing away the only weapons we have against the deadlier foes of our own household. New forms of corruption would run riot in case of war, and the old forms would laugh us to scorn in recovered insolence and security. Who, while the war lasted, could get a hearing for civil-service reform? Who would lift up the standard of municipal purity, or who would rally to it if anybody did? Does anybody doubt how Platt and Croker would welcome war? No man could be more furious than they would be to strike off the shackles from Cubans, in order to fasten them more securely on Americans. It is not only laws that are silent in the midst of arms. Rational discussion is silent; reform is silent; civic questions are not allowed to speak; the public conscience is dumb. Everything that we have been working for during the past thirty years—a civilized taxation, a civilized standard of value and a currency system not benighted, the rescue of our cities from the spoiler—all this would have to be thrown into the fiery crucible of war and would come out we know not what. Are we "ready" for a war which means all that?

But in addition to this military and political readiness for war, something else is necessary. No nation is ready for war unless it is morally ready. It must have a cause of war which its own conscience pronounces just, which will command the approval of the enlightened judgment of mankind, and on which appeal can confidently be taken to the God of battles. Without this there is no real readiness; with it, all the rest can be risked and faced. In spite of all the corruption and the civic debauch which the civil war entailed, it rises on the whole a grand event in the life of our nation because it was a just war. But suppose we are now to have another war like the Mexican, of which a future general of our army will have to write, as Gen. Grant wrote of the Mexican war, that it was a war of unjust aggression—where, then, can our children hide their shame of their fathers? So the great question of all, the overlooked question, is, Are we morally ready for war with Spain? Have we a cause of war so clear, so loftily imperative that all the hideousness of carnage and the fearful blow to civic progress must be hazarded in order to vindicate humanity and righteousness? We do not say that such a cause of war may not appear later, but we do say that it has not yet appeared. The moral cause enlisting the moral sense of this people for a war with Spain has not been presented. Until it is presented, let the President and all in authority at Washington be well assured that their "ready" is but the wicked "ready" of the duellist, prepared to risk and take life needlessly.

KING GEORGE; KING MATTHEW.

"It is often a question, to me, whether we live in a republic or a monarchy. One hundred and twenty-two years ago we threw off the yoke of King George, but to-day we find the yoke of King Matthew more unbearable. If the people of the State knew their strength and their power, now is the time to dethrone King Matthew First."

Thus spoke Rudolph Blankenburg, a prominent citizen of Pennsylvania, after a speech by John Wanamaker in Lancaster last week. The indignant outburst was fully justified by what Mr. Wanamaker had said. No such picture of tyranny, under the forms of democracy, in an American State, was ever before drawn; and everybody knew that every word was true, because it was the confession of a man who has always supported King Matthew, who, in his own words, "from my boyhood to this day have never voted any other than the Republican ticket, neither have I scratched it or bolted it"—even when, in 1890, the monarch named that offensive tool, Delamater, for Governor.

Mr. Wanamaker's picture of the tyranny which all these years he has been helping to saddle upon the people of Pennsylvania, deserves the attention of the whole country. We have space to reproduce only a few of the boldest strokes of the artist. "Corruption is at its worst," said Mr. Wanamaker, "and the commercialism of politics is the chief characteristic of Pennsylvania." Turning for a parallel to the period of Rome's decadence, he recalled that in "the fourth century of Rome, in the time of the Emperor Theodosius, Hellebicus was Master of the Forces and Cæsarius was Count of the Offices"; and declared that "in the nineteenth century M. S. Quay is Count of the Offices, and W. H. Andrews, Prince of Lexow, is Master of the Forces in Pennsylvania, and we have come through the iron age and the silver age to the worst of all ages, the degraded, evil age of conscienceless, debauched politics." Assuring his hearers that they need not go away from home to be convinced of this, he said:

"In our city [Philadelphia] the air to-day is full of councilmanic recrimination. What is the truth about your own county? Witness the scenes here this week of trains loading and unloading from all parts of the county, and strange men lying around to get money to be carried off for distribution to tempt their neighbors; desperate men—criminals in the eyes of the law—cheating your leaders, and, worse, cheating themselves, as they will find in the final accounting."

Devoting himself for a moment spefically to the county in which he spoke, Mr. Wanamaker pointed out that, by the multiplication of indictments, the District Attorney has multiplied his fees far beyond the joint salaries of both the Judges; that a Clerk of the Courts has managed to swell his income beyond the salary of the Vice-President of the United States; that the administration of justice before the Magistrates has degenerated into organized raids on the county treasury; and that the county tax-rate has just been increased, and for 1898 will be heavier than at any time during the present decade. He proceeded:

"I am told that the most shameless corruption of voters attends every important primary election, and men sell their political birthright for less than a mess of pottage. Voters are corruptly influenced or forcibly coerced to do the bidding of the bosses, and thus forge the fetters of political vassalage on the freemen of the Old Guard. School directors, supervisors, assessors, constables, and magistrates, and the whole machinery of local government, are involved and dominated by this accursed system. As, in the early part of the century, national legislation and the execution of the laws were dominated by the slave power, so, at the close of the same century, State and county, city and township affairs are dominated by the boss power. I am told that political promises have been made this week, in your county, which will cost the taxpayers tens of thousands of dollars, solely for the purpose of perpetuating the power of the bosses, to elect a Quay Legislature and a Quay delegation to the State convention."

Mr. Wanamaker told the people of Lancaster County that they not only have just raised their tax-rate, but will have to raise it again, because of the ever-increasing expenses of their reckless and defiant rings, and he asserted that what is true of one county is true of many other counties. "Who can tell the plain story of the last Legislature?" he asked, and he thus opened the answer to his own question:

" 'The stream cannot rise higher than its source.' The genius that selected and directed the Pennsylvania Legislature of '97, moulded and shaped it, and proudly and publicly proclaimed absolute ownership of it, has gone into written history. Its record of promises broken and party pledges ignored; its abuse of public trust, and insatiable desire for public plunder; of legislation born of injustice, iniquity, and crime, driven through under the 'whip and spur' of the Boss; of Trusts fostered and protected, and legitimate commercial interests assaulted; of placing the brewery paramount to the school-house, and the interests of beer preëminent over the crying demands of charity and popular education, bear distinctly the character and indelible imprint of its master spirit."

Mr. Wanamaker set forth in detail the offences of the lawmakers, from the loss of nearly a month at the opening of the session "by the presiding officers of the Senate and House delaying the appointment of the seventy-eight standing committees, that choice chairmanships and places might be found to reward the voters for the machine's candidate for United States Senator." We cannot follow him at length here, but we must quote his remark that "the Legislature of '97 was not worse than its predecessors have been under the same control" —predecessors, by the way, that he himself always helped to elect.

The scandal of the State Treasury was set forth in all its enormity. "For fifteen years," said Mr. Wanamaker, "the control of the office of State Treasurer has been the citadel of Senator Quay's power; it is believed to have yielded annually a campaign fund of not less than $100,000, mortgaging influential bankers, and affording unlimited credit to borrow vast sums for personal campaigns, and exhibiting incumbents entering upon the office of State Treasurer poor, and on a $5,000 salary in two years retiring with a competency." To give a better conception of the great loss sustained by the State, he quoted the Treasurer's official monthly statement, bearing date of July 1, 1893, during the height of the panic, which showed a balance of $8,123,747.69 in favored State banks paying no interest to the State, while he was obliged to pay a premium of 3 per cent. for cash with which to pay wages. To show to what extent the fund is manipulated for political purposes, Mr. Wanamaker said that "a Philadelphia bank capitalized at $150,000, a private institution [the People's Bank], whose president is Quay's old lieutenant, has continuously carried a deposit ranging from $300,000 to $1,200,000, while school districts are waiting in vain for school money long past due"; and he noted the interesting fact that the People's Bank is the first place that Senator Quay visits when he goes to Philadelphia.

The victory of beer over education must be cited. The Legislature had been so extravagant, for the benefit of the King's retainers, that toward the end of the session he issued orders to save money by reducing the appropriations for schools, and $1,000,000 was subtracted from the usual grant. "It was a question," said Mr. Wanamaker, "between schools and saloons, books and breweries—and beer won. The Quay people had agreed to protect the brewers, and they killed the Bliss beer bills." Nor do the schools alone suffer. Mr. Wanamaker stated that there is insufficient accommodation for the insane poor in existing buildings; that on the stone floors and corridors of these buildings several thousand of the poor, chronic sufferers are scattered about in the most wretched way; and that the failure promptly to provide appropriated money and proper places for the insane poor adopted by the State will turn the county poor-houses into mad-houses.

Mr. Wanamaker expressed the opinion that "a large part of the nearly 6,000,000 of Pennsylvanians are tired of the ring rule, and unwilling to submit tamely to the surrender of State affairs to Quay and W. H. Andrews; that the State is too young to go out of business altogether for herself; that we are ready for another Declaration of Independence." This may be so. But King George's sway over the colonists would never have been broken if they had assured the monarch that, much as they disliked him, they would submit after "freeing their minds."

TEN YEARS OF FEDERAL RAILWAY REGULATION.

Prof. H. C. Adams, the Secretary and Statistician of the Interstate Commerce Commission, publishes in the *Atlantic Monthly* for April an article on the work of the commission since its creation in 1887. The object of the article is to direct the attention of the public to the necessity for more legislation by Congress, in order to give the commission greater powers; and the practical question presented by it is, Does Mr. Adams make out his case? Are greater powers needed, and if so, what are they? We shall endeavor to explain what light the article throws on this question.

The interstate-commerce act was passed for only one reason, namely, because the decisions of the courts held that the Constitution allows Congress to regulate interstate commerce, while the States have sole jurisdiction over transportation within their borders. In the fifteen years preceding the passage of the interstate-commerce act, numerous State commissions had been created in the various States, with authority of some sort over railroads; in 1887 Congress undertook the supervision of interstate business. But Congress, in its act, imitated at many points the previous State legislation. This, indeed, it could not fail to do, inasmuch as the objects in view were the same—to exercise some control over rates, to prevent injustice in rates, to insure publicity, accessibility, and uniformity in charges and accounts. We have read with great care Prof. Adams's résumé, as we have read many reports of State railway commissions during the past twenty-five years, in order to see what he makes out to have been the actual effect of this legislation, and of the work of the commission under it, and we must frankly say that, except in one particular, we can find no definite claim made and supported by evidence that anything whatever has been accomplished. Indeed, his article is in the main an assertion that nothing has been accomplished because the commission has not had enough power. This is because "the courts have thought it necessary" to deny certain authority claimed by the commission, and because Congress "has not shown itself jealous for the dignity of the administrative body which it created." What new powers are demanded is left to be inferred rather than stated.

Before going any further, it is worth while to say that the powers already

conferred upon the commission are on their face very extensive. The act prohibits all "unjust and unreasonable" rates, makes unlawful every "unjust discrimination" and "undue preference," forbids the receipt of greater compensation for transportation of passengers and property, under like conditions, for a shorter than for a longer distance, and all "pooling" of earnings between competing railroads. The penalties for violations of the act extend to a fine of $5,000 and imprisonment for two years for each offence. Extensive as these powers are, however, it is quite apparent from Mr. Adams's review that they are inadequate to the purposes he has in mind, for his account of what the commission has accomplished is pitiful indeed. Its opinions fill five volumes of reports, and as a specimen of its labors we are given a half-page of opinions which are mentioned as "fairly typical." The first three are as follows:

> "It has been decided that a just schedule of rates will not tend to destroy the natural advantages for the production and sale of goods possessed by localities; but in judging of local advantages, care must be taken not to confound those that are artificial with those that are natural. Not only must a just schedule of rates rest on a just base, but the relative rates on competitive articles must be such as not to disturb the natural order of competition. A just schedule of rates will conform to the competitive equities that exist between goods shipped at different stages in the process of their manufacture."

It is obvious that such decisions are mere abstract propositions which might be evolved from one's inner consciousness *ad libitum*, without any act of Congress or commission. They have no force; they cannot lower or alter rates by the value of a cent, and are couched in such vague language as to apply to almost any conceivable state of facts. They are little more than mere words. After examining them, the reader is quite ready to agree with the writer when he says substantially that, beyond securing publicity, uniformity, and accessibility of charges and accounts, the act has accomplished little or nothing. So far as the criminal machinery of the act is concerned—the main hope of its promotors—he expressly declares that it "can never be effectively administered." The evidence produced also shows that there is no doubt as to the quarter in which the obstacles to the enforcement of the act have appeared. It is in the judicial decisions of the federal courts which have been made from time to time. In these it has been decided that the investigations of the commission are not final as to matters of fact, and that the commission cannot prescribe rates.

Mr. Adams seems to be under the impression that these obstacles can be readily overcome if Congress makes up its mind to uphold the dignity of the commission. But here he makes the mistake which so many make of imagining that the United States, its business, and the liberty, property, and contracts of its citizens, are at the mercy of Congress. Fortunately, they are not. Very fortunately for us, no way has yet been found of getting rid of the control of the courts over legislation intrusted to them by the Constitution. If it were not for this, Congress could, no doubt, do what it has been the aim of railway commissioners to do for twenty-five years—fix rates or decide upon their justice as fixed, and determine what profit, if any, capital should derive from railway investments. But the courts have thus far proved, and, we believe, will for ever prove, an insurmountable obstacle. So long as they do their duty, they will continue to hold that neither Congress nor any commission under it can exercise, under the forms of a judicial inquiry, any arbitrary or despotic power whatever. The attempt to regulate the interstate business of railways has broken down, just as the State attempts broke down, because it is opposed to the supreme law of this country, which, by the agency of the courts, guarantees to every man—and to every corporation—the right to manage his own business. When the Constitution says that no one shall be deprived of life, liberty, and property without "due process of law," it means, without what *the courts say* is due process of law, ascertained through judicial inquiry. Consequently, the time will never come when a political or administrative body will be allowed to fix rates and decide that they are "just." Until our system of civilization disappears, what is just will be determined by a court of justice according to principles laid down by judges, and not by Legislatures or their delegates. The Nebraska freight-rate decision, made the other day, emphasizes this principle, which lies at the bottom of our system of government. When the Populists have remodelled the Constitution, the sources of their public law will be in just such speculations as underlie Mr. Adams's suggestion for a removal of the obstacles in the way of the commission. A Bryan unhampered by the Supreme Court could solve railway problems as fast as Mr. Adams could state them.

TAXATION OF PERSONAL PROPERTY.

The recent report of the Massachusetts Tax Commission and the more recent speech of ex-President Harrison at Chicago have set on foot a very profitable discussion. The bill now pending at Albany for the appointment of a tax commission in this State took its rise earlier than either of these publications, but the general interest in it has been much enhanced by them. Gov. Pingree of Michigan has called a special session of the Legislature of that State to consider the subject of taxation of railroad, express, telegraph, and telephone companies. The Detroit *Free Press* considers the Governor's call a part of his political campaign for reëlection, and this seems to be tacitly conceded by the Detroit *Tribune*, although the latter holds that the Governor's action is founded upon a substantial public need.

At the bottom of all the agitation on these subjects lies the fact that personal property does not bear its just proportion of the public burdens. Coupled with this is the fact, demonstrated a thousand times in this country and abroad, that the "general-property tax" cannot be enforced justly and equally. By general-property tax is meant the system under which each man is required to pay taxes in proportion to his means, real and personal. That each man should do so is an accepted maxim in law and morals. That no machinery has ever been devised to enforce such a tax, has been proved so often that it is now the opinion of the best and most impartial investigators that it never can be, and that recourse must be had to other means to reach the same result. The Massachusetts Commission, it will be remembered, recommends as a substitute for the general-property tax a tax on the rental value of dwellings as being the best outward indication of the means of the occupier—a system recommended by the Wells-Dodge-Cuyler Commission in this State twenty-five years ago, and one which has been actually in operation in France for fifty years.

There is a general concurrence of opinion among economists that the actual value of personal property is at least equal to the value of real estate in the entire country—and this is certainly so in the Eastern States. Yet it is a fact that the amount of taxes collected from personal property for State and municipal purposes has been declining for twenty or thirty years, while everybody knows that the actual value of such property has been enormously increasing. Thus the amount of personal property on the assessment rolls in the State of New York in the year 1871 was $452,607,732. In 1886 it had fallen to $335,898,389. A more striking proof of the laxity of the assessment of personal property is furnished in the last report of the State Comptroller, from which it appears that 107 decedent estates were appraised in the surrogates' courts, at $215,891,568, while the appraisal of the same estates for taxable purposes had been only $3,471,413. A large part of this discrepancy must have consisted of corporate securities taxable directly by the State, and therefore justly exempted from the general-property tax; but that there was still a large residue unaccounted for cannot be doubted. This is made apparent by the fact that in the wealthy county of Westchester the proportion of personal property to real on the assessment rolls was only 3 3-10 per

cent., and in the whole State was only 12 6-10 per cent. The widest variations are found in the different counties and in the different towns of the same county, where the outward evidences of wealth are the same. "In some localities," says the Comptroller, "personal property escapes taxation entirely."

New York is not peculiar in this respect. In New Jersey the proportion of personal property to realty paying taxes is 17 4-10 per cent., in Illinois it is 17 per cent., in Indiana 26 per cent., in Massachusetts 22 7-10 per cent., in Pennsylvania 20 8-10 per cent. By this is meant that the whole amount collected from personal property for State and municipal purposes, including the taxes levied on corporations directly, is only the percentage named in the several States. But the injustice does not end here. Some persons and corporations pay more than they ought to under an equitable system, because they are particularly exposed to the scrutiny of the assessors. Banks come under this category, also the estates of decedents in course of settlement, and personal property in the hands of trustees who have no motive to conceal what they hold for the benefit of others. In this category come widows and orphans, who notoriously pay far more than their just proportion under the general-property tax.

A late contribution to the literature of taxation, and one of high merit, is a book entitled 'Taxation for State Purposes in Pennsylvania,' by Frank Marshall Eastman, a member of the staff of the Auditor-General of that State. Mr. Eastman is a firm believer in the Pennsylvania system, which aims to, and does, obtain the entire sum needed for state purposes from other sources than real estate, *i. e.*, from corporations, from gross receipts, from insurance premiums, from banks and building and loan associations, from personal property, from inheritances and successions, from licenses, from fees of public officers, etc. Mr. Eastman maintains that the system, although, perhaps, open to further improvement, is an excellent one, and that it ought not to be abandoned for any untried one devised by theorists—from which we infer that somebody is trying to upset it and put something different in its place. In our own State the chief aim of tax reformers is to get into the happy position of Pennsylvania, and thus be enabled to adopt the "local-option system" under which each county may elect its own method of raising its local revenue. All such reformers will be glad to have Mr. Eastman's book within their reach, for it supplies a vast fund of information on the practical side of the matter in hand. It gives us the history of each tax law in the Pennsylvania system, an account of the method of its enforcement, of the judicial decisions under it, and of its relative value and acceptableness as a part of the system.

The bill pending at Albany for a tax commission will undoubtedly become a law. It is to be hoped that the Commissioners appointed under it may be men who have made a reputation as economists and practical administrators, who will be able to show us how the existing inequalities in taxation may be avoided, and how personal property may be made to pay its fair share of the public burdens. As for the "general-property tax," it ought to be stricken out of the statute book as non-enforceable.

CHARAVAY'S LAFAYETTE.—II.

PARIS, March 10, 1898.

The forced return of Louis XVI. from Versailles to the Tuileries was in reality the beginning of the Revolution. Lafayette had been named commander of the troops in and around Paris. He entered into relations with Mirabeau, though he had no esteem for his character and his morality. Mirabeau, on his side, had only a mediocre idea of the intellectual capacity of Lafayette; but he was obliged to reckon with the General's popularity, which was immense at that time. Count de la Marck was their common friend, and tried to unite them in the interest of the monarchy. Gouverneur Morris and Talleyrand also played a part in the negotiations which took place between them, with various alternations. Morris warned Lafayette against the dangers of an alliance with Mirabeau; curiously enough, Talleyrand, who was still Bishop of Autun, spoke to Lafayette in the same vein. These negotiations came to an end when the Assembly passed a decree forbidding its members to enter the cabinet. There could be no longer any talk of a Lafayette-Mirabeau cabinet. Their relations came to a close, and, at a dinner given by Morris, Lafayette freely expressed his opinion of Mirabeau, calling him "an active and clever *coquin*." Some time afterwards, he refused to enter into fresh negotiations with him, and said to his friends: "I neither like him nor esteem him; nor do I fear him. I do not see why I should try to have an understanding with him." Lafayette often asked himself afterwards whether he had not done wrong to disdain the repeated offers of Mirabeau; eloquence is a great power in public assemblies, and Mirabeau was the most eloquent man of his time. He belonged, as did Lafayette himself, to the French nobility; they were both very well placed to serve as a sort of connecting link between the old régime and the new order of things, which was the début of a constitutional government.

The history of the relations of Lafayette and Mirabeau is certainly one of the most interesting portions of M. Charavay's work. The author has used the valuable correspondence between Mirabeau and Lamarck. Mirabeau's insistence is striking.

"Oh, M. Lafayette,' he says in a letter, "Richelieu was against the nation for the court, and though Richelieu did much harm to the public liberties, he did much good to the monarchy. Be a Richelieu against the court for the nation, and you will rebuild the monarchy and consolidate at the same time the public liberties. But Richelieu had his Capuchin Joseph; have also your 'Éminence grise,' or else you will lose yourself without saving us. Your great qualities have need of my impulsion; my impulsion has need of your great qualities; do not believe the little men who, for petty considerations, by petty manœuvres, try to make us useless to each other. Don't you see that you ought to marry me and believe in me all the more because your stupid partisans try to push me aside? Ah! you are unfaithful to your destiny!"

This written eloquence had not much effect. Lafayette probably took the comparison of himself with Richelieu as a bit of irony. We can, nevertheless, only regret, from an historical point of view, that two forces which together might have prevented much evil, found themselves disunited by a sort of fatality.

Lafayette's popularity was at its height in 1790, at the moment of the great Festival of the Federation. He was the true hero of this festival. The *fédérés* of the provinces kissed his hands, his boots, the harness of his horse, and the horse itself, and M. Charavay reproduces in his book a popular engraving of the time, in which Lafayette is represented near the altar of the Federation, by the side of the King. Mirabeau foresaw that this popularity could not last. "Popular risings are wine to M. de Lafayette." "It is possible that the shame of tolerating an insurrection beside an army of thirty thousand men will oblige M. de Lafayette some day to fire on the people." The day came which brought this terrible necessity. On Sunday, July 17, 1791, Lafayette had to proclaim martial law, and the troops fired on the people in the Champ de Mars. M. Charavay coolly says that "Lafayette's popularity was definitively lost in this useless bloodshed"; but we must remember that M. Charavay belongs to a school which, though it pretends to historical impartiality, has great difficulty in criticising anything in the Revolution and its actors. What was called the "massacre" of the Champ de Mars took place after the flight to Varennes and the return of the King to Paris and to the Tuileries, escorted by Lafayette and the National Guards.

The National Assembly separated on the 30th of September, 1791, and Lafayette, thinking that his work had come to an end, resolved to imitate Washington and retire. He left for Chavaniac, in Auvergne; but rumors of impending war forced him to leave his retreat. He was placed at the head of an army of 50,000 men; Rochambeau and Luckner commanded two other corps. At Metz, on the Belgian frontier, Lafayette was as much occupied with the news of Paris as with the command of his troops; he had sometimes to go to Paris and take part in the political deliberations. He tried to play the rôle of a moderator and arbiter between the parties; but passions were already too strong, and he was denounced on all sides as a traitor and an enemy.

The revolution of the 10th of August, 1792, was the end of all his hopes and aspirations; it was a fatal blow to the cause of constitutional monarchy. Lafayette heard of it at Sedan, and had to announce to his troops that the King had been deposed. He passed them in review and asked them to take the oath to "the nation, the law, and the King." He was assuming the position of a constitutional general, and stood by the monarchy in the abstract, though the King had momentarily been deprived of his authority. The executive council appointed by the Assembly after the 10th of August ordered him to surrender the command of the army of the North to Dumouriez, and sum-

moned him to Paris; he was accused of high treason and his arrest ordered. He was, on the 19th of August, at Bouillon, where he found Alexandre Lameth; he resolved to leave France, and was followed by twenty-one officers of his staff. He was arrested, with his companions, at Rochefort, a little town in the neighborhood of Liége, by the Austrian sentries, and conducted to Namur and afterwards to Nivelles. He wished to retire first to England, and wrote to his wife to join him there, and to settle afterwards in America, where he was "sure to find a liberty which existed no longer in France."

The French refugees were treated as prisoners, in violation of the law of nations; the aides-de-camp of Lafayette were kept in the citadel of Antwerp; Lafayette, Latour-Maubourg, Alexandre Lameth, and Bureaux de Pusy were transferred to Arlon. They were looked upon as great criminals, as they had all four been members of the Constituent Assembly, which had inaugurated the French Revolution and deprived Louis XVI. of his power, and were held as hostages, answerable for the lives of the King and Queen of France. Lafayette was transferred to Wesel, where he remained in the strictest captivity, and afterwards to Magdeburg and to Neisse in Silesia, where he arrived on the 16th of January, 1794. He was afterwards delivered to the Austrians and conducted to Olmütz, where a daring but futile attempt was made to rescue him by Justus Erich Bollmann, assisted by an American, Francis Kinlock Huger. Madame de Lafayette was incessant in her efforts to mitigate his captivity. She corresponded with Gouverneur Morris, with Washington. Washington and Morris behaved with the greatest generosity with regard to her, but could not do anything for Lafayette himself. She succeeded finally in obtaining an audience from the Emperor of Austria and an authorization to be allowed to share with her daughters the captivity of her husband. She joined him in October, 1795.

Lafayette was never forgotten during his hard captivity. It is due to the memory of Washington to say that he was constantly faithful to the Frenchman who had stood by him in the trial hour of the American republic. Madame de Staël, who, with all her imperfections, possessed a noble and generous nature, Fox, Sheridan, and many others may be cited among those who protested against the prolonged captivity of Lafayette. The French Directory charged Gen. Bonaparte to ask of the Austrian Government the release of the prisoners of Olmütz. Bonaparte and Clarke specified in a note given to the German plenipotentiary that the prisoners should not, for the time being, reside in France or in Italy. It was, in consequence, agreed that the captives should be delivered to the American Consul at Hamburg. Lafayette and his companions left Olmütz on the 19th of September, 1797, and arrived in Hamburg on the 4th of October, by way of Dresden and Leipzig. They were received by the American Consul, Parish, and in delivering them the Austrian agent declared that the Empress had set them at liberty out of consideration for the United States.

Lafayette, freed after six years of the hardest captivity, was still an exile from his country. His estates in Brittany had been sold, like the estates of the émigrés. He had incurred debts. He took up his residence with his family (as did Latour-Maubourg and his family) at a château near Wittmoldt, in Schleswig-Holstein, and wrote his 'Souvenirs en sortant de prison,' which have been published in his Memoirs. They are important documents for the history of the constitutional party. Lafayette blames with energy the condemnation of Louis XVI., the executions of the Terrorist period; he is very severe on the Jacobins—on Danton, whom he accuses of venality, on Robespierre, and all the Mountain.

Lafayette established himself afterwards at Vianen, near Utrecht. M. Charavay gives minute details of the life which he led there. He prophesied the great fortune of Bonaparte: "As for Bonaparte, he is the Constable of the Conventional party; he can become the master of France. He is probably the man whom Sieyès and his friends are waiting for, as the man who took part in the siege of Toulon, in the events of Vendémiaire, who stands well with Barras, Tallien, Fréron, and is not embarrassing to scrutinize. His halo of glory gives him immense advantages." This was written while Bonaparte was in Egypt. After his return, Lafayette writes: "The moment is very favorable for Bonaparte. . . . His desire ought to be that the Republic should establish itself on a solid basis of liberty and of justice. Perhaps he desires to be made President for life. I should approve of this arrangement; it would be an interesting experiment to make." Mme. de Lafayette saw Bonaparte in Paris, and was well received. A few days afterwards Lafayette received the news of the *coup d'état* of the Eighteenth Brumaire, and from the hands of a friend a passport under a fictitious name. He started immediately for Paris, where he arrived in November, 1799. He announced his arrival to Sieyès and to Bonaparte, who did not conceal his anger on hearing of this sudden return. Talleyrand and Regnault de St.-Jean d'Angély advised Lafayette to return to Holland; he refused to do so, and went to reside at the château of La Grange (now inhabited by the Marquis de Lasteyrie, one of his descendants). It was at La Grange that he heard with great grief of the death of Gen. Washington. "The pair of finely wrought steel pistols taken from the enemy in the Revolutionary war," which Washington left him in his will, are still preserved at La Grange.

For a while Lafayette gave himself entirely to agricultural pursuits; he became a gentleman farmer of Brie. Bonaparte's anger was not of long duration; he gave a lieutenancy in the Hussars to the son of Lafayette. Talleyrand offered Lafayette the embassy to the United States, which he refused, being determined, for the time, to live in complete retirement.

FRANKLIN AND THE ROYAL SOCIETY.

LONDON, February, 1898.

In connection with one of his earlier contributions to the Royal Society, Franklin says, in his delightful Autobiography: "One paper which I wrote for Mr. Kinnersley, on the sameness of Lightning with Electricity, I sent to Dr. Mitchel, an acquaintance of mine, and one of the members also of that society, who wrote me word that it had been read, but was laughed at by the connoisseurs." Franklin then proceeds to tell how amply the Royal Society had made amends for its early slighting of him by its subsequent handsome recognition. In 1748, John Mitchell, M.D., appears on the published list of Fellows. The result of the statement so made to Franklin and his own record of it in the Autobiography has been the reproduction by biographers, one after the other, of the reflection upon the Royal Society that it had slighted the philosopher at the outset of his scientific career. If, however, confirmation of Mitchell's statement can be found elsewhere, it is not forthcoming in the records of the Society itself. An examination of the minutes of the Council, of the Journal of the general meetings of the Fellows, and of the *Philosophical Transactions* of the Society, fails to give any support to the allegation of Mitchell. What those records do show, let us note.

On the 21st of January, 1748 (N. S.), William Watson, afterwards Sir William, read a paper to the Royal Society upon "Some Further Inquiries into the Nature and Properties of Electricity." In his essay, Watson mentioned that Collinson had received a paper concerning electricity from "an ingenious gentleman, Mr. Franklin, a friend of his in Pennsylvania." Watson (who had announced the theory of Positive and Negative Electricity, subsequently elaborated by Franklin) mentioned that Franklin's paper, which was dated June, 1747, had been lately perused by him, "by favour of our most worthy President." He went on to observe that though Franklin had made his experiments with a tube instead of a globe, the difference in results was in no way material. Watson quoted at length from Franklin's paper, and remarked that, owing to the distance at which Franklin was living, the latter could not possibly have been acquainted with what had been observed in England. Franklin seemed, said Watson, "very conversant in this part of Natural Philosophy."

On the 6th of June, 1751, Watson read "An Account of Mr. Benjamin Franklin's Treatise, lately published, entitled 'Experiments and Observations on Electricity, made at Philadelphia, in America.'" Watson observed that while he differed from him on some points, he thought that scarcely any one was better acquainted with the subject of electricity than Franklin.

On the 14th of November, 1751, a letter from Franklin, dated Philadelphia, June 20, 1751, addressed to Peter Collinson, concerning the effects of lightning, was read before the Royal Society. On the 21st of December, 1752, another letter from Franklin (dated at Philadelphia, October 1, 1752), also addressed to Collinson, was read. On the 18th of December, 1755, there were two communications from Franklin. One was upon "Electrical Experiments made in pursuance of those by Mr. Canton, dated December 3, 1753; with explanations by Mr. Benjamin Franklin," communicated by Peter Collinson. This was dated Philadelphia, March 14, 1755. The other was an "Extract of a letter concerning Electricity, from Mr. B. Franklin, to Mons. Delibard, inclosed in a letter to Mr. Peter Collinson." The date of this was June 29, 1755.

In connection with the papers above mentioned there is nothing on record at Burlington House, the home of the Royal Society, to confirm the alleged slighting of Franklin. On the other hand, there are the following notes of appreciation:

The Council met on the 15th of November, 1753, under the Presidency of the Earl of Macclesfield. The Minutes record that—

"The Strong Box was unlocked, and one of

the Gold Medals taken out, in order to the giving it to the person on whom the Council shall bestow the prize for this year, pursuant to the Will of Sir Godfrey Copley, Baronet, and the remaining medals were locked up in the box.

"The Council, in regard they had then no copy of the aforesaid will, adjourned the consideration of the bestowing this Prize to the next meeting."

At its meeting, on the 20th of the same month, the Council "ordered on a Balot that the Prize Medal in consequence of Sir Godfrey Copley's benefaction, be bestowed on Benjamin Franklin of Philadelphia, Esq., for his curious Experiments in Electricity, and that his name be engraven on the said medal."

The handsome terms in which the President of the Royal Society, the scientific Earl of Macclesfield, spoke of Franklin's services to science, in his address to the Fellows at the annual meeting on the 30th of November, 1753, are recorded in the Society's Journal. Jared Sparks has reprinted Lord Macclesfield's encomium in Volume V. of the Works of Benjamin Franklin, published at Boston in 1837.

At a meeting of the Council on July 15, 1756, "Mr. Watson moved that the name of Mr. Benjamin Franklin, who has deserved so highly of the Society, and whose affairs oblige him to reside at Philadelphia, be inserted in the Lists before his admission, and without any Fee, or other payment to the Society, and that such name be continued in the Lists, so long as he shall continue to reside abroad. Which upon a Ballot was carried in the affirmative, *nemine contradicente*." Accordingly, Franklin's name appeared in the List of Fellows published in 1757. In the List for 1760, the letters LL.D. follow the name. In the List for 1767, the Council includes, "Benjamin Franklin, LL.D., S. Gotting. Soc."

Among the papers preserved at Burlington House are some letters from Franklin to his friend Canton. These, with the permission of the Council of the Royal Society, are now published for the first time in the *Nation*. The original spelling has been faithfully reproduced. D. D.

MS. LETTERS FROM THE CANTON COLLECTION.

DEAR SIR, Dr. Priestly left these Specimens of the Circles with me to be produc'd to the Society. As I cannot be there this Evening, when I understand the Paper is to be read, I enclose them to you,—Those that look at them should be caution'd not to rub them, lest they should be defac'd before the Company have all had a Sight of them. I am, Yours, &c.,

(Signed) B. FRANKLIN.

March 9,—68.

PHILADA., March 14, 1764.

DEAR SIR, When I left London I promis'd myself the Pleasure of a regular Correspondence with you and some others of the ingenious Gentlemen that compos'd our Club. But after so long an Absence from my Family and Affairs, I found, as you will easily conceive, so much Occupation, that philosophical Matters could not be attended to; and my last Summer was almost wholly taken up in long Journeys. I am now a little better settled, and take the Liberty of Beginning that Commerce of Letters with you, in which I am sure to be the Gainer.

I have little that is new at present to offer you. I have made no Experiments myself. Mr. Kinnersley has shewn me one, that I think is mention'd in a Letter of his home, which I left in London, and it is a beautiful one to see. By a Stroke from his Case of Bottles pass'd thro' a fine Iron Wire, the Wire appears first red hot, and then falls in Drops, which burn themselves into the Surface of the Table or Floor. The Drops cool round like very small Shot. I enclose some of them. This proves that the Fusion of Iron by a Stroke of Lightning may be a hot and not a cold Fusion as we formerly suppos'd, and is agreable to the Acct. publish'd some Years since in the Transactions, of the Effects of Lightning on a Bell Wire in Southwark.

Mr. Kinnersley told me of a much stranger Experiment, to wit, that when he had sometimes electrify'd the Air in his Room, he open'd the Windows and Doors, and suffer'd the Wind to blow through, which made no Alteration in the electric State of the Room tho' the whole Air must have been changed; That he had even try'd the same abroad in the open Air on a windy Day, and found the Electricity remain'd long after the Operation, tho' the Air first electrify'd must have all been driven away. This surpris'd me, as it seem'd to indicate that some fix'd Medium subsisted between the Particles of Air, thro' which Medium they might pass as Sand can thro' Water; and that such fix'd Medium was capable of Electrisation. I went to see it, but had however my Doubts that there might be some Deception in the Experiment; and tho' at first it seem'd to succeed astonishingly, I afterwards found what I thought might occasion the Deception. As your little Balls, which were us'd to discover the Electricity by their Separation, would be too much disturb'd by the Wind when it blow'd fresh, Mr. Kinnersley had put them into a Phial suspended from the Bottom of the Cork. They were as easily affected there, by any Electricity in the outward Air as if they had not been enclos'd; but I suspect that the Glass receives some Degree of Electricity from the electris'd Air, and so kept the Balls separated after the electris'd Air was blown away. I think Mr. Kinnersley was not quite satisfy'd with that Solution of the Phenomenon. I wish you would try it when you have Leisure, and let me know the Result.

An ingenious Gentleman in Boston, who is a Friend of mine, desired me when there last Summer, to recommend a good Instrument-maker to him, to make a Pedestal of a new Construction for his Reflecting Telescope. I accordingly recommended our Friend Nairne; but as it was a new Thing to Mr. Nairne, it might be well for preventing Mistakes, to get some Gentleman accustomed to the Use of Telescopes in Astronomical Observations, to inspect the Execution, and I took the Liberty to mention you, as one who would be good enough to take that Trouble if he requested it. I find he has accordingly wrote to you, and sent his Telescope. If it may not be too much Trouble, I hope you will oblige him in it, and I shall take it as a Favour to me. I send you enclos'd a second Letter of his. The Charge of Postage that you pay, should be put into his Account. I have no Improvement to propose. The whole is submitted to you.

Please to present my respectful Compliments to Lord Charles Cavendish and Mr. Cavendish when you see them, to whom I am much oblig'd for their Civilities to me when I was in England. Also to Mr. Price, Mr. Burgh, Mr. Rose, and the rest of that happy Company with whom I pass'd so many agreeable Evenings that I shall always think of with Pleasure. My best Respects to Mrs. Canton, and believe me, with sincere Regard, Dear Sir, Your most obedient and most humble Servant

(Signed) B. FRANKLIN.

To Mr. John Canton, Spital Square, Bishopsgate Street, London.

Here there should be a half-dollar note of the American Congress. [Missing 22 Oct. 1879.]

FRIDAY, Nov. 27, [1767].

DEAR SIR, After the Society was gone, my Lord Moreton said, (when I offer'd him the Paper) that it ought to have been deliver'd before and read to the Society: he however desir'd me to produce it to the Council. There the Reading of it was oppos'd as not being referr'd to them by the Society. But this was at last got over by Dr. Moreton's proposing that the giving a Medal to Dr. Priestly should be taken into Consideration, and that in order to judge the better of the Propriety of the Proposal, the Paper should be read. It was accordingly read. I was then desired, as the best Judge present, to give my Opinion of the Merit of the Experiments as to the Medal; which I did in plain Terms, declaring it as my Judgment that the great Pains and Expence the Doctor had been at in making them, and the Importance of the Experiments themselves, well desirv'd that Encouragement from the Society: and that it was a Mark of Distinction justly due to so much philosophical Industry and Sagacity, &c. One that sat near me told me he was surpris'd at the Acct. I had given as he had been assur'd the Medal was intended to be bestow'd on the Doctor only for writing a History, which was thought wrong; but it now appear'd he had made many valuable new Experiments; &c. Then a Question arose how far it was proper to give a Medal for Experiments that had not been sent to the Society till they were published; and this occasioned a Search for Sir Godfrey Copley's Will which could not be found; but an Agreement was found recorded between the Society and his Executors, that the 5£ should be given for the best Experiment within the Year, proposed and directed to be made by the Society, and made in their Presence:—This not having been the Practice of late Years, it began to be whisper'd that most of the Medals had been irregularly given and that no more could be so given. A subsequent Resolution was however found, to print the Clause of Sir Godfrey's Will in every number of the Transactions for the Encouragement of Foreigners to endeavour obtaining the Reward, as there was reason to fear a Failure of Experiments on the former Plan.

By this Time it grew late, and it was concluded that the Books should be searched, to find all the Steps that had been taken in disposing of this Prize whether in Money or in Medals from the Instance in 1717 to the last; with Reasons and Grounds on which the Council had proceeded; and that a Copy of that Part of Sir Godfrey's Will should be obtained from the Commons; when at the next Council the Matter might be re-considered, and the Medal then given to Dr. Priestly if the Council thought fit, and it should be found not contrary to the Will so to do. Thus the Business ended for that time; and how it will conclude at last seems an Uncertainty; for I think some Persons are busy in an Opposition to the Measure. But I hope it will end in favour of Merit, in which case I think our Friend cannot miss it. I am, Dear Sir, Your obedt. Servant,

(Signed) B. FRANKLIN.

P. S.—I return the Dr.'s Letter. I imagine his Difficulty has arisen partly from his Supposition that the Electric Matter goes in a Ball with a Projective Force, which I think is not the Case but that it is a Constant Stream from the Inside to the Outside; of the Bottle thro' the best Conductors and in such Direction as it can best pass, and in which Path strait or crooked it actually begins to pass as soon as the Conducting Wire begins to approach in order to make the Discharge, which would be done silently or with only a hissing Noise if the Conducting Wire were kept a little farther off than the striking Distance.

AUGT. 15. —71—

DEAR SIR, I have just received the enclos'd from Dr. Priestly, And as it contains an Acct. of a new Discovery of his, which is very curious, and, if it holds, will open a new Field of Knowledge, I send it to you immediately. Please communicate it to Dr. Price when he returns. I am just about taking a Trip for a few Weeks to Ireland. I hope I shall find you well at my Return. I am, with great Esteem, Dear Sir, Your most obedient humble Servant,

(Signed) B. FRANKLIN.

To Mr. Canton, at the Academy, Spital Square, Bps. Gate Street.

Mr. Franklin's Compliments to Mr. Canton, and acquaints him that Business prevents his having the Pleasure of Visiting Mr. Canton this Afternoon as intended,—Mr. Collinson too is out of Town who was to have accompanied Mr. F.—and will do so some Day next Week.

CRAVEN STREET, Aug. 25, 1769.

DEAR SIR, When I was at Paris about 10 Days since, I was told that a Comet was then visible with a Tail of considerable Length. If it has not been yet observed or heard of here, perhaps this little Notice may be agreable to you. I return'd but last Night, I hope you and yours are well, being very sincerely Your affectionate Friend and Servant

(Signed) B. FRANKLIN.

I think it was said to be in some Part of the Bull, and in its Progress towards the Sun. M. Monnier discover'd and observ'd it.

Dr. Franklin's Compliments to Mr. Canton, and begs a little of his Preparation for the Electric Cushion.—If it would not be too much trouble, Dr. F. would be glad of his Company at Tea this Afternoon, when Mr. Canton might show him the manner of applying it, and they could afterwards go together to the Club.

Thursday morning—

DEAR SIR, What passed at the Society last Thursday night, was chiefly, a Motion for our Address to the King, which was agreed to, and a Committee appointed to make a Draft. The Society adjourn'd to Monday night, to hear the Address and agree upon it, which was also done. On Thursday next at the Meeting we are to be inform'd when it is to be presented. I hope I shall have the Pleasure of seeing you there at that time; and am Sir, Your most obedient Servant

(Signed) B. FRANKLIN.

Wednesday, Nov. 12:

P. S. I doubt I shall not be ready with the Paper, but have other Reasons for desiring you not to be absent.

Mr. Franklin's Compliments to Mr. Canton, and requests he would procure for him two more of the long Glass Tubes such as he formerly did him the favour to procure for him.

Tuesday—

Mr. Franklin's Compliments to Mr. Canton, and is sorry to find that he cannot have the Pleasure of waiting on him this Evening, being oblig'd to attend a Committee at the Society of Arts;—but as he expects to see Mr. Canton on Thursday at the Royal Society; some other Evening convenient to Mr. Canton may be agreed on.

Monday morng. Nov. 24.

Correspondence.

THE BRITISH CAPTURE OF HAVANA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The following summary of the only successful attack ever made on Havana since it was first fortified against the French and English pirates in 1665, may be of interest at the present time. The facts have been taken partly from the Life of Lord Albemarle, grandson of an early royal Governor of Virginia, but chiefly from the 'History of the Late War in North America,' printed at London in 1772, by Thomas Mante, an engineer officer present at the siege.

Soon after the declaration of war in 1762, Lord Albemarle sailed from England with but four sail of the line and four regiments on transports, but his concentration was so skilfully made that he was able, without the previous knowledge of the Spaniards, to appear off Havana on the 6th of June, with nine ships of the line (afterwards considerably reinforced from Jamaica), a number of frigates, several hundred transports, and a land force of about 14,000 men, including 2,000 American provincials, who proved to be among the most efficient of his troops.

The Spanish Governor, Prado, at this stage, probably misled respecting the strength of his opponents, committed the irrevocable mistake of withdrawing a superior naval force into the harbor, which was closed by a boom and three sunken vessels. The error was fatal, because if he had attacked the arriving English at once, even if he failed to defeat and disperse them, any well-fought action must have inflicted such injuries on both ships and crews as to break up the force and defeat the expedition, while by shutting his own fleet up in the harbor he risked everything on the successful defence of the town, since its surrender inevitably involved the loss of all vessels in the harbor. The British landing was effected expeditiously and without loss, in face of superior naval and equal land forces, by a feint on the west side of the entrance, and a real landing five miles east of it.

Regular siege operations were commenced against the "Moro," and pushed from the site now occupied by the Cabañas, which had not then been constructed. The Moro, being well covered on the land side by the crown of the glacis, was breached with difficulty. Siege materials were scanty, and the ditch, which was too large and deep to be filled, was mined and blown up with both scarps, the assault delivered through a very narrow breach, and the fort carried by storm after forty-four days of open trenches. The loss of life was large on both sides, and included Velasco, the Spanish commandant, whose family was ennobled by the title of Viscount Moro for his gallant defence, and a standing order made that ever after there should be a ship in the Spanish Navy called by his name. Its guns were then turned against the town and minor defences, which capitulated sixty-seven days after the British landing. The loss by death in the attacking force was 2,764 of all ranks. The capitulation included ten Spanish ships of the line, six having been destroyed during the siege.

Havana was at that time the place of arms and the naval and commercial centre for all the Spanish colonies in both Americas. It possessed dock-yards where the largest ships of the line were built and fitted, and the Crown property in merchandise there accumulated and captured was transported to and sold in London for an amount exceeding £700,000 sterling. The essential difference between then and now is the present existence of the Cabañas fortress, which is generally regarded as the strongest feature of the present defence. It is, however, probable that no military man would now recommend a direct attack on Havana from the sea, in order to accomplish what can be so much more easily gained by simpler and less expensive strategic methods. Neverthless, as the history of this ancient struggle is an interesting part of the problem, it may be interesting to some of your readers.—Yours respectfully,

I. J. W.

PHILADELPHIA, March 19, 1898.

AMERICA AS SHE IS REPRESENTED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You have frequently had occasion to animadvert upon the notorious incompetence and ignorance of our diplomatic and consular representatives abroad, which have contributed so much to make us a laughing-stock among the nations. To all who are in any way familiar with the facts, your statements have needed no reënforcement. If you required support, however, it is at hand from an unexpected quarter.

The Supreme Court of the United States has lately, in one of its opinions, embalmed and preserved for the admiration of future ages a choice specimen of American diplomatic literature. In the case of United States vs. Eaton, decided February 28 last, and reported in *Supreme Court Reporter*, Vol. 18, page 374, it is stated that in 1892 one Sempronius H. Boyd, appointed in 1890, was Minister Resident and Consul General of the United States to the Court of Siam, at a salary of five thousand dollars a year. On June 21, 1892, Sempronius addressed to the Government to which he was accredited the following letter:

"U. S. LEGATION AND CONSULATE GENERAL,
BANGKOK, June 21, 1892.

"Krom Luang Devawongsee Varoprokan, Minister for Foreign Affairs—Monsieur le Ministre: It is with exceeding regret to me to be forced to abandon my diplomatic and consular duties at the court of his majesty, with the enjoyment, pleasure, comfort, and genuine friendship so marked and distinguished, which the representative of the United States fully appreciated and imparted to his government.

"All the physicians advise me to go soon to a cold climate. The president has wired me to that effect. In 20 or 30 days I may be strong enough for a sea voyage, of which I will avail myself. I am authorized to designate L. A. Eaton vice consul-general until I am able to assume. If not incompatible with public affairs, I beg you to so regard him.

"Monsieur le Ministre, I am too weak and feeble to call in person, which I would so much like to have done, and expressed my thanks and that of my government to the foreign office and attachés.

"With assurance of my high consideration, I have the honor to be, Monsieur le Ministre, Your obedient servant."

No doubt Sempronius was a great man in his ward, and a very valiant patriot; or, if he was one of those editors whom Mr. Harrison so plentifully rewarded with diplomatic appointments, beyond peradventure he amply atoned, by the size and vigor of his headlines, for any syntactical or grammatical peculiarities in mere reading matter. Moreover, we can "lick" Siam at any time, so why should we not address her in any jargon that suits Sempronius?

HOWARD LESLIE SMITH.

CHICAGO, March 17, 1898.

CAUSE AND EFFECT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is there anything significant in the statement of the proprietor of a morphine cure, on page 48 of *Printer's Ink* for March 16, that his best advertising results are from newspapers—names given—notorious in the domain of yellow and Jingo journalism?

A READER.

MARCH 17, 1898.

Notes.

R. H. Russell, who has just removed his publishing-house to No. 3 West Twenty-ninth Street, announces a spring list which includes 'Two Prisoners,' by Thomas Nelson

Page, illustrated by E. W. Kemble; 'The Nightingale,' by Hans Christian Andersen, illustrated by M. J. Newill; 'Poems,' by Robert Burns Wilson, illustrated from nature by C. Grant La Farge; 'Shapes and Shadows,' poems by Madison Cawein; and 'The Pinero Birthday-book,' with quotations from Arthur Pinero's plays.

'The Handbook of Sole Whist,' by A. S. Wilkes, will be published directly by Brentano's.

Dodd, Mead & Co. will issue 'The Bookman's Literary Year-book,' an illustrated guide to American and English literature during 1897.

The 'Annual Literary Index' for 1897 (office of the *Publishers' Weekly*) is, as usual, a worthy supplement to the indispensable 'Poole's Index.' The list of bibliographies, the necrology, and the index to dates of principal events of the year are very convenient. In one particular it is open to objection. Why should the references to periodicals and the references to books be in two separate alphabets? They are used by the same people at the same time for the same purpose. If I want to find some article on Women, why should I be obliged to look on p. 142 and again on p. 158? I want to know all that is to be had, whether it be in the *Forum* or in Miss Repplier's 'Varia.' When I have found three articles on Matthew Arnold on pp. 6 and 7, why should I be obliged to turn over to p. 148 to see if there is not something else there? And, worse than all, why should I be exposed to the danger of missing the best reference of all by forgetting to look in both places? We suspect some obstacle in the collaboration, but it may be typographical. There is more apparent reason for separating the bibliographies.

The "Temple Edition" of Scott's Novels will, by its very name, suggest to all who are acquainted with Dent's publications the handy pocket form, the limp cover, the excellent print and generally dainty finish of the productions of this London house (New York: Scribners). The transparent cover-guard tells the story succinctly: "This edition . . . is printed verbatim from the author's favorite edition, with all the notes, etc., . . . on a thin paper with large type, and contains 40 topographical frontispieces by Herbert Railton in photogravure, and 8 portraits, . . . bound in lambskin." The pretty illustrations are overweighted by the heavy arabesque border, and a similar border (here as in the Temple Editions generally) on the title-page detracts from the tastefulness elsewhere exhibited. But these are the only defects in most companionable volumes. The editor is Clement K. Shorter, Clement Shorter, or C. K. S., as he variously signs the brief introductions. Thus far we have received 'Rob Roy,' 'The Antiquary,' 'Old Mortality,' 'Guy Mannering,' and 'Heart of Midlothian,' in two volumes each, and 'The Black Dwarf.'

We can heartily commend 'The Poetry of Samuel Taylor Coleridge,' the latest volume in the capital "Muses' Library" (London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Scribners). Dr. Garnett's Introduction is alone worth the price of the book, and his selection (*i. e.*, exclusion) is beyond reproach, much as remains that is fine in parts of what is omitted, to say nothing of the dramas, which would have occupied too much room. In other words, this anthology is not sacrificed to the "familiar quotation." The notes are chronological and illustrative. Dr. Garnett's point of view in discussing Coleridge's genius is to regard him "as the incarnate transition, so to speak, from the eighteenth to the nineteenth century," and as "the greatest of English critics," whose verdict, "evinced by the surest of tests, his own practice, has been given in favor of the poetry of the nineteenth as compared with that of the eighteenth century." We can hardly agree that were eleven enumerated poems "removed from his works, he would lose all title to be esteemed a great poet," because we cannot, for example, name a poet so great that the "Ode to Tranquillity," for one, if ascribed to him, would seem beneath him. But we will not quarrel with Dr. Garnett's dictum that "any one of his [Coleridge's] best poems would suffice for the immortality of any poet."

To Henry Holt & Co's series of "English Readings for Students," Prof. Lewis E. Gates of Harvard has contributed a volume of 'Selections from the Prose Writings of Matthew Arnold.' A good deal of the beauty of Arnold's essays and treatises lies in their structure and proportion, and this makes the selection of extracts a particularly difficult task. Mr. Gates has accomplished it as well as 291 pages of a 16mo volume will allow. The rest of the volume is devoted to a preface, an introductory essay, and a commentary. The essay is admirable—hardly inferior to Arnold himself, save in its derivatory character. Neither has Mr. Gates failed to appreciate the great extra-literary significance of his subject. Many will find the essay morally helpful as well as critically illuminating. One might quote it almost anywhere with an assurance of felicity. The notes are full of excellent illustrations, and show the art of a true commentator; thoroughly terse, seeking less to engage than to avoid unprofitably detaining the reader's attention, yet conveying a deal of helpful information.

'Bibliography of Education,' by Will S. Monroe (vol. 52 of Appleton's International Education Series), contains the titles of a goodly number of works in the English language on the various branches of educational science and history and on subjects more or less closely related to education. But the list is neither sufficiently complete nor compiled with all the care necessary to make it quite trustworthy for reference. The trouble with such works is that they are likely to mislead those very readers most in need of bibliographical aid. If each section of the book had been submitted to a competent specialist, with a view to desirable omissions as well as additions, its present utility (which is not denied) would have been greatly enhanced.

No one who ever read Ambrose Bierce's 'Tales of Soldiers and Civilians,' published originally under this title in San Francisco in 1891, and now reissued, with a few additions, by G. P. Putnam's Sons (as it has meanwhile been in London and Leipzig) under the major title of 'In the Midst of Life'—no one, we say, could forget the impression of these grimly powerful vignettes chiefly of our civil war. Tolstoi himself might praise the psychology of dying in "One of the Missing" or in "The Occurrence at Owl Creek Bridge"; and what an allegory is "Chickamauga," with the strayed child, wooden sword in hand, leading the crawling troop of hideously wounded men to the blazing ruins of his own home and the mangled body of his own mother! This little volume could not have been revived at a more opportune moment, and deserves the widest circulation as a peace tract of the first order, in the present craze for bloodshed. Mr. Bierce's imagination, his poetic feeling, his humor (which can be sardonic on occasion) have long been known to be above the ordinary. They are here fitly and truthfully applied in the depiction of organized human slaughter.

In default of a full record of the general orders issued by Washington during the Revolution, a part is welcome. Under the editorship of Mr. Appleton P. C. Griffin, the orders issued in May and June, 1778, are printed from Major Shaw's MS. in the Boston Athenæum. The record opens with the well-intentioned effort of Congress to induce men to enlist or serve for the war by an offer of half-pay for seven years; and, a few days later, persons in the army "who understand making thin paper, such as bank-notes are struck upon," are in demand—a somewhat suggestive juxtaposition in the light of after events. Considering the evil times and the distresses of the army, the proportion of courts-martial is not excessive, and discipline was well preserved by the punishment of a few. Some of the precautions against sickness are peculiar, such as the burning of the powder of a musket cartridge daily in each hut to purify the air, or "a little tar, if it can be procured." One feature is deserving of notice—the frequent disagreement of Washington with the decisions of military trials. An officer who took two mares and a barrel of tools on the lines and sold them for his own profit was acquitted by the court; but Washington interferes, with a severe reprimand, being "far from satisfied of the propriety of Lieut. McDonald's conduct." In another case an officer is condemned by the court to dismissal for taking a pair of mittens, for gaming, and for abusive language. Washington sets aside the mittens, but comments on the "pernicious practice of gaming, which will invariably meet with every mark of his disapprobation." In two cases men are sentenced to receive four hundred lashes each, a very severe punishment, and one little calculated to prevent a repetition of the crimes—desertion, reënlisting, and perjury. Such a record as this is invaluable to the historian of the Revolution.

'A Godchild of Washington,' by Katherine Schuyler Baxter (Neely), is a pretentious volume, containing nearly everything that could be gathered in a disorderly way to foster family pride and an unreasoning magnifying of ancestry. Its purport is not very clear, for it rambles from a sketch of Alexander Pope to the Erie Canal, and is illustrated in a wonderful manner. After reading its 650 pages, well padded out, even by extracts from "the shelves of old books," we are at a loss to account for its existence. The only redeeming feature is that it is "published by subscription for private circulation only."

A small edition of a 'Reconnaissance of the Gold Fields of Southern Alaska' and of 'Geology of the Yukon Gold District' has just been issued by the United States Geological Survey at Washington, and is distributable only upon special recommendation; but three-fourths of the 40,000 copies of the Map of Alaska, showing gold-bearing rocks, with descriptive text, are for distribution through Senators and Representatives. The

Superintendent of Public Documents (Government Printing-Office) has just put forth Catalogue No. 37 of United States Public Documents, with a partial reference list of United States Government publications on Alaska, filling fourteen pages.

In 'Les Demoiselles Danaïdes,' by Roger Dombre (Paris: Colin & Cie.), Parisian life is prettily described. The little tale has an engaging lightness and gayety suitable to the locality. It is the common subject of sudden smiting by Cupid, subsequent misunderstanding, and the ending, "So they married and lived happy ever after." Young people who read it will find graceful colloquial French of the best sort in its pages, and a simple story besides.

Charles de Rouvre's 'Princesse Esseline' (Colin) hardly seems a book for the young; it is more for elder people who might have patience to read the long analyses of parental affection and the descriptions of travel and scenery. There is a true poetic feeling in the delineation of the young Esseline's life—petted and indulged, yet sweet, loving, and unspoiled; but it is a poetry, we fancy, which will not appeal much to youth. The action is placid and agreeable, but sadly lacks vivacity.

'Die Frau im Altertum: Ein Kulturgeschichtliches Bild,' by Karl Heinrich Schaible, M.D. (Karlsruhe: Braun), is a brochure of ninety-three pages, containing the substance of two lectures originally delivered before the Deutscher Verein für Kunst und Wissenschaft in London, and treating of the position of woman in Egypt, Greece, Rome, Palestine, Asia Minor, India, ancient Germany, and Gaul. The writer maintains that the rights of woman were practically more nearly equal to those of man in Egypt than in any other country of antiquity. In the introduction he discusses the influence of the different ancient religions in this respect, and gives in the ninth and concluding chapter an historical survey of the marriage relation, showing the degrading effects of polygamy and the elevating effects of monogamy as enjoined by Christianity and enforced by the example of the primitive Germans, whose esteem for woman, verging toward veneration, took a quixotic and romantic form in mediæval knight-errantry. The conclusion at which Dr. Schaible arrives is that the condition of woman is the truest test of a people's civilization, and that the present movement in favor of her higher education indicates a higher stage of general culture.

The last issue of Prof. Karl Hilty's 'Politisches Jahrbuch der Schweizerischen Eidgenossenschaft,' just published by K. J. Wyss in Berne, is a volume of 790 pages, beginning with an article by the editor entitled "De Senectute," and embodying some suitable and sympathetic reflections on old age. "Vor 50 Jahren" is a picture of political events half a century ago, as reflected in the letters of prominent Swiss statesmen, with an introduction by Prof. Dr. Blösch. "Das Tagebuch des Schweizerischen Abgesandten Hirzel bei seiner Sendung in das Hauptquartier der Allierten, Nov., 1813," by Prof. Dr. Oechsli, is a diary of value for the period immediately following the defeat of Napoleon at Leipzig. "Frauenstimmrecht" is a succinct survey of the female suffrage movement in Switzerland by the editor, who also contributes "Jahresbericht 1897," which fills about one-half of the volume and forms unquestionably the most interesting part of it. It is a carefully prepared report of the principal occurrences of the past year in Switzerland, including foreign and domestic affairs, legislative enactments, administrative measures, political parties, social questions, as well as art and literature, together with the text of political programmes, treaties, proposed laws, and other documents valuable to the historian.

In the current issue of the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*, nothing suggests comment more than the pictorial frontispiece in connection with Prof. de Sumichrast's account of the production, under his direction, of Racine's "Athalie" at the Sanders Theatre in December last. For the first time in the history of the college, a play was given in which the female parts were not borne by male students. To effect this innovation, Radcliffe College was drawn upon, and some Boston ladies were also invited to a share in the performance. The incident advertises the fact that co-education in all but the narrowest sense is firmly established at Harvard, side by side with the survival, in the Hasty Pudding theatre, of the old classical and mediæval-monastic idea at once of the stage and of education.

Of all the tributes to the memory of Daudet published since his death, the sincerest and most tender, perhaps, is that by the aged Friedrich Spielhagen, in *Cosmopolis* for February. "Was mir Alphonse Daudet ist" are the words which he puts at the head of his brief *in memoriam* to the younger French writer, whom he never met, with whom he never exchanged letters, who never read a line of his, but whom he loved as a friend, and whose poetic views and aspirations he shared, though there is this difference between them (he modestly and generously admits in his closing sentence): "Was er wollte, das konnte er . . . durchführen. Ich werde mich wol mit dem *magna voluisse* begnügen müssen."

Admirers of "Caran d'Ache" will find an account of this humorist in the *International Studio* for March (John Lane), with many illustrations not caricatures, of a striking kind. There is, as usual with this handsome magazine, much else to repay perusal.

Antarctic exploration was the subject before a special meeting of the Royal Society held in the last week of February. The discussion was opened by Dr. John Murray of the *Challenger* expedition, who stated the main objects of research for an expedition so equipped as to be able to spend one or more winters in Antarctica. These were, especially, observations of the atmosphere and the condition and distribution of the sea-ice in the winter months; the investigation of the interior ice-cap, for light upon the glacial-period theory; and the fauna. Among other speakers, Sir Joseph Hooker, one of the few survivors of the Ross expedition more than half a century ago, said that "he looked to a comparison of the oceanic life of the Arctic and Antarctic regions as the heralding of an epoch in the history of biology." Dr. Neumayer, director of the Hamburg Observatory, spoke of the absolute necessity of obtaining data from the Antarctic in order to form a physical theory of terrestrial magnetism. The advantages to geology of an exploration were presented by Sir Archibald Geikie, who referred to the region as probably one of the most interesting volcanic tracts on the face of the globe, of which we could hardly be said to know more than its mere existence. Dr. Nansen believed that it might be difficult to get upon the inland ice, but not at all impossible, and added that if an expedition went from Great Britain, he was sure that Norway would be willing to send out an expedition for coöperation upon the land.

Some time in April the first Handelshochschule in Germany will be opened at Leipzig, as the result of the energetic efforts of the German Association for Commercial Instruction. The Saxon Government has, of course, sanctioned the enterprise and also promised a very small sum towards its financial support. The new institution is intended more especially for those who expect to occupy leading positions in commercial and industrial life, in the consular service, as members of chambers of commerce, etc. The conditions for admission therefore provide that candidates shall have completed a course in some secondary school, or give other evidence of suitable preparation. Foreigners can be admitted on similar terms. A seminary for commercial teachers will be formed in connection with the institution. Arrangements will also be made for the admission of members of the Hochschule to certain lectures in the University of Leipzig. With a view to such an agreement, the Ministry suggests that the senate of the Hochschule endeavor at the start to forestall the dangers to the new class of students arising from certain unfavorable peculiarities of academic life "which, though indulged in to excess only by a minority of students, are, nevertheless, on account of their publicity, regarded as *general* academic institutions." The Minister also deems the question of vacations in the new school worthy of careful consideration, lest the customary proportion of twenty-two weeks of vacation to thirty weeks of study should awaken scruples in the minds of the business class.

—A paper by Prof. Newcomb on "Recent Astronomical Progress," in the *Forum* for March, calls for particular notice on account of its general interest. An important part of the paper is devoted to the discussion of the question of life in other planets than our own. This is a subject that is perennially interesting to all mankind. Men of science know that this question is still very far indeed from solution. The present inquiry of science is, Are the planets habitable—do they present the conditions of habitability?—and not, Are the planets, or any of them, in fact, inhabited? Even this latter question has not been definitively solved for a single planet except our own. The much larger question, whether life actually exists in any planet but our own, is not yet within the field of scientific inquiry, notwithstanding its paramount interest. Prof. Newcomb points out that the hope of finding some indication of intelligent life on the planets has excited public curiosity ever since the telescope was first invented, and he remarks that our experience has proved that no increase of telescopic power is likely to carry us much further than we are now. Telescopes may, in the future, be vastly improved, but the obstacles to better vision appear to be insuperable. They lie, not in the imperfections of the telescope, but in the disturbing effects of the unquiet air that surrounds the earth. So long as astronomers must work within the atmosphere, so long the unsteadiness of the air will prevent the use of very high magnifiers. It is, of course, possible that new instruments may be invented, based on new prin-

ciples, and that, by their use, we may attain the desired knowledge. But there is no present reason to hope for such inventions.

—These matters are familiar to astronomers. But the general public is not so well informed. So many fanciful stories have been printed describing the particularities of life on Mars, for example, that general readers have come to admit some kind of life there, and to consider that the only matters open for discussion concern these particularities. Every one comprehends that there can be no human life on the moon. It is not so generally understood that the conditions on Mars are remarkably like to those on the moon. As Prof. Newcomb remarks: "Mars has little or no atmosphere"; "there are few or no clouds on Mars"; it is "by no means certain" that the polar "ice-caps" are ice at all. They "may be due to some other substance—solid carbonic acid, for example. Indeed, it would seem hardly possible that the sun's rays would suffice to melt more than a few inches of ice or snow on the poles of Mars. The whiteness [of the polar-caps] may, however, be produced by a layer no thicker than hoar-frost." What follows from these conditions on our sister planet? If there are no clouds, there can be no water, for water or snow would evaporate to form a layer of clouds. Hence, there can be no "seas," no "lakes," no "canals," with water in them. Channels, cracks in the soil, there may be, of course. It is certain from other considerations that the so-called "canals," which are simply dark, narrow streaks, cannot be water. At the Lick Observatory these dark "canals" have been found all over the planet, in its so-called "seas" as well as on its "land." A "canal" running through an "ocean" is, of course, an absurdity. What is seen is merely a darker, narrow streak lying on a less dark region. The explanation is yet to seek. A summary of our present knowledge like this paper of Prof. Newcomb's is of especial value. It not only describes the actual advances that have been made (and they are many), but it frankly details the points yet unsettled. His remarks on life in the planets, and especially in the planet Mars, are commended to popular writers on astronomical matters.

—Readers of the *Nation* will remember the mission of Metlahkatla in British Columbia conducted by the Rev. William Duncan, which was described in a little book by Mr. H. B. Wellcombe reviewed in the *Nation* some years since. Its trials from religious narrowness, and the final exodus of the great majority of the Indians from their homes on the Canadian side of the line, and their settlement on Annette Island, Alaska, under the leadership of their devoted teacher, are familiar to all interested in missions. After a year or two of uncertainty, Congress reserved the island for their use and the use of those Alaskan natives who might be led to join the colony. Secure in their faith that a permanent refuge was provided for them, the colony set at work to build homes, schools, and churches, as well as to establish industries by which they could maintain themselves in comfort. Mr. Duncan, a few personal friends, and a few of the Indians who had some means of their own, put into the machinery of a salmon cannery their capital, amounting to some $40,000, and have made of their industry a great success. The Mission brand of salmon brings several cents a can more than any other Alaskan brand, and the returns have been sufficient to pay good wages to the workers and a fair dividend on the capital advanced. By the use of ordinary prudence, the colony promises to continue self-sustaining if left undisturbed.

—An attempt has been recently made to bring ruin upon them and disgrace upon the legislators who assured them of protection. On the plea that mineral deposits exist on the island, a bill has been introduced into Congress to deprive them of nine-tenths of the island, cutting off their fishery privileges, their access to water for the town supply, the use of the timber, and that isolation from vicious whites which is essential to the well-being of the settlement. It says nothing of compensation for the loss of vested rights and the breach of faith involved. It means merely the destruction of almost the last independent cannery by the Alaska Salmon Trust; the invasion of the colony by liquor and vice; the ruin of the most successful mission ever known on the Northwest coast; and the loss of the last remnant of belief in the honor and good faith of the whites by the natives of the region. And all this that a handful of speculators may exploit some alleged quartz veins of unknown and very doubtful value. It is satisfactory to know that the Secretary of the Interior has denounced the scheme, and that Mr. Duncan's friends have rallied to his support; nevertheless, the ultimate issue is doubtful unless the voices of those who desire to maintain the rights of the weak against organized greed make themselves heard with no uncertain tone.

—Interest in the Pre-Shaksperian drama is decidedly on the increase. We have already spoken of the plan of a series of representative English comedies under the general editorship of Prof. Gayley, which will include some twelve or fourteen plays from this period. A volume of plays in the same period, edited by Prof. Brandl of Berlin, to contain mostly reprints of plays now generally inaccessible, is announced to appear presently. Mr. A. W. Pollard's 'English Miracle Plays, Moralities, and Interludes' is passing to a new and revised edition. And now Prof. J. M. Manly of Brown University has edited two volumes of 'Specimens of the Pre-Shaksperean Drama' for the Athenæum Press series (Boston: Ginn & Co.). The selections given in Prof. Manly's volumes seem excellently chosen for the purpose of illustrating in typical specimens the growth of the English drama from its beginnings down to Shakspere. In Part I. is presented, in some fourteen pageants, a sufficiently representative composite cycle of mystery plays, from the Creation to the Judgment Day. The eight plays comprised in Parts II. and III. will come as a novelty to most readers, while their historical interest and importance will be apparent at once. In Part IV., among other Moralities, we are given the hitherto unpublished "Mankind," from the Gurney MS. Volume II. presents eight pieces, from "Roister Doister" to "The Spanish Tragedie," more easily accessible and more commonly known. The texts here given are important, however, as presenting carefully edited literatim reprints of the original editions. The two volumes bear evidence of a very large amount of scholarly labor on the editor's part. A third volume, to contain Notes and Glossary, as well as an Introduction which will present a new treatment of the History of the Pre-Shaksperian Drama, is to follow presently. We shall hope to speak more fully of the work when that volume appears.

—It is necessary to warn the reader whose interest in Donne is directed to his fascinating personality and to his alternately fascinating and repellent poetry, that he will not find his account in the long-expected 'Life of Donne' (London: Methuen & Co.), by Dr. Jessopp. Mr. Gosse has, after all, no share in the work, which is strictly a book written to order for the "Leaders of Religion" series. If this be borne in mind, the author's attitude, which is that of a theologian of the Church of England type (read, for example, the discussion of the condition of English theology in the seventeenth century, pp. 53 ff.), becomes perfectly explicable, and one even ceases to resent the too parochial atmosphere of the book, which, however, it must be said, even within its own limits, in tone of feeling as in literary treatment, is far from being adequate or up to Donne's own height. This is borne home to the reader all the more by the inevitable, if inevitably unfair, comparison which immediately suggests itself with Walton's pious and beautiful 'Life of Donne.' Dr. Jessopp, however, deserves our gratitude for his laborious research, of which the volume bears ample evidence, into the obscurer passages in the life of Donne both in correction of Walton and in addition to other previous knowledge. This gratitude, nevertheless, is somewhat tempered by the author's failure in most cases to indicate the sources of his information, and to make fuller and more adequate use of Donne's interesting and to-day generally inaccessible correspondence. Donne's life, rightly read, would provide all the materials for a subtle and moving psychological novel. In criticism it is a subject made to the hands of a Sainte-Beuve, but no Sainte-Beuve has as yet attempted it.

—In Mr. Arthur H. Norway's 'Highways and Byways in Devon and Cornwall' (Macmillan), a curious story is told of a visit that the author paid to an old Cornishwoman, to whom he happened to mention the approaching marriage of a relative of his named Margaretta. This she at once pronounced to be a lucky name, and begged Mr. Norway most earnestly to let the bridegroom know how to reap the full advantage of the luck. He must, it seems, pluck a daisy on the eve of the marriage, draw it three times through the wedding-ring, and repeat each time, very slowly, the words: "Saint Margaretta or her nobs." Some time afterwards it flashed into the author's mind that this mystic sentence was nothing more than a corrupt form of "Sancta Margaretta, ora pro nobis"—a bit of Middle Age devotion which had held its own in Cornwall until now. "A somewhat similar fragment of antiquity," Mr. Norway goes on to say, "lingers in the neighborhood of Redruth, where the country people, when they see a ghost, say: 'Numny dumny,'" and he adds: "I leave the riddle to be solved by any one who is curious enough to undertake a useful piece of practice in unravelling the corruption of language." The task that Mr. Norway proposes is certainly not a very difficult one. "Numny dumny" is obviously a corruption of "In nomine Domini"—a shortened form of the invocation used in blessing one's self with the sign of the cross.

—M. Émile Berr has transferred his useful "Petite Chronique des Lettres" from the *Figaro* to the *Revue Bleue*, where it occupies the greater part of the space usually devoted to the "Mouvement Littéraire." In the issue of February 19 M. Berr gives the results of an interesting inquiry that he has been making among the publishers as to the effect upon their business of the Dreyfus affair. The publishers are far from happy. The *affaire* has greatly disturbed the book trade and upset their calculations for this spring. Since the middle of January the sale of books at retail at Flammarion's has lowered by at least 25 per cent. Zola's pamphlets have aggravated this dulness: every time that one has appeared, the falling off in the regular trade has increased from a quarter to a third. As to new books, they simply have to wait. "The newspapers take up the whole of the readers' time." At Charpentier's the same story is told. Pamphlets accumulate. M. Fasquelle is absent, occupied every day at the *Cour d'Assises*, and his collaborators groan in inaction. "The first book that we shall publish is precisely a novel of Clémenceau's—his first novel, 'Les Plus Forts'; but who cares for a novel of Clémenceau's when everybody is waiting to hear his plea at the trial?" At Calmann's, M. Émile Berr was told that they have in hand more new books than they know what to do with, and must wait until the present glut is relieved before they go on printing. At Ollendorff's, masses of printed paper are heaping up, and no one dares to launch a volume. "Here is a novel by M. Pierre de Coulevain, 'Noblesse Américaine,' and a volume by M. Edmond Fazy, 'Les Turcs d'Aujourdhui,' which is destined to make some stir. M. Fazy is a professor who lived for a long while at Constantinople and saw the people of whom he writes at close range; his book is severe, very severe, and very amusing. Unhappily, just at this moment, no amusing book holds the public, and nothing counts outside of what concerns *l'affaire.*'" So M. Berr finds all his interlocutors of the same mind: to wit, that the season for the booksellers is nearly spoiled. The winter draws to its end, and this is just the one instant of the year in which the French, who are not generally wide or swift readers, find time to read a little. Later—when settled fine weather comes—sports, the bicycle, and travel will absorb the leisure of everybody, and reading, together with the book trade, will go into retreat for six months.

THIRTY YEARS OF AMERICAN FINANCE.

Thirty Years of American Finance: A Short Financial History of the Government and People of the United States since the Civil War, 1865-1896. By Alexander Dana Noyes. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1898. Pp. 277.

We have other books which cover the same period of time as this and much more. We have none that go into the minutiæ of this particular period in the way that Mr. Noyes does. We have no other that brings together all the commercial facts which are necessary to explain and illuminate the course of our checkered financial history as this does. Nor has Mr. Noyes limited himself altogether to commercial and financial matters. He points out their effects on political parties and events, and the reactions of politics on commerce and finance. It is needless to say that this is an inviting field for a competent writer. Some peculiar gifts are required for its due treatment—a grasp of abstract economics, ability to handle statistics and not to be overthrown by them, practical acquaintance with the business world, and ability to express one's thoughts in language plain to the non-technical reader. That Mr. Noyes possesses these qualifications is known to those who have made his acquaintance in the pages of the *Political Science Quarterly*, where he began his treatment of this subject. The volume before us is not a reprint of those articles, or of any of them, but a fresh examination of the whole matter.

The period under consideration begins where the war ends. The country had an interest-bearing debt of about $2,400,000,000, and a non-interest-bearing debt of $400,000,000, the latter consisting of legal-tender notes. The first important event was Secretary McCulloch's recommendation that the legal-tender notes be retired and cancelled, which was agreed to by the House (December 18, 1865) by a vote of 144 to 6, and confirmed in a modified form by both branches of Congress in April, 1866. The next event of importance was the repeal of this act (February, 1868), and the third was the reissue (September, 1873) of $26,000,000 of the notes that had been actually retired—the last step having been taken by Secretary Richardson without the authority of law. Next came President Grant's veto of the inflation bill, followed, as a desperate political necessity, by the specie-resumption act. The only accessible fact wanting in Mr. Noyes's recital is a letter of the late Hamilton Fish to the late George W. Childs, describing in some detail the struggle in Gen. Grant's Cabinet and in Gen. Grant's own mind over the question whether the bill should be approved or vetoed. According to this letter, which was published soon after Mr. Fish's death, the President was convinced of the badness of the measure while trying to compose a message to Congress to accompany his approval of it. The story current at the time, that he had two messages in his desk, both of his own sole production, one approving and the other disapproving it, was true, but it was true also that his determination to send the latter to Congress was not due to hap-hazard, but to deliberate and reasoned choice.

Necessarily much space is given to Secretary Sherman's public life, and to the steps taken by him in carrying the resumption act into effect. High praise is awarded to him, and none too much, for this executive act, while his weathercock behavior in the Senate and on the stump, both discreditable and dangerous at times, is not overlooked or condoned. Mr. Sherman's letter virtually endorsing the wild and demagogical project of paying the bonds in greenbacks might have been appropriately introduced here. It adds something to the credit of the Hayes Administration, but none to that of Mr. Sherman himself, that the silver agitation, and the Matthews resolution, and the Bland-Allison bill came athwart the execution of the resumption act, but did not prevent or even delay it. Mr. Sherman wrote a letter expressing the opinion that silver dollars would be an aid to resumption. It would have been well to introduce the text of this letter also. President Hayes did not agree with his Secretary. He vetoed the Bland bill.

Resumption having been effected at the appointed time (January 1, 1879), the question whether it could be maintained without further sales of bonds was a vital one. Here came to our aid one of those "streaks of luck" that have so often helped the American republic over a rough bit of road. During two successive years (1880 and 1881), we had enormous wheat crops which happened to correspond with enormous deficiencies abroad. The critical period was bridged for us by importations of $175,000,000 gold, due to commercial causes solely, in those years. Mr. Noyes goes into this subject fully. He deals also with the concurrent expansion of domestic trade, railroad building, land speculation, and eventual collapse in 1884. This is one of the most exciting periods in our financial history, and it deserves the ample space given to it. The harvests both here and abroad during all the subsequent years receive most careful attention at Mr. Noyes's hands. The fact is recognized that they lie at the bottom of everything of a commercial character, and that they have a preponderant influence on finance and a large influence on politics as well.

The passage of the silver-coinage act of 1878 and its consequences are traced with clearness and accuracy, and the reasons why the bad consequences were so long in showing themselves are pointed out. These were of more than one kind. There was a large surplus revenue which could be disposed of only by redeeming outstanding bonds or buying them at a premium. If redeemed at maturity, they were, in part, taken from the national banks which had deposited them as security for their circulation. If bought in the open market, the banks were tempted by the high premium which the Government's purchases caused, to sell them. The 4's of 1907 eventually sold as high as 129. In either case the circulation of the banks must be retired in a corresponding ratio, and thus a vacuum was created for the new silver currency. Moreover, the Treasury Department, during Mr. Cleveland's first term, found means to withdraw from circulation the legal-tender notes of smaller denomination than five dollars, thus making a vacuum for silver certificates. As the silver coinage was at the rate of only $25,000,000 per year or thereabout, these two operations, coupled with a real demand for currency due to the country's growth, served as an antidote to the poison for the time being. But these favorable conditions were coming to an end, as they must have done some time, when suddenly three acts of Congress were passed almost simultaneously which brought things to a climax. These were the McKinley tariff "to reduce revenue," the new pension bill, and the so-called Sherman silver act. The bill to reduce revenue exceeded the expectations of its promoters. They estimated a reduction of about $42,000,000, but the first year after the law went into effect the reduction was $52,000,000 and two years later it was a round $100,000,000. Public expenditures, on the other hand, rose by leaps and bounds, $79,000,000 being added the first year and $35,000,000 more the following year. The Harrison Administration, which had recommended liberality in appropriations, became alarmed, and tried to put on the brakes, but could not do so. Simultaneously with this disaster came another and greater one. The Windom plan of settling the silver question, out of which the Sherman act was evolved, is analyzed

with merciless severity by Mr. Noyes, and President Harrison's naïve concurrence with it does not escape censure. The history of the Sherman act is given in detail, for the first time, we believe. It makes very interesting reading in connection with the tariff bill of the same year. The plight in which Mr. Sherman himself is left floundering deserves a quotation:

"When Secretary Sherman was defending, in 1879 and 1880, his own plan of legal-tender issues, he was reminded of the possibility that a heavy revenue deficit might some time leave the Treasury with nothing but its gold reserve from which to meet expenses. To this he answered that it was 'not to be presumed that Congress will omit to provide ample revenues.' He cited further the objection that the amount of notes 'may be enlarged by Congress, and that this power is liable to abuse,' but his reply was that under resumption of specie payments 'there is no temptation to over issue.' Fourteen years had passed, and Congress now had suddenly enacted one law destined to force a deficit in the Treasury and another to increase without assignable limit the issues of legal-tender notes. That Mr. Sherman himself should have voted for both these measures and constructed one of them, is another notable instance of the irony of history."

The expulsion of gold from the country after the passage of the Sherman act is the next event of importance. That this would be the inevitable sequence of the forced injection of new legal-tender notes into the circulation was foreseen by the commercial world. The needs of business were already satisfied. If more notes were introduced, the operation would be like pouring water into a cup already full. In fact, more gold ran out than notes poured in. Foreigners saw what was coming, and began to withdraw their capital. This movement was accelerated by the Baring panic in England. We exported $70,000,000 of gold during the first six months of 1891. Here occurred again one of the freaks of fortune which have so often masked our financial blunders and postponed our punishment for them. Both Russia and France had disastrous failures of their wheat crops in 1891, while we had the most enormous harvest in our history either before or since. Europe's shortage was 150,000,000 bushels, and our excess over the previous year was 250,000,000 bushels. The result was that we soon began to import gold, and took back $50,000,000 of the $70,000,000 that we had exported earlier in the same year. This streak of luck, however, could not last always. When the wheat account was settled with Europe, the tide began to move against us once more. The outflow of gold during the first six months of 1892 was $41,000,000. The Government's gold reserve fell to $114,000,000 in May of that year. The deficit produced by the legislation of 1890, already referred to, was now running heavily against the Treasury. Everybody could see that we were nearing the danger point. The Government's receipts began to drop, and its gold payments were soon to increase by the presentation of legal-tender notes for redemption. This was not exactly a new phenomenon, but it came upon the business world as new when, on the 30th of June, 1892, $3,200,000 of legal tenders were presented for redemption in gold because it was needed for export and could not be obtained elsewhere. No wonder that the Secretary of the Treasury made a despondent report in December, 1892, and confessed that a heavy deficit was impending. The deficit came, but it was not to plague him or the Harrison Administration. They went out of office just in time to escape the consequences of their own bad financiering, consisting, as we have said, of the bill "to reduce revenue," alias the McKinley tariff, the various bills to increase expenditures, and the Sherman silver bill—three furies, whose wrath was discharged on the head of the Cleveland Administration, through no fault of its own.

We have made this brief synopsis of Mr. Noyes's chapter vii. by way of indicating the thoroughness of his work. No fact of importance is omitted, nor is the sense of proportion lost in the treatment of the events. They lead up to the panic of 1893 and the repeal of the Sherman act at the special session of Congress in 1893. When Mr. Carlisle, the new Secretary of the Treasury, came into office, the gold in the Treasury, over and above the greenback-redemption fund, was less than one million dollars, and the money of all kinds was less than $25,000,000, with a monthly deficit rolling up. Here were all the materials for a panic, which, in Mr. Noyes's opinion, would have come during the previous autumn but for the "streak of luck" arising from the peculiar harvest conditions of 1892 here and in Europe. The trouble in 1893 was, perhaps, hastened a little by Mr. Carlisle's hesitation in reference to his legal power to redeem the Sherman notes of 1890 out of the $100,000,000 greenback-redemption fund. Some little time was lost by hesitating to have recourse to a sale of bonds—the first increase of the Government's interest-bearing debt that had been made since the civil war. The case was one requiring prompt action, yet no blame, we think, can be justly imputed to the Administration for the delay. The validity of the law authorizing the issue of bonds under the circumstances was disputed. Although Secretary Foster had given an order in writing to the Bureau of Engraving and Printing on the 20th of February, 1893, to prepare plates for a bond issue, he managed, by borrowing gold temporarily from the banks, to stave off the evil day till his own term of office had expired. (As the existence of that order has been denied, it would have been well to print it.) The question was a fresh one when the new Secretary came in, and, humanly speaking, it was not to be decided offhand, nor till events forced a decision. When the time came, only one decision was possible: it was bond sale or bankruptcy. The panic of 1893 is carefully analyzed by Mr. Noyes. He also recounts with sufficient detail the struggle over the repeal of the Sherman act, and the subsequent staggering of the business world in its efforts to regain its feet after the shock. The reasons why the recovery was not more rapid receive due attention.

After the repeal of the Sherman act, Congress lapsed into sullen imbecility. Its attitude with regard to the issuing of bonds to avert national bankruptcy and to pay the salaries of its own members was that if the Secretary of the Treasury could find any authority of law to do so, then Congress would not absolutely revoke such authority. It would restrict itself to growls, grimaces, and open threats tending to frighten lenders and to spoil his market. The result was that the first and second loans were virtually extorted from the banks under a species of terrorism. Really the banks had no choice. They were told to take those bonds, or the Government would go down and they would be buried in the ruins. So they took $50,000,000 of 4 per cent. bonds on the 1st of February, 1894, and paid $58,660,000 gold therefor. But some of the subscribers, to prepare themselves to meet their subscriptions, withdrew gold from the Treasury to the amount of $24,000,000 by the presentation of legal-tender notes for redemption. Mr. Noyes condemns this transaction, without sufficient reason, we think:

"The bond subscribers," he says, "had consented to a contract under which they received a full consideration, while they knew the tacit consideration in the Government's behalf to be the adding of $58,000,000 to the actual gold reserve. The use of coin obtained on note redemption was therefore an undoubted subterfuge. Its justification, if it can be justified at all, lies in the fact that the New York banks were reluctant and unwilling subscribers," etc. (p. 215).

Mr. Noyes does not show that the Government was injured by the withdrawal of this gold by the banks, but rather leaves it to be inferred that such was the fact. We cannot assent to that proposition. The Government had a certain amount of demand liabilities outstanding, and it could make no possible difference whether those liabilities were lessened by handing them over to the Government or by providing it with the means of paying them. It may be said (and this is apparently Mr. Noyes's opinion) that if the Government had been able to show $130,000,000 gold in the Treasury after the loan was completed, instead of $106,000,000 gold and $24,000,000 greenbacks, the public imagination would have been more agreeably affected by the glamour of the metal, and the inclination to draw gold would have been lessened. This is a matter of conjecture. What the public will do or think in any given circumstances is always a matter of some doubt, but it has been pretty well established in the treatment of money panics that if the debtor bank or other financial institution keeps cool, maintains a bold front, and invites all creditors to exercise their legal rights, the chances of a run are very much lessened. On the other hand, if it shows signs of alarm, if it puts impediments in the way of its creditors obtaining their dues, if it blacklists them for demanding what they are entitled to, it thereby multiplies the fears of the community and intensifies instead of allaying the run. This is what the Government officials did during the whole series of big and little panics down to the last bond issue. They ought to have proclaimed by the loudest speaking-trumpet at their command that the greenbacks were just as good as gold, instead of which they said, as plainly as possible, that gold was preferable to greenbacks. A financial institution which exists by the forbearance of its creditors is already bankrupt. It may be "tided over," it is most desirable that it should be, especially if it is the Federal Treasury; but the principles which apply to an ordinary bank of issue apply to it, and one of these is that the more it "squeals" when asked to redeem its paper, the more copiously will such paper be presented for redemption. In the worst view that can be taken of the banks that drew this gold, it was a case of what the lawyers call *damnum absque injuria*, an injury to which no legal blame attaches. This Mr. Noyes himself concedes. The question whether it was morally wrong although legally blameless and actually harmless (or at all events not proved to be harmful), we need not discuss.

The bond syndicate operation of February,

1895, receives adequate treatment at Mr. Noyes's hands. That part which relates the undertaking of the syndicate to protect the Treasury as far as possible against gold withdrawals by themselves supplying the purchasers of foreign exchange, is extremely interesting, but we have not left ourselves space to go into details. It is not mentioned, as we think it should have been, that this loan was made under an act of Congress passed in 1862 and still in force, although forgotten—a different one from that under which the two previous loans had been negotiated. The last loan, that of February, 1896, and the events subsequent to it until the present time, form the conclusion of the book. Mr. Noyes has grouped together in moderate compass, with good taste and sound judgment, the facts and deductions which are necessary to an intelligent discussion of the most important problem now before the people—one which will probably continue uppermost for some years to come. The book has a copious index.

"BOBS."

Forty-one Years in India, from Subaltern to Commander-in-Chief. By Field-Marshal Lord Roberts of Kandahar. In two volumes. Longmans, Green & Co. 1897.

"Always barrin' me little frind Bobs Bahadur, I know as much about the Army as most men." So said Private Terence Mulvaney to Mr. Rudyard Kipling before he proceeded to narrate the startling story of "The Taking of Lungtungpen." And he went on to draw a very disrespectful comparison between the present commander-in-chief of the British army and the favorite general of the British soldier in India. The crowds in the London streets during the Diamond Jubilee procession, which cheered Lord Roberts more heartily than any of the other actors in that splendid pageant, simply expressed the sentiments held by the vast majority of the English people as well as of the army. Lord Wolseley has never been a popular hero, and the reason, perhaps, is partly to be found, not in the greater splendor of the military exploits of Lord Roberts, but in the fact that his rival is a little apt to talk too much about himself. Private Mulvaney says as much in the comparison between the two generals just alluded to, and Rudyard Kipling echoes the prevailing sentiment when he puts into the mouth of Tommy Atkins, in one of his "Barrack Room Ballads" entitled "Bobs," the following words of praise:

> "An' 'e does not advertise,
> Do yer, Bobs?"

Were it not for such testimony as this, and for the conspicuous modesty which Lord Roberts, better known to thousands as "Little Bobs," shows in writing of his own exploits, one might be tempted to say that he has advertised himself on a large scale in the two handsome volumes of reminiscences, whose title we give above. His career has been a most interesting one. Arriving in India as a subaltern, just in time to learn his business in the old East India Company's Bengal artillery before the Indian Mutiny broke out, he has seen grow up before his eyes the new India of the Queen-Empress, ruled under different conditions and defended by a different army. The siege of Delhi, Sir Colin Campbell's campaign in Oudh, and the operations which led to the final rout of the insurgent Sepoys, afforded excellent schooling for a young officer, and Frederick Roberts came out of the fiery trial, not only with the Victoria Cross "for valour," but with a reputation for coolness and administrative ability in important staff situations. From that time onwards, Roberts held various staff appointments, and he was generally envied by all the officers of the line as "the luckiest man in India." But no one ever ventured to say that Roberts did not deserve his luck, and it was generally held that if another great military crisis should arise in India, he would be one of the fittest men to cope with it. Not merely was he during these years a diligent, headquarters staff-officer, doing conscientiously the desk-work that falls to such a position, but he was given occasional opportunities to show his merit in the field, as in the Umbeyla campaign of 1863, the Abyssinian expedition of 1867, and the Lushai war of 1871. In 1875, after having officiated more than once in that capacity, Col. Frederick Roberts, though an officer of only twenty years' standing, was appointed Quartermaster-General to the forces in India, an unexampled promotion for so young an officer. In 1878, he was moved to the command of the Punjab Frontier Force, and in that year he had his first chance to show his capacity as a commander of troops. The history of the Afghan war of 1878-80 is largely the history of the exploits of Roberts, and his military fame as a general rests to-day upon his achievements in the Afghan war. In each of its phases he was the most conspicuous actor. He it was who forced the Kurram Pass, and advanced on Kabul after fighting the most successful action of the campaign in 1878; he it was who, after the murder of Sir Louis Cavagnari, led the army of retribution to the Afghan capital, and in the camp of Sherpur withstood the winter attack of the fanatic Afghan hordes, and met them more successfully than Elphinstone had done in 1841; and he it was who, upon the news of the terrible British defeat at Maiwand, marched safely from Kabul to Kandahar, rescued the beleaguered city, and wiped out the disgrace of Maiwand by his utter defeat of the army of Ayub Khan.

The fame of Roberts was safely established by these feats of arms, and his later career in India was one of high command. From 1880 to 1885 he was commander-in-chief in the Madras Presidency, and from 1885 to 1893 commander-in-chief in India, and the gratitude of the British Government was shown by his being created a peer of the realm for his excellent services in the latter most responsible position. It was Lord Roberts who organized the present defensive position upon the northwest frontier of India, a position which, indeed, in the light of recent events, does not seem to be as effective as he hoped; but he will be more gratefully remembered by all who served under him for his persistent efforts to raise the character and to increase the comforts of the British soldier in India. This it is which has made him the idol of the English soldiers, even more than the recollection of his campaigns in Afghanistan.

The sketch just given of the salient points in the career of Lord Roberts indicates the nature of his reminiscences. Naturally the largest part of the first volume is taken up with a record of the events of the Indian Mutiny; and of the second volume, by an account of the Afghan War. It may be said at once that the description of the Mutiny is disappointing, for Lord Roberts, instead of confining himself to his personal reminiscences, has attempted, mainly from the well-known 'Chaplain's Narrative' of Mr. Rotton, to rewrite the story of the siege and capture of Delhi. He has not done this particularly well, for he does not possess the training of an historian, and shows himself unable in places to deal with the opposing evidence that confronts him. His account of the siege, indeed, is far inferior to that given by Colonel Malleson in his 'History of the Indian Mutiny,' which itself now needs to be revised in many particulars from the volume of documents edited in 1893 by Mr. G. W. Forrest and published by the Government of India. Far better and more valuable, as a primary authority upon the subject, is the account Lord Roberts has given of his Afghan campaigns. The anxieties of the commander-in-chief during the terrible weeks of siege in the Sherpur cantonments, and during the daring march from Kabul to Kandahar, are vividly depicted, and Lord Roberts certainly does not deserve the censure so justly meted out to the Duke of Wellington of not fully recognizing the services of his subordinates. It might have been wished, indeed, that he would have dealt a little more at length with his disagreement with General Dunham Massy, but it is, perhaps, too much to expect that such a personal question as this should be definitively settled during the lifetime of the principal actors. It may be worth while noting, however, that there are distinguished soldiers who warmly support General Massy's cause and think that he was hardly dealt with—a view which, of course, does not find expression in Lord Roberts's remarks upon the subject. A few words, too, on the asserted misconduct of certain troops on the occasion of the death of Lieutenant Montanaro would not have been out of place, the more especially since Mr. Kipling has set the example of abandoning the practice of ignoring instances of British military misconduct, both in prose (as in the story of "The Drums of the Fore and Aft") and in verse (in "That Day").

No one can rise from a perusal of these interesting volumes without a fuller knowledge of the new India of the Queen-Empress and of one of its chief creators. Singularly prophetic—and at the same time cleverly inclusive of a hint at one of the weak spots in the character of the general, and of an allusion to his well-known dislike of cats, which, as Sir Charles Macgregor relates, nearly spoilt the dignity of a ceremonious interview between General Roberts and the Ameer Abdur Rahman—are the following lines from Mr. Kipling's parody of Browning, entitled "One Viceroy Resigns." Lord Dufferin is made to say to Lord Lansdowne in 1888:

> "Look to one—
> I work with him—the smallest of them all,
> White-haired, red-faced, who sat the plunging horse
> Out in the garden. He's your right-hand man,
> And dreams of tilting W-ls-y from the throne;
> But while he dreams gives work we cannot buy;
> He has his Reputation—wants the Lords
> By way of Frontier Roads. Meantime, I think,
> He values very much the hand that falls
> Upon his shoulder at the Council table—
> Hates cats and knows his business: which is yours."

A History of French Literature. By Edward Dowden. D. Appleton & Co. 1897.

In this volume of the series entitled "Literatures of the World," Prof. Dowden seeks

to present a complete critical survey of his subject from the Middle Ages to the end of the Romantic period; and if in some cases the facts and opinions put forward appear to have received rather summary treatment, the cause lies less in the dispatch of Prof. Dowden's method than in the compression forced on the material by the limits of a popular manual. Of this the most obvious signs are in such pages as 258, 259, 305, etc., which are little more than catalogues slightly expanded with descriptive phrases. Although important matter rarely suffers, one cannot but notice an occasional insufficiency in the judgments expressed. Why, for instance, is Diderot characterized as "the least French of eighteenth-century French authors" (p. 307) without adequate explanation of the grounds of the proposition? Again, 'Le Dernier Jour d'un Condamné' is briefly styled "a prose study in the pathology of passion." To most readers Hugo's pamphlet gives the impression of an *ad-captandum* plea against capital punishment. Also, the innuendo in the following sentence might well have been spared: "When the Prussian assault was intended to the city, when Regnault gave away his life as a soldier, Gautier in the muses' bower sat pondering his epithets and filing his phrases." "Le pauvre Théo" in 1871 was all but sixty years of age, as well as broken in health; and, if we may trust Maxime Du Camp's biography, "La guerre, la révolution du 4 Septembre, l'investissement de Paris, la Commune l'assommèrent. Il mit deux ans à en mourir, mais il en mourut."

Prof. Dowden's literary competence is so well known that we need hardly insist on the generous breadth and accuracy with which he judges all the great movements and famous names of French literature. Naturally, as he himself acknowledges, his indebtedness to other critics is large; but in all cases calling for personal examination of text or authority, the reader feels that every deliverance of the critic has been fully verified. No better summary of the seventeenth century, with its admirable running commentary on "Literary Freedom and Literary Order," could be put into a student's hands. As might have been expected, Prof. Dowden takes the traditional English view of the "oratorical" character of much of the poetry produced in "le grand siècle." The discussion is so trite, and further so hopeless, that one shrinks from again reminding English readers that what strikes them as rhetorical in French poetry often produces no such effect on those for whom French is a mother-tongue. Of equal merit and interest are the examinations of the respective philosophical positions of Montaigne, Descartes, and Pascal, although the critic seems to have studiously avoided applying the term "mystic" to the religious belief of the last named. As regards other great French writers it is curious to observe how rigorously the defects of Voltaire's character are once again shown up, in contrast with the comparative leniency meted out to the many failings and shortcomings of Rousseau.

But where Prof. Dowden seems most thoroughly at home on congenial ground is in the discussion of the Romantic movement of 1830. Each division of this is an admirably fair summary of the work accomplished by a great poetical leader of the time, and an estimate of what still endures for posterity. We should, however, have liked to find in a succeeding passage a little more emphatic insistence on the colossal proportions of Balzac's achievement, as well as on the influence which his startlingly vivid realism has exercised on the strictly *Parisian* fiction of the later school.

Being warned in the preface that the dates in this book may at times show a discrepancy in comparison with those given in other authorities, we need not dwell on the few unimportant disagreements we may have noted; but Prof. Dowden will surely not deem it hypercriticism if we submit that "M. Barine," whom he quotes in connection with Bernardin de St. Pierre (p. 327), is quite as frequently spoken of in France as "*Madame* Arvède Barine"—the well-known pseudonym of a "woman" of letters. Perhaps the only omission of any consequence among writers of lesser importance is that of Barbey d'Aurévilly. It is truly gratifying to think that students of French literature can now at last study that vast field under the guidance of an English authority, the general soundness of whose opinions is rendered doubly attractive by the uniform excellence of the style in which they are presented.

Modern Mythology. By Andrew Lang. Longmans. 1897.

The Evolution of the Idea of God. By Grant Allen. Henry Holt & Co. 1897.

Of these two books, Mr. Andrew Lang's is the important one. In a desultory manner, for which he convincingly apologizes, Mr. Lang has here performed a considerable service. "Finally" is a word not to be rashly used, least of all in the storm-swept regions of modern mythology; and yet there is a note of finality attaching to Mr. Lang's courteous and restrained arguments directed against Prof. Max Müller's notorious view—that mythology is a "disease of language"—and the theory of "universal human degradation" implied in the acceptance of that *mot d'ordre.*

"We hold," says Mr. Lang, speaking as an acknowledged leader of the "anthropological" school, "that man thought all things animated and expressed his belief in gender-terminations. Mr. Max Müller holds that because man used gender-terminations, therefore he thought all things animated, and so became mythopœic."

Though it would be interesting to follow Mr. Lang in detail through the fourteen chapters of his guerilla war, the task is too desultory for a review. It is enough here to mark the singularly chastened mood which animates him throughout. "It is with no enthusiasm," he writes, "that I take the opportunity of Mr. Max Müller's reply to me 'by name,'" in 'Contributions to the Science of Mythology.' Mr. Lang, in this, his last encounter with his once too formidable antagonist, is sobered by the knowledge that his victory is fairly won, and shows himself a dangerous foe. Everywhere he pays his court to the "Right Hon." Professor's "vast erudition" and "enviable style," and exhibits a rare gift for appreciating, and appropriating to his own opposing argument, the many flashes of real insight by which, until lately, Mr. Müller's now ruinous fabric of theory has been so ingeniously propped. Furthermore, Mr. Lang is most candid in admitting the errors and indiscretions of his own school. His sixth chapter is a development of a self-accusing admission: "I well know that I myself am apt to press a theory of totems too far." His fourth makes good, among other things, the admission that "a tendency to seek for exclusively vegetable origins of gods is to be observed in some of the most recent speculations." Here he had Mr. Frazer, and doubtless also Mr. Farnell, in mind. All scholars will do well to heed his recommendation of great reserve in their "hypotheses of origins."

Mr. Lang's criticism, also offered in his Introduction, "of the prevalent anthropological theory of the ghost-origin of religion," which might, he urges, "be advanced with caution . . . till we know a little more about ghosts, and a great deal more about psychology," applies prophetically to Mr. Grant Allen's 'Evolution of the Idea of God,' a book effectually discredited by the absence of specific references and by Mr. Lang—shortly after the publication of 'Modern Mythology'—in the *Contemporary Review* of December, 1897. Mr. Allen here comes very near to being one of those "sweet anthropological enthusiasts" whose "excesses," according to Mr. Lang, have given so many opportunities to Mr. Müller's attack upon the new school. Unfortunately, Mr. Allen, though excessive, is not sweet, and in his own opinion he should not be classed offhand as of the anthropologists. He is dogmatic and irresponsible, in both his manner and his matter. He possesses the "key to all mysteries," a very large key of modern material, but antiquated pattern; so he does not resist temptation to belabor nervous inquirers with it. Meanwhile, he forgets to open the door.

Christian Missions and Social Progress. Vol. I. By Rev. James S. Dennis, D.D. Fleming H. Revell Co.

In this work we have a sincere attempt, made by a scholar, a man of culture, and an observer during many years of life in a Mohammedan country, to treat the subject of missions from the view-point of science. The dogmatic or merely propagandist argument is scarcely mentioned, but the sociological facts are canvassed with great breadth and thoroughness. The excellent bibliographies show the scope of the author's inquiries and observations, and his ability to select from them and assimilate what is to the purpose is manifest. The bulk of this first volume is devoted to the social evils of the non-Christian world. If there be any "conflict" between "science" and either "religion" or "dogmatic theology," it is not visible to the author. Organized Christianity is here shown to be the relentless enemy of dirt, drunkenness, idleness, gambling, slavery, cannibalism, witchcraft, and to be the reformer of evils, the bringer in of a better time, and the promoter of nobler living for the individual and of prosperity to the nation. With both acuteness and learning, and a marvellous wealth of information digested from whole libraries, Dr. Dennis pictures these social evils with a clearness and fascination that must delight the earnest student of reality, whatever may be his religious opinions.

These chapters have been delivered as lectures in several of the schools in which young men receive the theological part of their training as missionaries. The matter has, however, been wholly recast, and reference to the points made is easy because of the excellent analytical table of contents. In

his opening chapter on the sociological scope of Christian missions, the author claims for sociology that it is an inclusive and comprehensive science, and that in its constructive aspects it is predominantly ethical. In his eyes Christianity is a militant social force, because a majestic power of social transformation is inherent in Christ's teachings. Yet he would not supplant the evangelical spirit and aim of missions, but rather broaden and deepen their power by the sociological method.

In the second lecture we have a vivid picture of the social evils of the various civilizations of the world. The existence of serious defects in Christendom is not denied, nor is the good in the ethnic religions ignored; but civilization as a whole, whether Christian or non-Christian, is tested by its active antagonism to moral evils. So far as it is possible, the author would pass judgment in the case of each nation on ethical principles only. Such evils as self-torture, the degradation of women, the traffic in human flesh, witchcraft, massacre, lack of business confidence, the scandalous lives of religious leaders—to select but one evil out of each group treated—show that as long as such immoralities are nourished by a system of religion, that religion must be supplanted by something better that is antagonistic to these evils. The enlightened sense of mankind is against them and in favor of their abolition.

In lecture iii. the author considers ineffectual remedies and the causes of their failure. He is unable to discover any sure guarantee of social reform in education, material civilization, state legislation, patriotism, or the social power of ethnic religion, when these are employed singly. The authorities which he cites in confirmation of his views are formidable. To him Christianity is the social hope of the nations. Having a different estimate of man, it introduces new moral forces. Among the first and greatest of civilizing agencies are Christian missions. In a final chapter, Dr. Dennis considers the objections of those who distrust historic Christianity as a social power. In his mind there has never yet been an adequate expression of the truth inherent in the Christian faith. He believes that universal mastery is the final heritage of Christ and his religion.

Several score of illustrations reproduced from photographs, and exhibiting phases of the various non-Christian religions and the educational and philanthropic work of Christian missionaries in many parts of the world, form a pleasing commentary upon Dr. Dennis's text. The fairness and thoroughness of the author, together with his ability and originality of treatment, will win for his book attention from many who have only vague or hostile notions about a work that increasingly claims the attention of the nations which are in the forefront of civilization.

Emerson, and Other Essays. By John Jay Chapman. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1898.

The personal equation is evident throughout Mr. Chapman's work. He is a pronounced individualist, and is possessed by a spirit of hatred and contempt for the tyranny of our democratic masses, their suppression of all wholesome variations from the conventional type; and his attraction to Emerson, Whitman, and Browning is determined by their sympathy with his revolt. They are his stalking-horses from behind which he shoots his invectives at the pachydermatous creatures whom he particularly abominates, and some of them are sharp enough to pierce the thickest hide. The essay upon Stevenson, which concludes the book, has the same inspiration as its principal companions, but the subject illustrates Mr. Chapman's central theme by way of opposition and contrast; Stevenson being shaken as a bundle of imitations, both in the style and in the substance of his various books. But Mr. Chapman's prophetic zeal does not prevent his criticism from being remarkably interesting and often valuable. It is certainly fresher than it would have seemed possible to make it where so much had been already written. It is one of his ideas that the first thing necessary is to attract a man's attention, and if you can do this only by knocking him down, why, then, knock him down; and it must be confessed that there is here much knocking down, if not of people, of their conventional opinions. At times this business seems overdone, and it is necessary frequently to remind ourselves that it is a means to an ulterior end, deliberately chosen.

The essays are of unequal value and uneven workmanship; the "Emerson," which is much longer than any others, being in every respect the most important. It takes for its text Emerson's most sweeping indictment of the masses, and comes round to this at the end: "If a soul be taken and crushed by democracy till it utter a cry, that cry will be Emerson." But between the beginning and the end there is much that is only loosely related to the main contention, and may win a cordial assent where that fails to do so. There is much that is interesting concerning the methods of Emerson's intellectual activity and the forms into which it ran. His coherency is found to have been greatest in his earliest writings. "They were written for a purpose and were perhaps struck off all at once." His biographer, Mr. Cabot, has told us that this was the case with the Divinity School address, but that address was represented as unique in this respect. Emerson was not a writer, we are told, but a speaker, and Lowell's judgment is repeated—that his manner of speaking, with its hesitations and apparent naturalness, was deliberate art. Lowell is quoted at length, but not even Lowell has described the manner of Emerson's speaking so well as Alcott in a most memorable passage. 'English Traits' is denominated by Mr. Chapman as "the ruddiest book he ever wrote." It is a capital illustration of Emerson's patriotism, which manifested itself in an exclusive interest in those English qualities which America does not possess. Like Dr. Arnold, his devotion to an institution was in proportion to his desire to improve it. The weakness of Emerson's system of æsthetics is much insisted on, but not too much. His new commandment was, "Thou shalt not preach"; but he admired "the antique sculpture" because it was "as ethical as Marcus Aurelius." On the other hand, Mr. Chapman's judgment of Emerson as having no conception of growth, of evolution, is not well made up. His poetic anticipation of Spencer and Darwin was, in fact, remarkable. Tyndall could go to him for such mottoes as that which Emerson prefixed to 'Nature,' and we read in "The Problem":

"These temples grew as grows the grass."

When Mr. Chapman comes to speak of Emerson's relation to the abolitionists, we are reminded that our essayist's name unites two names of great distinction in the abolition movement, namely, those of the Jays, William and John, and Maria Weston Chapman, Garrison's inspiring friend; and this conjunction of names betrays his lineage. Appreciative of the abolitionists, he does not disguise Emerson's distrust of them in the earlier stages of the agitation. "It was the defection of Daniel Webster that completed the conversion of Emerson, and turned him from an adherent into a propagandist of abolition." But he always wore his abolitionism with an individual difference from the regular stripe, and his formal identification with the movement was never quite complete. It is certainly a gross exaggeration to say that Emerson was "in no way responsible" for the Transcendental movement; and in the minimizing of its practical outcome, Parker, and Higginson, and Johnson, and Weiss, and Samuel Longfellow, and James Freeman Clarke, and many others of their kind seem to be entirely forgotten. The narrowness of Emerson's sensuous range is more aptly criticised, and especially the frigidity of his doctrine of love and marriage: "There is in Emerson's theory of the relation between the senses neither good sense, nor manly feeling, nor sound psychology." But, whatever the deductions, Mr. Chapman's general review of Emerson abounds in cordial admiration for the social courage he exhibits and inspires.

Of Whitman it is said that, "as for his real merits and his true mission, too much can hardly be said in his favor"; but his seamy side is exposed in a manner that will be very shocking to his worshippers. In all that concerns human relations, he is set down as utterly unreal, and, while no one talked so much about America, no one knew it less. "A Study of Romeo" sounds an unusual note, and one that deserves attention. Even here Mr. Chapman is still harping on "our formal manners, our bloodless complexions, our perpetual decorum and self-suppression." The translations of Michael Angelo's sonnets do not impress us as better than Symonds's upon the whole, though doubtless they reproduce more closely the ruggedness of the originals. The translation of the fourth Canto of Dante's "Inferno" is a more notable achievement. It is in *terza rima*, and yet, with one glaring exception, very literal, contrary to the prevailing notion that Dante's own rhyme-system cannot be successfully reproduced in English verse. The criticism of Browning is sympathetic, on the ground that Browning finds himself everywhere at war with our conventional morality. As for Stevenson, it is well that his readers generally cannot discover those perpetual reminiscences of plot and style which deduct so much from Mr. Chapman's enjoyment of his work.

Cent Ans d'Histoire Intérieure, 1789-1895. Par André Lebon. Paris: Armand, Colin & Cie. 1898.

Modern France, 1789-1895. By André Lebon. [The Story of the Nations.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1898.

In estimating the volume on 'Modern France,' which appears in the "Story of the Nations" series, we have the advantage of being able to follow M. Lebon's own text side by side with the translation. If we

omit three chapters on literature and the arts, the substance of the book as published in Paris is identical with that of the London and New York version. Once or twice a sentence seems to have been added or subtracted, but we have ample material for judging whether, on the whole, M. Lebon has been fitly interpreted to his English readers. We regret to say that while most of the text has been reproduced in comprehensible form, solecisms, uncouth turns of phrase, and actual errors abound. What sort of an impression is produced by the term "Committee of Public Salvation," those only can tell who have in the course of their reading encountered its Gallic equivalent, "le Comité de Salut Public." This remarkable title of a famous board is even dignified by a headline to face a full-page portrait of Robespierre. The river Main is given "Mein," although the English tongue has in this case kept the original German form instead of following French usage. "Bonaparte chercha à se donner de l'air en terre ferme" becomes "Bonaparte had perforce to seek an issue in *terra firma*." M. Lebon says that Guizot's vacillation "le laissait désarmé devant les sollicitations les plus suspectes." His translator renders this, "left him unable to refuse the most ambiguous solicitations." Besides the use of questionable language, we have noticed two cases where dates given correctly in the original have been altered, either by inadvertence of by design; it is hard to tell which. In a word, though we have seen much worse translations than the present one, we find nothing in it to commend.

Coming to the substance, we may observe that the French title, 'Cent Ans d'Histoire Intérieure,' gives a more precise definition of contents than 'Modern France.' M. Lebon fastens his attention so closely on domestic affairs that he permits the foreign relations of his country to remain matter for conjecture. Thus, when describing the part of Napoleon III. in Italian liberation, he does not once mention the name of Cavour. His notice of the Vienna Congress would be very inadequate in a book which professed to cover the whole ground; and if we go back to 1809 it is clear that the battle of Essling, viewed from the standpoint of general European politics, was more than "a fruitless massacre." We could multiply illustrations to show that M. Lebon is tethered to internal politics. While forced every now and then to treat of campaigns, he returns from them at his earliest convenience to Paris and her experiments in constitution building.

The effect produced by a short historical sketch is seldom determined by the bulk of fact which it contains. This is in any case so small, and so much the common property of all writers, that method, ideas, and style become the main considerations. As we are chiefly concerned with M. Lebon's book in its English form, we shall confine our few remarks to his method and general ideas. With respect to the first of these matters it may be said that he claims the merit of extreme simplicity. He limits himself to what has actually happened, and in seeking an explanation pays regard to patent rather than to obscure reasons. To put the matter in another way, he shuns the strategy of parties and follows the main travelled road of political issues. Translated into terms of modern France, this means that he leaves the process of agitation aside and concentrates on revolutions. In noting the fall of one governmental type after another, he writes its epitaph: "Where a political system has failed, I have tried to show its obvious defects and not its hidden virtues."

An historical student who has also a seat in the Chamber of Deputies is sure to hold and profess fixed views. But M. Lebon's English readers are not his constituents, and all that one gathers of his own convictions is that they are moderately republican. Since the Revolution, the love of liberty has swept France more than once, and at other times the love of glory has proved a magic spell. M. Lebon, though doubtless taking as great an interest in the violent oscillations of his native land as a foreigner might, cannot be expected to accentuate them in vivid colors. He longs for stability, and concludes his preface with the hope that his pages may give an object-lesson of its advantages. "It is not by flying from one excess to another that a great people can achieve freedom and occupy a becoming place in the world." M. Lebon, then, keeps the contest between democracy and the craving for national greatness out of sight, and takes his leading contrast from the relations between civil equality and public liberty. After all that the Revolution and Empire achieved in shaping a code, the most delicate part of the business remained to be wrought. M. Lebon traces the downfall of the bourgeoisie to its constant selfishness under the restored Bourbons and the July monarchy. He impartially condemns the strictly guarded franchise of Louis Philippe and the fatuous use to which the proletariat turned its votes in 1848. The Second Empire, in spite of its ruin and shame, did not destroy equality; and, liberty having been restored by the Third Republic, France is still striving to find a *modus vivendi* for both. Such, stripped of their illustrations, are the salient points which run through this interesting epitome of French history since 1789. To indicate a single unusual feature of the book, we may remark that it handles constitutional subjects with greater care and knowledge than one expects to meet with in a general survey.

We have already criticised certain slips of the anonymous translator. We shall conclude by finding a little fault with M. Lebon himself. Our items against him, however, are not numerous, and some of them might be excused on the ground that limits of space were rigidly fixed by the publishers. His reference to the League of Pilnitz is so brief and bald that it conveys an incorrect idea of what took place. The single statement made, namely, that Leopold and Frederick William there "proclaimed their intention of intervening to restore Louis XVI. to his former rights," is open to stricture. Likewise the scope and methods of the September massacres are badly indicated. The episode is not called by any name, and the sole allusion to it runs in this wise: "On the arrival of the news that Longwy and Verdun were occupied, the populace stormed the prisons and murdered nearly a thousand aristocrats and priests, thus inaugurating the Terror." A few pages further on we are told that the execution of Louis XVI. "ushered in the sanguinary Reign of Terror." Dumouriez's attempt to lead his troops on Paris after the battle of Neerwinden is unnoticed, and the account of Louis Philippe's overthrow is so huddled that it becomes a trap for the unwary. The inclusion of Herbert Spencer among English Positivists shows that M. Lebon has missed his controversy with Frederick Harrison. This is our budget of complaints—a short one, considering that the author of a popular treatise has to steer his hazardous course between the Scylla of diffuseness and the Charybdis of obscurity.

The Life and Writings of James Clarence Mangan. By D. J. O'Donoghue. Edinburgh: Patrick Geddes & Co. Pp. xxiv, 250. Portrait and illustrations.

Mr. O'Donoghue has bestowed care and labor upon this book, yet we doubt whether he has brightened the character of Mangan, or is likely to increase the circle of his admirers. He has not materially added to our stock of information concerning the poet. He has brought together a considerable quantity of material, but has not done enough in the way of selection and arrangement. Mangan was undoubtedly the most original of Irish-born poets. His reputation out of Ireland will never rest upon more than a few pieces; and in Ireland he is not likely ever to be so fully appreciated as by those who passed through the feelings and the stress of the Young Ireland movement. Those who knew him best had, after his decease, "no heart to write" his "personal history." They felt with regard to him the "most certain truth that" he "who will not save himself, all mankind banded together cannot save." "There is hardly anything more profoundly affecting in English literature," writes Alfred M. Williams in his admirable 'Poets and Poetry of Ireland,' "than such a poem as 'The Nameless One' read with a knowledge of the life of which it was a confession." By his "Dark Rosaleen" and his "O Woman of the Piercing Wail" he is likely to be appreciated in Ireland for generations to come. Mr. O'Donoghue has resuscitated a mass of information and anecdote concerning literary life in Dublin through the first half of the century. If London has since those days absorbed too much provincial talent, it has given back much in broadened interests and higher standards.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, Sarah L., and Gilbert, Charles B. A Reader for Sixth Grades. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co.
Benson, E. F. The Vintage: A Romance of the Greek War of Independence. Harpers. $1.25.
Bierce, Ambrose. In the Midst of Life: Tales of Soldiers and Civilians. Putnams. $1.25.
Bill, E. L. The Sword of the Pyramids. F. T. Neely. 50c.
Bonnefon, Paul. Montaigne et ses Amis. 2 vols. New ed. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Brough, William. Open Mints and Free Banking. Putnams. $1.25.
Busey, Dr. S. C. Pictures of the City of Washington in the Past. Washington: Wm. Ballantyne & Sons; New York: Baker & Taylor. $2.
Chapin, Anna A. Wonder Tales from Wagner. Harpers. $1.25.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 31, 1898.

The Week.

The situation at Washington has not grown worse in consequence of the official report on the *Maine* disaster. Instead of a violent outburst of wrath following the conclusions of the court of inquiry, there has been a comparative calm. The report itself is marked by calmness of tone, and is not conclusive as to the causes of the disaster, and does not purport to be so. It expresses the opinion that the destruction of the *Maine* was due to an external explosion, which caused an internal explosion of two magazines. The operations of the divers revealed nothing from which an opinion could be certainly formed in reference to the condition of the wreck. The condition of the ship's bottom has not been ascertained, and no evidence has been found to fix responsibility for the accident. Consequently, the public temper is not as deeply stirred by that event as it would otherwise have been.

The report that the Bank of Spain has agreed to find $40,000,000 more for the Government, if not true, ought to be. Common gratitude, to say nothing of the instinct of self-preservation and patriotism, should impel the Bank to such a course. According to its report for the year 1897, its business would have shown a loss had it not been for "the profits drawn from the advances to the Treasury and from the interest of the state and Treasury stock held by the Bank." The exact amount of these profits is set down in the report as $2,780,000 from discounts of Treasury paper, $6,125,000 from interest on Government securities held by it, and $290,000 in commissions. Independent financiers and some of the newspapers of Spain have severely criticised the gradual absorption of Government finance by the Bank.

The authoritative and instructive article in the last number of *Harper's Weekly* on "The Public Finance of Spain, 1895-1898," is in no respect more valuable than in showing the actual amount of indebtedness incurred by Spain on Cuban account. Upwards of $300,000,000 of Cuban bonds have been issued since the outbreak of the revolution in 1895. Reckoning the Cuban debt as it stood before the war at $150,000,000, we get a total of $450,000,000 for which Spain is liable on account of Cuba. These are figures which must not be forgotten in all questions about buying Cuba from Spain, or about suggesting to her to retire from the island with an indemnity of $100,000,000. They also show the great money stake Spain has, if desperate, in a war meaning to her the loss of Cuba. With Cuba would go the Cuban debt of $450,000,000 or more, and this would be a wonderful help in balancing the books.

Any hope which the Spanish may have cherished of active European support, in case of a war with the United States, must have been dispelled by the speech of M. Hanotaux in the French Chamber on Saturday. France is the nation which was most likely to come to the aid of Spain; but it is clear now, as it really has been all along to the discerning, that France will do nothing beyond expressing good wishes and sympathy. Some days ago the *Temps* expressed this opinion, positively though reluctantly, including not only France, but Austria also in its view. Dynastic reasons have been thought by some as likely to lead Francis Joseph to offer material aid to Spain, but this is not to be looked for. Austria is in no need of searching for political problems abroad. No European Power, in fact, would do anything to disturb peaceful relations with the United States, except under the strongest provocation. If our interference in Cuba is put on such imperative humane and moral grounds as now seem certain to be urged, and it that interference leads to war, Spain will be left to stand absolutely alone in the civilized world.

It is the expected which always happens in elections in Spain, and the result of the choice on Sunday of new Deputies in the Cortes was according to programme. The dispatches say that Sagasta will have 300 Deputies—a figure which, curiously enough, was the precise one fixed upon and announced some weeks ago. The final returns may show a slight change from this number, either way, but the smooth working of the Spanish political machine is in any case sufficiently displayed again. Doubtless the desire of the Spanish people to uphold their Government at this critical time enabled Sagasta to get his great majority more easily. The best-informed correspondents in Madrid represent the nation as, in fact, absolutely united in the determination to assert what it believes to be its rights and dignity, at all hazards. Spain, of course, has its own yellow journals and Furiosos, who indulge in wild and foolish talk; but her serious newspapers and responsible public men have no illusions on the subject of a war with the United States. Yet they are willing to face its inevitable disasters if national pride requires it. With the best men of both countries earnestly hoping that war may be avoided, it would seem that diplomacy should find some way of avoiding it; though fate and the chapter of accidents often mock the hopes and plans of statesmen.

Chairman Dingley is not saying anything about war, but is giving his mind to the great concomitant of war—taxes. That new ones must be laid to cover the war expenditures already authorized is clear. In addition to the $50,000,000 voted out of the borrowed money in the Treasury, a $40,000,000 naval bill has passed the House, and other military appropriations on a similar scale are on its heels. All this means deficit upon deficit—especially with revenue wilting under the glare of war rumors—and Mr. Dingley is said to admit that new forms of taxation must speedily be devised. He can retreat gracefully enough, asserting that his original estimates remain as beautiful as ever, but that the war preparations have changed all that. As long as it was only an ordinary deficit, he could let the legions thunder by and plunge in thought again; but a deficit arising from extraordinary causes justifies extraordinary taxes to cover it, and these cannot be laid before Congress too soon. Equally timely is it that the Secretary of the Interior should have to ask Congress for an extra appropriation of over $8,000,000 to meet a deficiency for the current fiscal year in the pension account growing out of our last war. The $8,000,000 now asked for the twelve months ending next June is in addition to the nearly $140,000,000 a year called for by the roll as it stood last June. Moreover, the Commissioner of Pensions is of the opinion that the outlay on this account must continue to increase for some time to come, although it is thirty-three years this spring since the close of the civil war. The astonishing fact is certified to officially that the number of pensioners has almost doubled since 1890, at which time a quarter of a century had elapsed since the end of the contest. In that year the total was 537,944, while it is now about 996,000; and the increase in the amount required to pay them has been proportionately great.

There is an old French proverb which says that "a gentleman is always a gentleman, especially in need or in danger." We would paraphrase this by saying that a patriot is always a patriot, in peace as well as in war. This is doubly true of a democracy, in which tendencies derive such force from numbers, and in which both morality and religion have so small a chance if the multitude are not kept on the true road by all the arts and influences of persuasion. We are reminded of this by a correspondence between Mr. Cleveland and the pro-

prietor of a yellow journal which sought to use his name in order to procure more credence for its lies and perversions. No better example of patriotism could be offered than Mr. Cleveland's attitude. He would not allow his sorrow for the *Maine* disaster, any more than his piety or his rhetoric, to be used to promote a debauching enterprise. He had not to wait for the sound of hostile guns to proclaim that he loved America, simply because he loved truth and decency and civilization all the time. He is as good a citizen at Princeton as he was at Washington.

The passage of the new primary bill by a virtually unanimous vote in both houses of the New York Legislature is a proceeding which is calculated to make reformers rub their eyes and ask what it means. Why should the politicians of both machines favor a measure which was designed to diminish if not destroy their power? We give it up. Probably they feel confident of their ability to "beat" it in operation, and thus be in a position to get all the "kickers" back into the party fold, under conditions which will make it difficult for them to complain of unfair treatment. Of one thing we may feel assured, and that is that the new system will give us a final test of the primary system. If, under this law, voters will not take part in the primaries, then it will be useless to advocate the continuance of this method of nomination in any form. If this plan fails, we must look to other methods for getting candidates into the field.

The doings of the new Tammany Commissioners of Accounts should attract the serious attention of the Civil-Service Reform Association. These Commissioners, who exist solely for the purpose of investigating the methods of municipal departments in order that the Mayor may be convinced of their efficiency and integrity, have been openly violating the civil-service law by abolishing positions in their own department in order to get rid of their incumbents, immediately recreating the same positions and putting new men in their places. They have also, in at least one instance, abolished one office and created a new one in its stead in order to raise the salary of the Tammany incumbent, and they have also increased salaries in ten other instances. If this kind of thing can go on under the civil-service law, then it is a useless statute and should be repealed. The spectacle of officials, whose duty it is to see that other officials obey the law, openly violating it themselves, is peculiarly Tammanyish. No rebuke is heard from the Mayor, although the debt limit, which alarms him so that he cannot allow a public library to be built, is threatened by the increased expenditure which the course of the Commissioners entails.

The indictment of nine officials of the last Brooklyn city government for conspiring to defraud the city is the most serious blow which has yet fallen upon the Platt form of government. Mr. Willis, the former Commissioner of City Works, and Mr. Phillips, formerly chairman of the Republican organization in Brooklyn, were the chief agents of Platt in "downing" Jacob Worth and thus preventing the support of Seth Low for Mayor by the regular Republican organization of Brooklyn. They did such valiant service in helping Platt turn the new city of New York over to Tammany, that Croker had Mayor Van Wyck appoint Phillips a Police Commissioner, and he holds that position today. They are now indicted on charges of extravagant and illegal use of the public money in the execution of public work in the city. It is said that Gen. Tracy will appear as counsel for them, and this would be an eminently fit thing for him to do. These men were his most devoted supporters in Brooklyn during the late campaign, and helped more than any one else to delude enough persons into voting for him to make certain Mr. Low's defeat and Tammany's triumph. Gen. Tracy, as chief member of the Platt family law firm, should defend them without a fee, for they are in trouble because of their zeal in the Platt cause. Tammany's conduct in the matter is most ungrateful. The indictments are due to inquiries set in motion by the Comptroller, and were started because of the Tammany desire to show that the debt limit was being reached. After they had been started, it became impossible to check them, and it is possible that the present outcome was not foreseen by the Comptroller. Still, the indictment of so many good Platt men through Tammany agency, after the great service rendered by them to Croker last year, is one of the basest acts of ingratitude known to the history of political "deals."

The People's Bank of Philadelphia, which has just failed after its defaulting cashier had committed suicide, was a political institution, which was organized to make money out of the control over the State Treasury that was exercised by its managers. It was the institution to which Mr. Wanamaker referred, in his recent arraignment of the Quay ring, when he said that "a Philadelphia bank capitalized at $150,000, a private institution whose president is Quay's old lieutenant, has continuously carried a deposit from the State Treasury ranging from $300,000 to $1,200,000, while school districts are waiting in vain for school money long past due"; and it was this institution regarding which he noted the interesting fact that it was the first place that Senator Quay visited whenever he went to Philadelphia. The defalcation of the cashier should surprise nobody. He had a notable precedent for tampering with funds committed to his charge in the case of a State Treasurer who had done the same thing with the public money, and who, despite the exposure of his crime, had risen to the greatest power. Moreover, he seems to have been only the tool of the politicians who ran the bank, for Philadelphia people accept his dying statement that, after these politicians had led him into his original offence, and thus had him in their power, they obliged him to lend them money which he had no right to lend in order to keep another of their enterprises afloat.

A coroner's inquest has been held in the case of the colored postmaster at Lake City, S. C., who was shot dead at night last month by a large mob of white men, who had previously set his house on fire, and who also shot at the members of his family as they were driven from their home by the flames. The solicitor of the circuit had been instructed by the Governor of the State to use his utmost diligence to bring the murderers to justice, and a thorough investigation seems to have been made; but not a single witness could be found who would name any member of the mob, and the jury returned the not unexpected verdict that the postmaster and his youngest child came to their deaths "by gunshot wounds from the hands of parties unknown to the jury." An appeal has since been made to the President, and he has given assurances that both the Post-Office Department and the Department of Justice are doing all in their power to ferret out and punish the members of the mob, and that the Attorney-General is now considering what further steps the Government can take within the limits of federal jurisdiction. But nobody who has observed the repeated failures to punish lynchers in many States, both North and South, really expects that the federal authorities will prove any more successful in this case than the State. Nothing was accomplished by these authorities last year when they investigated the shooting of a colored postmaster in Georgia.

The editor of the Augusta (Ga.) *Chronicle*, Mr. Patrick Walsh, has never been known as a civil-service reformer. Indeed, he has generally been regarded as a practical politician, and he lived up to that reputation, as the Georgia member of the Democratic national committee, for some years. But he is at last waking up to the absurdity and disgrace of a system under which, as he says, "we have been content to regard with apathy the appointment to the American residences at Tripoli or Singapore or Hong Kong whatever loyal national committeeman or successful ward politician it might please the honorable

Congressman or Senator furtively to nominate." He has learned that the result of this policy is that "Americans abroad are sometimes mortified at the representatives sent out by their Congressmen," and he quotes a gentleman just returned from Japan as reflecting rather bitterly on the officials of our consular and diplomatic service in that empire. This observer reports that they are "often men of the diamond pin, red-striped shirt-front, heavy black moustache, and husky voice description, uneducated and incompetent, representative of nothing save the influence of the Bowery element in American politics"; and he adds that " the worst of it is that Englishmen and Frenchmen abroad form, as men will, their opinion of the whole people of the United States from these discreditable representatives." The editor of the *Chronicle* is now ready to admit that we ought to learn a lesson in this matter from England and France, which send no man as minister, consul, or attaché of legation until he has completed a long and severe preparation in the Government school of training for diplomatic service, until he has become thoroughly acquainted with the history, language, manners, and habits of thought of the people among whom he is to be thrown. Such an article as this in the *Chronicle*, considering its source, is both significant and encouraging.

Anton Seidl, the greatest dramatic conductor of the century, who died suddenly on Monday, was every inch an artist, never satisfied with mere financial success, if he felt that his ideals had not been approximated. Though the most generous of men (he has been known on various occasions to return his check to managers who had suffered losses), he would not even conduct a charity concert unless it could be done in a way that would not discredit the work or deceive the public. Another of his traits—remarkable among musicians—was his modesty. He knew perfectly well what he could do, but he never acted in a way to show that he was conscious of it. During the years of his eclipse he never complained, except to his friends. He was, indeed, too modest; he lacked the quality of "push," so necessary in this country; and but for the zeal of his admirers he might have been kept in the background still longer. Others intrigued against him, but he never stooped to intrigue against a rival. Quite as remarkable as his artistic honesty and his modesty was his enthusiasm. During the first years of his sojourn in America he looked upon himself chiefly as a Wagner missionary. This created the impression that he was a Wagnerian conductor and nothing else—an impression which it took years to eradicate. As a matter of fact, Seidl was a remarkably many-sided musician. Schubert and Schumann did not seem to appeal specially to him, but he was a splendid Bach conductor. Beethoven's seventh and ninth symphonies have never been more superbly rendered than under his baton. His Liszt conducting was perfect in its rubato and spirit. He had a great liking for dainty French music, and conducted it exquisitely, whenever he had a chance for sufficient rehearsals. His recent performances of Tchaikovsky's "Pathetic" and Dvorák's "New World" symphonies will always be remembered by those who were so fortunate as to hear them. His loss is a public calamity.

An interesting libel case is promised in a proceeding which took place in the City Magistrate's Court before Judge Cornell last week. Charles T. Russell, President of the Connecticut Granite Company, brought a charge of criminal libel against Percy T. Applegate, Secretary of the company, because of information which the latter had given to two reporters who had accepted it as authentic and had published it. The information reflected unfavorably upon Mr. Russell and is pronounced by him to be wilfully false. The reporters make affidavit that Mr. Applegate, knowing them to be reporters, gave them the information, which they accepted as truthful because of his position as Secretary. Instead of suing the newspapers, which were misled unknowingly, Mr. Russell has sued the real offender, under section A 254 of the Penal Code, which makes "any person who wilfully states, delivers, or transmits, by any means whatever, to the manager, editor, publisher, or reporter of any newspaper . . . any libellous statement concerning any person or corporation, and thereby secures the actual publication of the same," guilty of a misdemeanor, and liable to fine or imprisonment or both. Judge Cornell held Mr. Applegate for trial, and it is to be hoped that Mr. Russell will push the case to a verdict. Every reputable newspaper will thank him for his course in the matter, for all such have suffered repeatedly from the consequences of publishing in good faith what was really malicious misinformation. The number of persons who supply false news for malicious purposes and then put the blame upon the "lying reporters," is much larger than people suppose.

M. Ferdinand Brunetière attempts, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, to give the anti-Zola party an intellectual standing. Boiled down, his argument resolves itself into the question if the first man in the street (*le premier venu*, meaning, of course Zola) is to be allowed, without proof or the shadow of proof, to insult grossly the administration of justice and the army. There ought to be no division of opinion, he says, on so simple a question, yet there has been a great and unfortunate division. This has been due to three causes, affirms M. Brunetière—the anti-Semitic fury, the fear that an all-powerful army, sacredly guarded from every criticism, is a danger to a pure democracy, and the unhappy decision of certain "intellectuals," as Brunetière sneeringly calls them, to identify Zola's cause with that of liberty and justice. This is surely a painful spectacle—an intellectual man pouring contempt upon intellectual men for asserting what they believe to be the most precious rights of freedom. Not a word comes from Brunetière about the way in which Zola's proofs were not permitted to go before the jury; not a word about the overwhelming evidence, which M. Labori succeeded in accumulating, that Dreyfus was, as Zola declared, condemned on the strength of a document which he never saw; not a word about the immense success of Zola's bold challenging of the authorities, in so far as it makes it certain that judicial abuses of the kind complained of will not speedily be repeated in France. Brunetière has never concealed his intense dislike of Zola; he is now committed to the thick-and-thin defence of the powers that be in Church and State; but it does seem that he need not have gone out of his way to take a position so unworthy of him as is this effort of his to dignify the anti-Zola mob.

The unforeseen difficulties of Prince Henry in getting his "mailed fist" to China for lack of coal, led *Punch* to represent him running about from friend to friend with the anxious inquiry, "You haven't got such a thing as a ton of coal about you, have you?" The scrambling for coal for naval purposes in the Orient has had the effect of almost doubling the price. England, with her customary meanness, bought up all that was in sight, and none can be had now in Shanghai and Hong Kong short of $10 the ton. This is a great change from the time when Japanese coal at $5 controlled the market; and, for the time being at least, is one of the most striking of recent economic changes in Japan and in the Far East. If the world-wide craze for coaling-stations continues, it should have a marked effect on the world-wide demand for coal. But if Capt. Mahan's advice is followed, it will be "an inviolable resolution of our national policy that no foreign state should henceforth acquire a coaling-station within three thousand miles of San Francisco." This will be as bad news for our coal-miners who would like to supply coaling-stations, as for foreign states. "Modern monsters of the deep die of inanition," writes Capt. Mahan, meaning that warships without coal become helpless hulks; but, what is worse, coal-miners with their markets cut off also die of inanition.

THE WAR IN ITS RIGHT PLACE.

War with the Spaniards about Cuba has long been one of the "cards" of American party politics. For over fifty years one party or another has proposed to help itself by the deliverance of Cuba from Spanish rule, beginning with Soulé's plan of annexing it, in the interest of slavery, in 1854. During Mr. Cleveland's administration, it was particularly useful in enabling the Republicans to tease him without going further. They were constantly desirous of making Cuba a belligerent without becoming belligerent themselves. The result has been that in the minds of many politicians a war with Spain about Cuba has lost the character of a war, and come to seem merely a "shrewd move" intended to put the other party "in a hole." It has become something to threaten with, not to enact. It finally became simply a business enterprise. The sufferings of the Cubans were wholly lost sight of in the hope of making some money out of a conflict in their behalf. When the present crisis arose, the business view of war was what was chiefly present to the Jingo mind. One of the earliest expressions of this view saw the light about three weeks ago in the Detroit *Tribune*. That journal urged war as good for the real-estate men and the bankers especially, and added, "That there is profit in war could not be so widely believed if it were not true." In fact, it treated war as a purely business enterprise, just like the Buccaneers of the Spanish Main in the seventeenth century. These men went to war and sacked cities simply because they were in need of money, or, in other words, because their business was dull. Among the more rampant Jingoes, such as Thurston of Nebraska, this view still prevails. He said in the Senate on Thursday last:

> "War with Spain would increase the business and the earnings of every American railroad, it would increase the output of every American factory, it would stimulate every branch of industry and domestic commerce, it would greatly increase the demand for American labor, and in the end every certificate that represented a share in an American business enterprise would be worth more money than it is to-day. But in the meantime the spectre of war would stride through the stock exchanges, and many of the gamblers around the board would find their ill-gotten gains passing to the other side of the table."

Similar views found expression in various newspapers all over the country, showing what, a month ago, there was behind the ebullient patriotism. In fact, these open avowals of readiness to kill people and destroy property for purposes of private gain were probably the most grotesque outcome of Christianity and civilization that the Western world has ever had, and it has had many.

It was this kind of war that we have steadily opposed. It was no more possible for us to support it than to join in a plan of murder and robbery. But our opposition would have availed little had it not been for the firmness and courage of the President in keeping the eyes of Congress and of the public on the real object of a war with Spain—the relief, and, if possible, the final deliverance of the Cuban population. He put the war in the place it should always hold among civilized men, a last resort, when negotiation in a just cause and for a reasonable end has been plainly exhausted. He refused to rush into war, or, as the swashbucklers say, to become a "fighter from the word go," until he had found out whether there was no other way—to send our young men to death before he had found out whether it was absolutely necessary. This is the true position for the civilized and Christian ruler. We acknowledge the necessity of war under certain circumstances, if for no other reason in order that the higher civilization, which in our day is apt to find its expression in superior strength, shall have its due influence in the ordering of human affairs. But to fight for the sake of fighting, and above all to fight in order to make business lively, sinks civilized man below the savage. The savage fights under the influence of inherited passions and devilish instincts and an animal view of the ends of life; but even he is not so degraded as to fight in order to make money in trade.

Mr. McKinley proposes now to spend money out of the abundance of which we are so proud, and of which we boasted so much the other day, in the very work for which we have professed to long, about which the fighting parsons and the sham patriots have shed tears—the relief of the hungry and the naked and the ending of their suffering. The war he speaks of is a war, not to make dry goods lively or raise the price of iron, but a war to enable beneficence to reach this suffering and allay it. It will be a war against those who impede our bounty, and not a war to humiliate any one, or show any one how we hate him, or to enable us to gloat over his mutilated corpse.

If the Spaniards, as Mr. McKinley seems to expect, admit our relief freely, it is hardly possible that coöperation in philanthropy should not bring about calm, mutual discussion of the situation, and a mutual desire to end it without further loss of life. War ought to be always the statesman's last resource. It is essentially the art of barbarians and duellists. Diplomacy is the art of civilization, and the highest diplomatic skill consists in making it easy for the other party to yield your demands. To irritate him, to humiliate him, to put him on his mettle or offend his pride unnecessarily, is a blunder, especially if your main object is to lure him into a position in which you can stab him or split his skull. Every means should be exhausted in winning him over to your way of thinking before you announce to him that you must try to kill him. If you have to try to kill him, you should be able to say to him with a clear conscience, "It is my duty to try to kill and impoverish you, not because dry goods are low, or cottons are dull, or because many of us prefer war to industry, but because you deliberately stand in the way of relief which I wish to carry to people whom you have plunged in misery and whom, you confess yourself, you are unable to help. Having made this acknowledgment, it behooves you to take yourself out of my way. My errand is peaceful and humane, and you surely remember that before being a Spaniard or a ruler of Cuba, you are, as I am, a man."

"THE FLAG COVERS THE CARGO."

There is some curiosity, as well as a variety of opinions, concerning the position our commerce would occupy on the seas, both in our own and in neutral ships, in case of war with Spain. The matter is really plain enough. Under international law, as interpreted by the admiralty courts for ages, and as accepted by most nations until 1856, a belligerent can seize his enemy's goods in neutral bottoms on paying the freight due to the carrier. In fact, in the days when war was in more credit than it is now, and when every Power expected to be a belligerent next month, international law was formed largely with a view of helping the belligerent to do his enemy as much damage as he could. As civilization has gained ground and commerce has grown in importance, however, there has been an increasing disposition to be easy with the neutral, and to deny the right of the belligerent to seize his cargo, no matter to whom it belongs. Out of this disposition has grown the long controversy, which began nearly a century ago, in favor of "free ships making free goods," or, in other words, of the doctrine that "the flag covers the cargo." We, as the great carriers of the world during the Napoleonic wars, were vigorous advocates of this, but England, as the great sea Power, was unwilling to concede it. But at last even she gave in, and when the Powers met in Paris after the Crimean war, they all—that is, England, France, Russia, Prussia, and Italy—agreed that free ships should make free goods; that is, an enemy's goods should always be safe in a neutral vessel.

Neither Spain nor the United States signed this declaration, nor the declaration against privateering. Powers with small navies are, as a rule, reluctant to give up privateering. Therefore, under the law of nations, American goods, no matter by what ships carried, would be exposed to capture by Spanish cruisers. Although most of our exports go in British ships, these ships could be stopped on the high seas, and their cargoes,

if belonging to Americans, be taken from them. Our only defence would be the use of the telegraph to make the purchases on this side. But they would have to be bona-fide purchases. The courts of admiralty have always been very strict about fictitious or evasive sales. This would doubtless be an impediment to trade, but it would, probably, in the main, hold us harmless.

But Spain, by a treaty of trade and commerce concluded with us October 27, 1795, explained and ratified by another treaty concluded in 1819, agreed not only that "free ships should make free goods" as between Spain and the United States—that is, that neither of them would seize the other's goods, in case of war, on board a neutral vessel—but also that they would not seize the goods of any Power at war with them on board a neutral vessel, if the government of this neutral vessel had acknowledged this principle—*i. e.*, that free ships make free goods. Now England and France have both acknowledged this principle, so that American goods on the vessels of either of these Powers would be safe from Spanish capture. In fact, both America and Spain have virtually acknowledged the principle, by mutual agreement, and the agreement is such as to cover the signers of the declaration of Paris.

As most exports of grain are purchased on this side, they would on the seas be foreign property; but if captured in an American ship, the ownership would have to be proved in a court of admiralty. The Spaniards would almost certainly take an American prize before one of their own courts. But if found on board a neutral ship, there could, under the treaties, be no inquiry. "The flag would cover the cargo." The result of this would probably be that whatever remains of our foreign carrying trade would be transferred to British ships. But, as regards our coasting trade, since the British are prohibited, under our navigation law, from carrying it on, we should have no resource but to keep a bright lookout for Spanish privateers. We should have to rely on our navy to keep these privateers away from our shores.

Although, therefore, our foreign commerce would be comparatively secure, the state of the moral atmosphere would not be very auspicious for business. Probably a large proportion of our business men would pass much of their time reading yellow journals; nobody would engage in ventures needing time for their completion, and interest in the sufferings of the Cubans would be a daily diminishing quantity. War is not a thing to prophesy about, unluckily. If it were, the number of wars would be greatly diminished. Had the people of the United States, either North or South, foreseen in 1860 that the war would last four years instead of sixty days, that it would cost 700,000 lives, and would make a debt alone more than the value of all the slaves, who can doubt that the efforts even of the anti-slavery men to avoid it in some way would have been more strenuous? The fact is, that there is never such a disturbance of judgment in any human concern as takes place when war is talked of. Important as the matter is, the people about to engage in it lose a large part of their reasoning power, and become little better than irate animals. So that offensive wars are rarely undertaken by men in their normal mental state.

THE BANKING COMMITTEE'S BILL.

The committee on banking and currency of the House of Representatives is the body in which any effective legislation for currency reform must take its start. Other persons may make suggestions and direct public opinion and take the needful steps to bring about legislation of some kind, but the only organs through which these movements can exercise authoritative influence are the committees of Senate and House which have special charge of the subject. Of the two, that of the House is the more important at the present time, and is the only one to which we can look for anything like a forward movement. Several bills have been before this committee during the whole of the present session, some of them being the work of individual members. Of the measures not prepared by members, the ones which have engaged most attention are those of Secretary Gage and of the Monetary Commission appointed by the Indianapolis convention. These have been so fully considered in our columns that a recapitulation of their features is hardly necessary.

Two or three weeks ago a sub-committee of three members of the general committee, consisting of Messrs. McCleary of Minnesota, Prince of Illinois, and Mitchell of New York, was appointed to consider the various bills and report one for the consideration of the whole committee. This task has been done, and an outline of the work has been given to the press. It embraces features of Secretary Gage's plan, of the plan of Mr. Walker of Massachusetts, the committee's chairman, and of the Monetary Commission's bill, and has some new features not found in previous bills. It begins with that part of Secretary Gage's plan which contemplates the separation of the banking functions of the Treasury from its other functions. It provides for a division of issue and redemption in the Treasury, for which the Secretary is authorized to set aside the general cash balances in excess of $50,000,000. This excess, on March 17, 1898, was $176,139,532. United States notes received by this division for redemption in gold are to be cancelled and retired in proportion as certain substitute currency is issued. No note redeemed in gold is to be again paid out unless under exceptional conditions.

The bill proceeds upon the idea that gold is the basis of our monetary system. Everything which relates to redemption of paper money, by either banks or Government, looks to gold redemption. This is a capital point. It makes an issue, from which it is not possible to escape, between the gold standard and the silver standard. It recognizes the fact that the time has come to settle this question, that there can be no more dodging, that the question must be fought out now. This is an immense gain. If the republic is to suffer eternal infamy by legalizing repudiation, let us know it as soon as possible. The committee has done right to put this question in the forefront.

The next feature of the bill embraces the leading idea of Chairman Walker's bill, which is that the national banks shall relieve the national Government of the task of redeeming the outstanding legal-tender notes, in return for certain privileges which are offered to them. Under the bill, the banks are required to assume the current redemption of United States demand notes in order to obtain circulation based upon their commercial assets. A new class of notes, called national reserve notes, is to be issued in lieu of legal-tender notes deposited by the banks with the Treasury, and these reserve notes are to be redeemed upon demand by the banks out of the redemption fund, which they are required to maintain in gold. These reserve notes are not treated in any respect as banknotes, because the banks are not liable for their ultimate redemption. The Government is liable for their ultimate redemption, but meanwhile they are available as bank reserves, and are legal tender exactly like the greenbacks which are deposited in the Treasury against them. The reserve notes can be identified as having been issued to particular banks, while the greenbacks cannot. Hence the need of the substitution of the one for the other under the plan. After the expiration of one year the banks will be allowed to issue their own notes against their commercial assets to an amount equal to the reserve notes issued to them in exchange for greenbacks deposited by them in the Treasury, but they must deposit a guarantee fund equal to 5 per cent. of all banknotes outstanding, applicable to the redemption of the notes of failed banks, and this guarantee fund must be kept good; but no greater tax than 1 per cent. on circulation can be levied in any one year for this purpose.

This is the crucial feature of the bill, and the question arises, Will the banks consent to assume the current redemption of the greenbacks in return for the

privileges offered to them? As the bill stands, they are required to do so, willy nilly, if they remain in the national system, but they can resign their national charters and return to the State system, relinquishing the privilege of issuing notes. We think that the first impulse of the banks will be to reject the plan, but that upon further reflection they will accept it.

Of course the main idea of the committee is to relieve the Government of the constant menace to public and private credit involved in the instant redemption of its demand notes, and to do this in such a way as not to encounter political opposition, which an issue of interest-bearing bonds would be sure to create. The Monetary Commission's plan is the ideal one, but it is pretty plain that Congress will not accept it as a whole. The bill under consideration embraces that part of it which looks to the issue of banknotes against commercial assets under Governmental regulation, with a guarantee fund of 5 per cent. and a first lien upon assets. So much, at all events, will go to the credit of the Indianapolis movement, besides the credit of having stirred up the country to demand currency reform. Our judgment upon the bill of the sub-committee as a whole is that it is well worth fighting for, and that it has a good prospect of passing the House, and that it will meet with favor the more it is studied. We say this while expressing our preference for the Monetary Commission's bill.

MUNICIPAL ADVERTISING.

At one of the early meetings of the committee formed for the "Birth Celebration," the orator of the occasion, Mr. Washington, dwelt on the importance of the celebration as a means of advertising New York as a city to the cities of the Old World. We pointed out then, and have done the same thing since, that no city on the globe, not even London or Paris, was already, without any special effort for that purpose, as well advertised as New York. London, Paris, Berlin, and Vienna are moderately advertised by things which interest foreigners — architecture, art collections, statues, parks, libraries, historical associations, and reminiscences. Tens of thousands of foreigners who care nothing about English or German or French politics, are drawn to these cities by these attractions every year. They do not care how they are governed; what interests them is the results of the government. With these results the earth resounds. The inhabitants do not need to hold meetings or "celebrations," or fly kites or send up balloons, in order to remind the world of their existence. Foreigners go to London, or Paris, or Berlin, or Vienna because in these places their eyes and tastes are gratified, and they are made proud of their race when they see the way in which these Englishmen, Frenchmen, and Germans, through their respect for civilization, for science and art, but above all for character, have given themselves dwelling-places of which they are proud, and which draw pilgrims and pleasure-seekers from every quarter of the globe, which they leave with difficulty, and to which they come back with joy.

But good as these advertisements are, they are not equal to ours. They draw better than ours—there is perhaps more money in them; but, for making places talked about, they cannot compare with our modes of calling attention to ourselves. To begin with, we have what no other city has, a boss who holds no office, and yet directs and controls the government. Not only this, but the boss, if he existed in any European city, would probably be a man of education and good manners, who had followed with more or less success some lawful occupation, who associated, on equal and friendly terms, with the principal persons of the community, and association with whom, although it might be disagreeable, nobody would consider disgraceful. In all European cities *our* boss would be simply inconceivable. If you describe him in exact terms, the Englishmen, or Frenchmen, or Germans, or Italians, will listen to you very much as the King of Siam listened to the travellers' stories about ice. If you tell them that this boss, thus depicted, daily "sauces" the leading merchants of the place and its people of intelligence and education, tells them the government of the city is no affair of theirs, and that he will let them know what is best for them, they will at once inquire how large is the armed force at his command. On your assuring them that he has no armed force at command, but does it all by sheer impudence, and that the chief inhabitants are all afraid to offend him, and are very meek when he gives them orders, they will explode with laughter, and shout, "Git out; we are liars ourselves!" or use words to that effect in their own language.

If, after they have recovered, you go on to tell them that this boss has followers in the Legislature, ignorant and red-nosed blackguards from the slums and public houses, who, when leading merchants and citizens go up to consult with the Legislature about public affairs, regularly abuse them, ask them what they have to do with public affairs, and call them names, they will probably ask whether New York is on the sea, whether it is a port of entry, whether its size and prosperity is not due to trade and commerce, and whether the trade and commerce are not carried on by these merchants, and what contributions the ignorant and red-nosed blackguards in question make to the public wealth. When you reply that the red-nosed blackguards have never rendered the smallest service to the community, that they get their subsistence through salaries levied on the taxpayers through the orders of the boss, you will make a deeper impression on them about New York than six months of "celebration," or processions, or kite-flying.

In fact, the government of New York is a better advertisement than could be devised by the wit of man. If anything as original could be concocted by the advertisement agents of any of the great houses, Wanamaker, Macy, or the Siegel-Cooper Company, it would make the fortune of their employers. Cities have been known to the world, and have been the best expressions of contemporary human civilization, as far back as records go. They have been the glory of each succeeding age of the world's history. But it is we who have first produced a great city governed by its ignorant, corrupt, and vicious classes, with a dictator who hardly knows how to write, has never exercised an honest trade, has been in the criminal courts as an indicted prisoner, and thinks he has a divine right to his power. Our advice to the "Birth Committee" is, if they want to have an advertisement which will make a lasting sensation, to hold a four days' pageant with the following "floats": (1) Croker at his Club, surrounded by his Henchmen; (2) The Municipal Assembly in Session; (3) Mayor Van Wyck in Paint and Feathers, delivering himself on Art, Literature, and Science; (4) Tom Grady and Tom Creamer giving the Chamber of Commerce a bit of their minds. Here is an advertisement which will make New York the wonder of the world.

FELICE CAVALLOTTI.

FLORENCE, March 26, 1898.

Abbasso il duello! Moralists have preached, patriots have protested, against duelling; advanced parties, republicans, and socialists have made the abolition of the duel their watchword of late years, yet this outcome of barbarism, this relic of the Middle Ages, this senseless, useless appeal from right and reason to brute force or blind luck, has kept its hold in Italy with a strength and tenacity that has outlived the very essence of chivalry which gave it birth. Many causes have contributed to prolong the superstitious veneration that surrounds the duel.

(1.) Example is one. Think of a fight between the Minister Cavour and the Deputy Avigdor, the Ministers Lanza and Rattazzi, in the halcyon days of the Piedmontese Parliament; of Emilio Visconti-Venosta, now Minister for Foreign Affairs, and Maurizio Quadrio, Mazzini's second self, fighting it out in Switzerland; of Alberto Mario, after several duels, challenging on his death-bed a scurrilous calumniator, and you find the sanction of example hallowing the duel. (2.) A standing army is a breeder and fosterer of duels. There, as the code of honor goes, an officer challenged must fight; if insulted, must challenge or quit the army

in disgrace. (3.) The new penal code abolishing capital punishment for murder, and substituting in its stead solitary confinement for ten years and imprisonment for life, or for a certain number of years, is more than lenient towards duellists. The present law awards six months' arrest for a simple duel, five years' imprisonment at the utmost when one of the combatants succumbs. But the worst feature of the case is that duels are fought daily in public places; the police take no steps to prevent them; the newspapers announce the hour and spot when and where a duel will take place. In the case of duelling Deputies, the sanction of the House must be obtained before the law can take its course, and this sanction has been invariably refused hitherto. In February, 1892, authorization to prosecute twelve Deputies who had fought duels was refused by the House. The Socialists, who have taken the lead in the crusade against duelling, and, with one exception, refused all challenges, have now presented a bill to Parliament for the abolition of the existing law, and the substitution of the articles applying to wounding and killing in ordinary crimes. The preface to the bill is noteworthy:

"We do not believe that public manners can be regenerated by the corrective virtue of laws, but we do hold that the office of law is to ameliorate civic conduct by opposing all that deteriorates or corrupts it through ignorance or traditional prejudices. The duel is a disgrace to modern society, an offence to reason, to right, to liberty, to the principle of social equality. It is one of the many aspects under which mediæval barbarism survives. And if it is a disgrace to the society which tolerates, even while condemning, this brutal method of settling private quarrels, it is an unpardonable sin in the legislator to honor this form of wounding and killing (which is often but a cloak for ferocious and premeditated crime) with a special title, treating it as a misdemeanor, not against persons, but against the administration of justice, a misdemeanor punished lightly, if punished at all, and never, despite the notoriety of preliminaries, forestalled or hindered. For this reason, with the consciousness of performing a civic duty, we present the following bill, for which, at this hour, when Italy, weighed down by the burden of an irreparable catastrophe, vents her grief in execrating the fatal prejudice, we trust that you will recognize the urgency and accord to it your sanction."

Of the numerous, too numerous, funeral orations pronounced over Cavallotti, slain in his thirty-third duel—in Rome, throughout the provinces and in Milan—that of Colajanni (the first revealer of the Bank scandals) struck the truest note:

"Not words but deeds this bier demands—an active protest against this barbarous system which, consciously or unconsciously, has become a fatal instrument in swaying the destinies of Italy. Let Milan cry *Basta!* and there shall be an end of it. Italy will answer *Basta!* and those who would fain use the barbarous dagger against the representatives of right and justice will be disarmed."

And Milan's protest is unequivocal even as was Rome's. Cavallotti's death calls, not for vengeance but for expiation. "This shall be my last duel," he promised on the eve of the catastrophe. God grant that it may be the last in Italy.

With Cavallotti the last living representative of the Garibaldian legend is sent into the tomb. He was not a Socialist; he cannot truly be called a republican. Italy for the Italians—the Italians for humanity—was his ideal; a people, all the people, freed from foreign oppression and from native tyrants, free to choose their form of government, with power to enforce its just administration, to extend its benefits to all ranks and classes, to insure the moral, social, and intellectual progress of the entire nation. Cavallotti's family name is inscribed in the golden book of the Venetian Serenissima. His father and mother settled in Milan, where Felice was born on November 6, 1842. At the age of nine he knew all Rossetti, Nicolini, and Prati's revolutionary poems by heart, and at twelve his squibs and satires against the Austrians were the delight of his schoolfellows. Rejected as too young by the chiefs of the second Garibaldian *Mille*, by presenting his cousin's *congé* of 1895 he succeeded in starting with Medici's second expedition, and I remember a war hymn that he composed during the voyage, which had a truer ring than Mercantini's. Next we found him at Milazzo, weeping bitterly for his colonel, Migliavacca, who fell in action. After the battle of the Volturno, he joined the elder Dumas at Naples in the editorship of the *Independente*. Though he took his degree as an advocate, he never exercised his profession, devoting himself to literature and poetry, taking classic, not Romantic, authors for his model. In 1866 he fought together with Garibaldi in the Tyrol, and, after Mentana, foretold the Franco-Prussian war and the unity of Germany in a fine ballad.

From that moment commenced his journalistic battles. The *Gazettino Rosa*, which he edited when Bizzoni, his second in the fatal duel, was imprisoned, was always sequestrated, and his articles and ballads led to various challenges, always accepted, while once he challenged an entire regiment of hussars, and in a single day at Bologna fought three duels, wounding all his adversaries. In a later duel with Lieutenant Ambrosini, in his impetuous onrush he was literally spitted on his adversary's sword, but recovered from what was deemed a fatal wound. In vain his friends protested, pleaded, urged him to renounce a system unworthy of his genius, pernicious as an example; his shortsightedness and impetuosity causing them each time to tremble for the issue. The tobacco-jobbery crusade when Lanza, the Speaker of the House, left the chair to combat the immorality of his own party, found in Cavallotti a fierce champion of public morality. In 1870 he refused to fight for France with Garibaldi against Prussia, but his only brother fell at Dijon, as did Imbriani's, the "knightly, noble Giorgio." It fell to my lot to tell them both of their bereavement, and Felice's sorrow for this, his first loss, was heartrending, but it did not alter his views as to the justice of the cause, and his poem "For Germany" is one of his finest. Nevertheless, he was one of the stanchest opponents of the Triple Alliance. Even as he protested against France when, under the Second Empire, she posed as dictator of Europe, so he deplored the coalition of the Continental Powers for the subjugation of France. Friendship with all nations, subservience to none, was his motto for Italy in Europe. His very last political letter was a protest against the attitude of the Italians in the Dreyfus scandal.

"The Dreyfus trial ought to be revised," he wrote. "Zola has done his duty as a Frenchman; but Italy, after the massacres in Sicily, the wholesale deportation of innocent and noble men, without a legal trial, should have imposed silence on herself. The French may fairly answer, 'Physician, heal thyself.' No nation ever rights its own wrong-doings because of the condemnation of another; such interference irritates, but does not conduce to repentance."

Cavallotti's crusade against Crispi was too personal, too violent, often unjust. Neither the Triple Alliance nor the African muddle was originated by Crispi, though he carried them to excess, owing to his temperament, violent as Cavallotti's own. When the results of the inquiry into the Bank scandals by the Committee of Seven were made known, had Cavallotti promoted a general legal agitation for the trial and punishment of the proved offenders, he might have succeeded; but his twelve columns of execration, of vituperation, the raking-up of old grievances against Crispi, not only overshot the mark, but aroused in men shocked and saddened by the revelations the memory of what the man had once been, what the patriot had done. Browning, in his "Lost Leader," fairly expresses their feelings, their sorrowful regret, their conviction that he "must never come back to us," but they could not gloat over his fall, and were all alienated from Cavallotti for his conduct throughout. Now he is silent in death, and all that he too was and did for Italy comes back to them with a rush of tenderness, not untouched by a shadow of remorse. Carducci's short but eloquent commemoration of Cavallotti embodies these feelings. The catastrophe had impressed him most painfully. He was glad that quite lately (after a long estrangement to which he did not allude) Cavallotti, on meeting him at Pistoja, had presented his son, a lad of fourteen, studying in the lyceum there. He spoke of Cavallotti's lofty (*intemerato*) character, of his genius, praising his lyrical poetry, his dramas, but expressing his belief that his posthumous fame will rest on his parliamentary eloquence. No one who has read the four volumes of his speeches in the Chamber of Deputies, his commemorations of Garibaldi, etc., will differ from this judgment. Carducci did him the justice to affirm that his love of country, his habit of sacrificing himself, parties, even political ideals, to her welfare, was supreme. He regretted "the violence of his campaign against Crispi, the aged patriot, one of the last great statesmen left tc Italy," and expressed his opinion that Felice Cavallotti would very soon have been invited to share in the government. I do not think that Cavallotti would ever have accepted office, though many attribute his late political conduct to disappointed ambition. No! he gave his support to the Rudini Ministry, because it was composed of honest men, to prevent the return of what he called the "Crispi crew," and there is no doubt he has been instrumental in preventing the presentation of certain bills on deportation, the rights of public meetings, etc. But he was too jealous of his spotless political reputation, too indignant at the charges of ambition brought against him, to give a handle to his accusers. Then his past acts speak for him. When extremely poor—*i. e.*, before his literary works brought him in a fair income—Perez, Minister of Public Instruction, offered him the chair of Italian literature in the University of Palermo. He regretfully declined the honor, saying that Italy does not yet understand that office is the gift of the nation, not of a party: "By accepting, I should have given my adversaries the right to question my disinterestedness as a

Deputy, my consistency as a man and as a writer. We have but one conscience, one name, and a short life in this world."

It is impossible to give any idea of Cavallotti's literary productions in so short a space. They fill twelve large volumes, lately revised by himself. Of his serious dramas, his "Pezzenti" is the most popular, "Alcibiades" the most highly esteemed by competent critics. His political speeches in the House and on the platform alone occupy four volumes. He had just completed a new drama in two acts, which will be given at the Manzoni Theatre in Milan. He was calming down, occupying himself with social questions, though openly opposed to the methods by which avowed Socialists propose to solve them. The King has been profoundly distressed by his death. Ministers, Deputies, all the authorities of Rome and Milan, followed his bier. The offer to inter him at the expense of the state was declined by his friends; it is probable that he will be buried in the little cemetery of Dagnente, where his sister and his daughter lie, and where, in a very modest house, his best work was done, his better self trained, strengthened, and moulded for the battle of life. J. W. M.

LAST YEAR'S FICTION CROP IN ITALY.

ALASSIO, March 12, 1898.

The year 1897 was not one of great production among the novelists of Italy—at least as far as regards quality. Gabriele d'Annunzio has given the world time to forget the tediousness of the 'Vergine delle Roccie,' and has occupied himself with a play, to say nothing of politics and other things foreign to literature. The play, "La Ville Morte," written for Mme. Sarah Bernhardt and brought out in French at Paris in advance of its publication in Italian, seems, in despite of no end of skilful indiscretions and other modes of stimulating the palate of theatregoers, *à la Scribe et Meyerbeer*, to have met with but scant success, though all critics seem agreed that, with even more than the usual unpleasantness of subject, the work is distinguished by poetical qualities of a high order. Its beauties probably combine with its defects to remove it far from the sympathies of the general public of the theatre.

The one novel of these later months that can be put alongside the best of former years, is 'Piccolo Mondo Antico,' by Antonio Fogazzaro. It came out already in 1896, but late enough to be counted with the work of the period under consideration. The "little world" was on the Italian shore of the Lake of Lugano, and its antiquity was but relative—a matter of forty years, in fact, or just before the struggle that freed Italy from the foreign yoke. Railways and telegraph existed already, most of the elements of modern life were there, but yet how different it all was! Many of us in a quiet hour can shut our eyes and recall a time when the persons of our acquaintance seemed full of individuality; they were odder, quainter, more gracious, nobler, and, above all, more themselves than their successors of to-day. It may be that distance lends much of the enchantment, and it is certain that the exquisite landscape setting of Val Solda and the delightful humor of which Sig. Fogazzaro is a master, go far toward making an Arcadia of this little old-time world. And yet there were the Austrians and the *Austriacanti* to turn the idyll into a tragedy at a moment's notice. 1848 had not been forgotten, and the foreign rule, vexatious at the best, was exasperating and insufferable at the worst. It could not be otherwise; conspiracies (real and fancied) stimulated rigor, and that in turn kept alive the ferment of conspiracy. The action of the book goes on within this vicious circle, and yet the story is not one of plots, nor even mainly of patriotic endeavor. It is simply the story of two lives and the picture of a society that has passed away. Such as it is, it is thoroughly charming; it may be doubted whether the author of 'Daniele Cortis' has ever done anything more admirable than the earlier chapters of this book.

About four years ago Federico De Roberto published a novel, 'I Vicerè,' which, according to my mind, is the strongest of all performances in recent Italian fiction. De Roberto, who is still young, began to publish when scarcely arrived at man's estate, and his work, remarkable from the beginning, steadily increased in value up to the volume just mentioned. This was the story of a great Sicilian family that, in the days of Spanish rule, had furnished Viceroys to the country, and still ranks among the highest in the land. The story begins in the later years of the Bourbon régime, and through the vicissitudes of the family one sees the changes in Sicilian society from the golden days of King Bomba down to those of the present vulgar parliamentarism. The picture is vast and complicated and yet of the most vivid truthfulness—one of those portraitures that convince the observer at a glance that the original could not have been otherwise than as here represented: you can no more doubt than you can doubt the truthfulness of Holbein's "Thomas Morett." Parenthetically, I take this opportunity of recommending all who are interested in Italian literature, or in Sicily, or in the novelist's art, to read this remarkable book.

Naturally it is a disappointment to find the contribution of De Roberto to the fiction of the year by no means on the high level of the 'Vicerè.' 'Spasimo' is far from being a bad novel—from another author it might be called a good one, something out of the common; but *noblesse oblige*, and De Roberto is held to the standard he has himself created. But, although a disappointment to one who looks for a companion to the 'Vicerè,' 'Spasimo' is another evidence of the power and versatility of its writer. A murder has been committed, of course in very interesting and puzzling circumstances, and the book is occupied with the unravelling of the mystery, not after the manner of Gaboriau, nor yet of the valiant Sherlock Holmes; it is only when a portentous array of the most ingenious reasoning has failed to discover the culprit that the guilty conscience finally charges itself with the office of *deus ex machina*. De Roberto has also published within the year two volumes, 'Amori' and 'Gli Amori,' which are not novels but studies, physiological, psychological, and moral, and as such have no place in this report.

From Catania we have a reprint of an early novel of Giovanni Verga, 'Una Peccatrice.' It is curious only as showing how rubbishy a work could be written by the author of 'I Malavoglia' and 'Mastro Don Gesualdo' before he had found where his strength lay. It may be that there was promise in the very badness of it. One is tempted to think that in cutting loose from all restraints of possibility and common sense, and in exaggerating all the peculiarities of the old Romantic school, Verga must have been a follower of Cervantes. But the caricature, if it be such, is too solemn; there is not a hint of a smile from beginning to end, and one is forced to conclude that the book is bad simply because its author was trying to do something for which he was utterly unfitted. It is, however, worth buying, not only as coming from one of the foremost writers of fiction of our day, but also for the portrait of Verga which it contains, and which, with its clear-cut features and the fine irony of its expression, increases our bewilderment in reading the pages that follow it.

The name of E. A. Butti is among the newer in Italian literature. After one or two trials he attracted attention a few years ago with a clever novel, 'L'Immorale.' He is one of the "psychological" school, and, one may add, "for better or for worse." Two years ago it was for the latter. 'L'Anima' was a study of morbid psychology—so morbid that it was almost as bad as interesting one's self in the loves of two of the creatures that are to be seen in glass jars in a natural-history museum. At the beginning of last year he gave in the pages of the *Nuova Antologia*, and afterward published in a volume, a performance of a better order. 'L'Incantesimo' is full of pleasant landscapes of the eastern shore of Lago Maggiore, and has to do with human beings. The secondary characters are in a way, though lightly sketched, full of relief and life. The book is decidedly pleasant reading up to the last pages. Without being squeamish, one may feel that the manner in which the protagonists come to final union is, in the circumstances, unnecessarily brutal. In both these books of Butti there is something to be demonstrated; in 'L'Anima' it is the existence of the soul (though it may be doubted if any creatures above the level of those depicted in the book would consider the demonstration satisfactory), while in 'L'Incantesimo' the aim is more difficult to formulate. It may, however, be roughly stated that it is to show the necessity of marriage, even to those who aspire to lead a life of pure intelligence. Without disputing the thesis, we lay down the book more than ever convinced that a novel is not, and can never be, a demonstration. There is, perhaps, no use in trying to make the novelists see this fact, as long, at least, as painters think that pictures are made for telling stories, and graceful essayists pose as critics of art. After all is said, it must be owned that Butti in this volume does not obtrude the lesson as he did in the preceding one. Partly in consequence of this—though chiefly for many other reasons—'L'Incantesimo' is far and away a pleasanter book than was 'L'Anima.'

Among the writers whose names are known outside of Italy, Luigi Capuana has this year given a small volume, 'La Sfinge,' which, like 'L'Incantesimo' and 'L'Idolo,' first appeared in the pages of the *Nuova Antologia*. I will confess to feeling but little sympathy for the art of Sig. Capuana, and the reader can take this fact into account in reading what I say of his book. He is a follower of the naturalistic school of France, in its extreme *recherche* of finish in style, in its unrelieved pessimism, and in its predilection for the disgusting—graces that are rather gone out of fashion and en-

chant many of us no more. In 'La Sfinge' there is no single page that, like some in the works of his masters, turns the stomach, but the flabby unwholesomeness of the general effect goes far toward making up for this want. Of course the subject is the animal passion of a young man for a young woman, and the only thing, as far as I can see, to differentiate this passion from thousands of others is that the young man has over his writing-desk an extraordinary water-color sketch of a Sphinx, with multitudes of victims of her fatal charms lying dead or falling about her, while others, fascinated, are struggling to reach her. Well, the young man gets it into his foolish head that his young woman is another such Sphinx, and so at the end he blows out what brains he had, or takes poison, or jumps from a fourth-story window (I forget which), and—that is all. If any reader of this thinks that my account savors of blind prejudice, let him read the book and judge for himself; there are graces of style in it which may give him pleasure.

The show for the year is thus far not a brilliant one. 'Piccolo Mondo Antico,' which, I repeat, seems to me worthy of a place among the books that are not to be forgotten, does not exactly belong to 1897, having already appeared in the autumn of 1896. But there is still one performance in the number of those before me which stands head and shoulders above its followers, 'L'Idolo' of Girolamo Rovetta. No novel of Rovetta is dull; without exception they are interesting from beginning to end, and one of them at least, 'La Baraonda,' of which I gave an insufficient account in the *Nation* at the time of its publication, has many of the qualities of a great work. For some reason or other, which I have never succeeded in defining, there always remains a doubt in my mind as to the intrinsic value and durableness of the unquestionable charm of these stories. Also in 'L'Idolo' (which, with nothing in it quite as striking as some parts of 'La Baraonda,' is yet perhaps more evenly sustained), after having had good entertainment from beginning to end, after having admired the force and truthfulness of the observation, felt the impression of movement in the society and of life in the individuals, after having yielded repeatedly to sudden enthusiasms, as over something really first rate, the old doubt comes back to torment me and to attack the validity of Sig. Rovetta's eminence. Perhaps it is only the inevitable recoil from the tension in which one has been kept; or, rather, perhaps, it is that 'La Baraonda' and 'L'Idolo' have the air of the *roman à clef* that delights and then exasperates in some of the work of Daudet. These are novels of society, of the world that is so limited that everybody in it is more or less known to all the others, and the characters are portrayed so exactly that one cannot help fancying that everybody in Milan must infallibly recognize each one and refer it to its original. I am inclined to think that it is this suggestion of the scandalous that is at the bottom of the doubt—a half feeling that one has no right to have all these persons shown up so intimately for one's amusement. At any rate, the fact remains that the books of Sig. Rovetta are uncommonly good reading. The present one is, as far as possible, in the form of a play—mere dialogue, with the necessary stage directions; a form that, avoiding tedious descriptions and more tedious commentary, gives remarkable liveliness to the narration.

Carlo Placci, of whose first novel, 'Un Furto,' I had the pleasure of saying in these pages much that was good, has lately issued a volume of stories. There is nothing to be said about them here, as, in answer to my demand for the book, I was told that the edition was completely exhausted—*Sit omen faustum.* Had my want been satisfied, space would still have been too scant for a proper notice of these stories, as it is also for the latest works of Emilio De Marchi, Matilde Serao, and others more or less well worth knowing.

S. K.

Correspondence.

COURTS VS. LEGISLATURES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of the 10th inst. (p. 176) you refer to the statute passed by the Legislature in Washington in 1897, enacting that all debts are payable in lawful money of the United States regardless of any provision for payment in any specific form of money. You apparently are not aware that the Supreme Court of this State, on the 15th ult., in the case of Dennis vs. Moses, held this statute unconstitutional on the ground that the subject is one "upon which a State cannot legislate, but it belongs exclusively to the general Government." This is apparently the first decision directly on the power of a State to make such an enactment. The opinion says: "The precise point whether a State can provide that the contract can be discharged in any kind of lawful money regardless of the stipulations of the parties, does not seem to have been decided elsewhere. . . . It follows that this contract must be enforced according to its terms and that the act is inoperative." The contract here was a gold-clause contract similar to almost every written contract that is made anywhere west of the Missouri River, and was made since the statute was enacted.

In the same case the court also held that two other statutes passed by the same Legislature under the impetus of the Populistic wave are unconstitutional. One act, forbidding judgments for deficiency on foreclosure, was held wholly void, and the other, providing a cumbrous system of appraisement, designed to force the mortgagee to take the mortgaged property at an appraised valuation, partly so; and as to the rest of this latter statute the court construed it in a reasonable and business-like way so as to take the sting out of it.

After all, the courts are generally our sure refuge. Our liberties are often stabbed in the house of their professed friends, but rarely when they seek safety at the altar of justice. The word of the stern old Roman is as true as ever: "Tu cole justitiam. Tibi et aliis manet ultor."

Charles E. Shepard.

Seattle, March 17, 1898.

AMERICA AS SHE IS REPRESENTED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of March 24, 1898, I read, among the correspondence, a letter, signed by Mr. Howard Leslie Smith of Chicago, in which he sets forth a letter from the United States Minister Resident and Consul-General to the court of Siam. Merely for the sake of information, I should like to learn from you whether this letter to the court of Siam was, when so sent, written in English, Siamese, or French. If in English, Mr. Smith's criticism is well-deserved; if in Siamese, or, more probably, French, should not the criticism fall upon the translator, rather than the author? Our consular service has a heavy enough burden to bear for the shortcomings of its representatives, Heaven knows; but in justice to the particular representative who is the subject of Mr. Smith's scathing criticism, ought he to bear the responsibility of what is apparently a literal translation from some foreign language into "English as she is wrote"?—Yours respectfully,

W. M. Stockbridge.

University Club, Boston, March 25, 1898.

[We have no information in the premises.—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to point out that the United States Consul at Amoy, whom you quote as saying, "It is so long since England fought a nation whose men wore pantaloons that the sight of an anticipated army that is not dressed in breech-cloth, tunic, or turban would cause palpitation of the heart," is lacking, not only in official good breeding, but in accuracy. In 1880, or thereabouts, England made war against the Boers—a nation whose men certainly wore pantaloons (sometimes, like their Dutch ancestors, three or four pairs of them at once), and who do not fight with clubs or tomahawks or assegais. The laurels won by "Tommy Atkins" in that struggle are yet green.

W. R. K.

March 26, 1898.

WHO WILL TEACH THE TEACHERS?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The secondary-school teacher may perhaps congratulate himself that Dr. Botsford's letter, which appeared in the *Nation* of March 17, is the dawn of a better era for him—of an era when the college teacher, with his wider opportunities for study and his more specific field of work, will turn his attention to the needs of the secondary school, and will use his powers that these needs may be adequately met.

Dr. Botsford attacks the accuracy of statement of certain details of Greek history used incidentally to illustrate methods recommended by the committee on methods of study of the New England History Teachers' Association, and counsels "grubbing in Oman." The teacher obediently turns to Oman and finds, singularly, that Oman seems to justify the report! The points in discussion which Oman omits are supported by the other books upon the teachers' shelf—Greenidge, Curtius, Gow (helped by Aristotle's 'Constitution of Athens'), etc. Although no secondary authority can establish a fact, yet since Dr. Botsford specifically orders Oman, since Harvard College in its various courses counsels the reading of Curtius, Gow, etc., since Greenidge is "Lecturer in Ancient History at Brasenose College, Oxford," since Aristotle's name is somewhat widely known, though hardly as "secondary authority," it may be

well to compare their statements with those of Dr. Botsford.

(1.) Oman represents the Peloponnesian war as a final phase of the Confederacy of Delos (pp. 290, 341, 376, 407, 408); says that the Lacedæmonians subjugated the whole of the Peloponnesus (pp. 79, 80), and that Solon substituted a timocracy for an aristocracy: "The first of the four Solonian classes was called. . . . The second, . . . ," etc. (p. 109).

(2.) Greenidge, p. 172: "Legislation, therefore, was a wall of coöperation between the two great popular bodies, the ecclesia and the heliæa."

(3.) Curtius, i., 403-6, describes the family combinations in tribes for political purposes, and the new divisions which were "called Phylæ, *i. e.*, tribes like the old; but in them there was no question as to birth and descent." (The extremely condensed form of digest packed the reference to "family," "birth and descent," as influences in the old tribes, in the word "blood.")

(4.) Gow, iii: "Every official, on laying down his office, was subject to account before public auditors (εὔθυνοι)." (Note.) "The several duties of these boards are obscure, but they certainly reported on each official to a jury of 501 members, who adjudicated on the case." Aristotle's 'Constitution of Athens,' p. 13: "For the absolute freedom with which the people vote as jurors makes them absolute masters of the Constitution." (The ecclesia, as a political unit did not control magistrates directly by εὔθυνα; the ecclesia, as a collection of all "free citizens," and therefore identical with Athenian "people," controlled magistrates indirectly through jurors. The digest wished to indicate in condensed form the sovereignty of the "people.")

(5.) Dr. Botsford will doubtless admit that the formation of the Confederation of Delos marks an epoch in the constitutional history of Athens when under so-called "democratic government." A phase of federalism may also be a phase in the development of a democratic state.

Evidently, if Dr. Botsford is right, the books now in the hands of secondary teachers are wrong, and the crying need of the times is better books—books which shall put before us the latest results of scholarship. The teacher of history in the secondary school cannot be a specialist because of the wide range of subjects he must teach and the many hours of class-room work expected from him. He is at the mercy of writers of reputable text-books. In the present state of Greek history he cannot teach "facts," because he cannot get "facts." No one is more conscious of ignorance than he; no one longs more ardently to know the truth that shall set him free from the possibility of doing sham work. Will not the college experts help instead of scold; prove the inaccuracy of existing books, and give us better ones?

We must not, however, confuse the question of the accuracy of certain given details with the broader question of the proper method of studying history. Dr. Botsford's letter is a proof that he sympathizes cordially with the central position of the committee—viz., that since history, like life, is a collection of problems, not a simple statement of simple facts, the study of history should be a training of the powers of thought, not a memory-cram. The nature of history dictates the methods by which it must be studied; and since history is always history, these methods remain essentially the same whether in secondary school or in college. From the beginning the pupil should be warned that "being in a book" is no proof of the truth of a statement; he should be taught to compare books, weigh their assertions, use his judgment—in fact, to do in miniature what Dr. Botsford presumably does with the sources of Greek history. The pupil who had most industriously "grubbed in Oman," and done nothing else in the secondary school, would be obviously the one in whom Dr. Botsford would find the least joy in college, the one who would the least contribute to his serenity of spirit and sweetness of temper.

We thank Dr. Botsford once more for his onslaught upon existing text-books, and beg him and his colleagues to heed the cry for help which goes up from the secondary school to the college.

ANNA BOYNTON THOMPSON.

THE THAYER ACADEMY,
SOUTH BRAINTREE, MASS., March 24, 1898.

A VERSE VULGARISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It seems to me strange that the "verse vulgarism" of elision of the final *g* should not have found its explanation at once in the fact that in some quarters in England, even in well-bred circles, this elision is a sign of good breeding. *Willing* is invariably pronounced "willin," etc., and I can remember that my father—a Rhode Islander and a schoolmaster in his early life—invariably elided the final *g*. I could mention a most noble English family in which the elision of final *g* is as much a sign of good speech as is the pronunciation of Abergavenny as "Aberginny," or Beaulieu as "Bewly."

And, by the way, "F. T., jr.," quotes Poe as saying "we would wish," etc., a vulgarism which has not the excuse of that which Poe complains of. If he "would wish," why don't he? Wishes are not horses and don't need stables.—Yours truly,

W. J. STILLMAN.

ROME, March 14, 1898.

Notes.

As publishers of the *American Journal of Archæology*, the Macmillan Co. solicit subscriptions to the facsimile of the Catullus MS. rediscovered last year in the Vatican library by Prof. Hale, Director of the American School of Classical Studies in Rome, as already intimated in these columns. The publication is by the Vatican, under the direction of Signor Danesi, and a certain number of copies have been engaged for America at $4.50, bound in fourteenth-century style.

Dr. Elliott Coues, whose editorial appetite grows with feeding, has undertaken, through Francis P. Harper, a new set of historical works, to be entitled "The American Explorers' Series." Nearly ready is the Journal of Major Jacob Fowler, describing his travels from Fort Smith to the Rocky Mountains and return in 1821-22, printed verbatim from his original MS. Dr. Coues copiously edits and indexes this. Another manuscript to follow is 'Forty Years a Fur-Trader on the Upper Missouri,' the personal narrative of Charles Larpenteur.

'The Making of the Canadian West,' by the Rev. R. G. Macbeth, will be issued on April 15 by William Briggs, Toronto.

The Marion Press, Jamaica, N. Y., announces a small pamphlet in a limited edition, 'The Courting of Dinah Shadd: A Contribution to a Bibliography of the Writings of Rudyard Kipling,' being a reprint of letters from Kipling, Besant, and other authors to the London *Athenæum* in 1891, respecting the ethics of American book piracy in the good old days.

A useful work for children on the dispersion of seeds, 'Seed-Travellers,' by Clarence Moores Weed, is announced by Ginn & Co.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have in press 'Lost Man's Lane,' a sequel to 'That Affair Next Door,' by Anna Katharine Green.

Harper & Bros. will shortly publish 'Social Pictorial Satire,' by George Du Maurier; 'Through the Gold-Fields of Alaska to Bering Straits,' by Harry de Windt; and 'Vanity Fair,' the first volume of the "biographical edition" of Thackeray's complete works.

The first number of the bound volume of *Harper's Weekly* for 1897 is introduced with a cartoon showing how Uncle Sam's horse Business Revival is discomposed in starting by the Jingo brass band—not for the first time. Views of the Philippine Islands and their insurgents follow, and the second number transports us to the insurgents in Cuba. To all appearances, a whole year has been but as a day. But, going deeper into this huge volume, we are reminded of Greece's humiliation, of McKinley's inauguration, of Queen Victoria's Jubilee and the fresh outbreak on the Indian frontier; of the consummation of Greater New York and the return of Tammany to power; of Hawaii, the Klondike craze, and (in an admirable series of views) Russia's fateful advance Eastward along her own Siberian iron highway. Such a twelvemonth has not lacked for sensation or for pageants. Some notable monuments have been dedicated and are here depicted—Grant's tomb, the Shaw memorial in Boston, the Washington statue in Philadelphia, the Peter Cooper in New York, the Gen. Logan in Chicago.

Pictorially, *Harper's Bazar* for the same term makes the impression of a more rigid attention than hitherto to the main objects of this fashions and woman's journal. A few glimpses of royalty—of perennial interest—some of Gibson's London cartoons, a little of the Queen and her Jubilee, a taste of Nansen, the Mississippi floods (for pity's sake), a bit of the Congressional Library—these sum up public interests. Portraits of the ladies of the new and the outgoing Administrations, and of great numbers of officers of women's social, literary, and patriotic organizations, are noticeable for their abundance. As Carl Schurz in *Harper's Weekly*, so Col. Higginson in the *Bazar* continues to be a constant signed contributor.

The Smith tribe fill 168 pages of the fifty-third volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan). Two of the more famous of these, Adam Smith and Sydney Smith, fall to the pen of Leslie Stephen, who shows a warm feeling for the witty Canon, and records many noble traits of character which have been obscured by his reputation as a humorist. In his writings on the Established Church, says Mr. Stephen, Smith "assumes that a clergyman is simply a human being in a surplice, and the church a branch of the civil service." Few Americans could

be found who remember that "his last literary performance was a petition to the United States Congress in 1843 complaining of the State of Pennsylvania, which had suspended the interest on its bond." Mr. Stephen gives also an affectionate sketch of James Spedding, the Baconian scholar, and friend of Tennyson, Carlyle, and FitzGerald. And Spedding, too, has an American aspect, for he accompanied Lord Ashburton to this country in 1842, in connection with the northeast boundary settlement. Captain John Smith, Miles Standish, and Gov. Spotswood of Virginia are the chief Anglo-American worthies commemorated in this volume; but we must not omit to couple with these the name of the founder of the Smithsonian Institution. Arago records of Smithson that he "regularly" divided his day between interesting scientific researches and gaming. He was, in fact, "unable to forego the stimulus of play."

There is not a somnolent line in Mr. Charles F. Lummis's 'The Awakening of a Nation: Mexico of To-day' (Harpers). Thoroughly grounded in Spanish-American history, with Spanish at tongue and pen's end, and with an extensive personal acquaintance with the lands to the south of us, Mr. Lummis has made it his task, in this volume, to show how in Mexico the past score of years has projected a vast new structure against the historic background. His record is a vivid one of municipal adornment and sanitation, of educational and industrial development, of political solidification in a period of unprecedented peace. When one reads of a moral quickening rivalling the material, and is given to understand that the corrupt officials of the recent past have disappeared utterly, one remembers his *Nemo repente*, and remains in a scepticism which may not be healthy, but is inevitable. Certainly if Diaz has been so astonishing a moral regenerator of Mexico, as well as her pacificator, the cry for such a benevolent tyranny as his will become exceeding great and bitter in other lands.

The success of Mrs. Steel's novel, 'On the Face of the Waters,' has caused a demand for more correct knowledge of the facts of the Sepoy Mutiny in India, which formed the background of her exciting romance. The standard history commenced by Sir John Kaye and finished by Colonel Malleson is in six volumes, and goes too much into detail for any but specialists in Anglo-Indian history. More convenient in size, and not so detailed, is 'A History of the Indian Mutiny,' by T. Rice Holmes, of which a fifth edition has just been published by the Macmillan Co. The book was first issued in 1883, and the mere fact that a fifth edition should be demanded fifteen years after its appearance is a clear proof of its merits. There is no need to review at length a volume which has thus justified its existence, but it may be worth while to draw attention to some of the additions that the author has made to it. The text has been carefully revised, and the references at the foot of the pages considerably increased in the light of recent Mutiny literature, notably of Forrest's 'Selections from the Indian State Papers.' More important are the new appendices which Mr. Holmes has added on disputed questions. From nine appendices in the fourth edition, the number has risen to twenty-three, and they now fill seventy-six pages, as against eighteen in the previous edition. The new appendices deal largely with questions raised in recent publications, such as Sir Aukland Colvin's Life of his father, and Sir Owen Burne's 'Life of Strathnairn' in the "Rulers of India Series," Lord Roberts's 'Forty-one Years in India,' and General M'Leod Innes's 'Lucknow and Oudh in the Mutiny' and 'The Sepoy Revolt.' The longest appendix, however, is devoted to the character and career of that celebrated leader of Indian Irregular Cavalry, Hodson of Hodson's Horse. Mr. Holmes has formed a very bad opinion of Hodson, but it seems a pity to rake up old scandals.

The firms of Armand Colin and of Calmann Lévy have been engaged for some time in bringing out a series of selections from "Great French Writers." The entry of some writers into this series is surprising to outsiders. France, for instance, beside Chateaubriand, Loti beside Renan. The last three volumes are devoted to Dumas, Guizot, and France. The only preface worthy of notice is that to the Dumas volume, and mainly because M. Parigot, who writes it, has caught something of the style of his author in writing about him.

A solid and useful book is the 'Chronologie Moliéresque' of Georges Monval, the Moliériste par excellence. It is a full and detailed chronology, year by year and day by day, of all the facts in the life of the great comic dramatist, and also of all events in any way connected with his life and work. It is beautifully printed, and there is an admirable reproduction of Mignard's portrait of Molière by way of frontispiece.

Armand Colin & Cie. have brought out a dictionary useful to foreigners as well as to Frenchmen: Paul Rouaix's 'Dictionnaire-manuel des Idées.' It is simply a French form of Roget's 'Thesaurus,' a kind of work much needed by students of French and now placed within their reach at a moderate cost.

'Alberto Mario: Scrittore e Giornalista, 1848-1861,' is a monograph by Giosuè Carducci, reprinted from the *Nuova Antologia*, which has several claims on the attention of readers interested in the story of modern Italy. Mario was in some degree a typical member of the revolutionary party—intellectual, ardent, high-minded, personally spotless and disinterested. He enjoyed at different times very intimate relations with Mazzini and with Garibaldi, yet his own individuality was strong enough to prevent his being a mere satellite of either. He was not so doctrinaire as not to be able to enlarge his views after the failure of republicanism in 1849 and the coming forward of the Piedmontese monarchy as the leader of the Italian movement. Needless to say, Carducci writes with his well-known fervor, all the more that Mario was one of his friends (Rome: Forzani).

Alfredo Nicefero's 'Criminali e Degenerati dell' Inferno Dantesco' (Turin: Fratelli Bocca) is an attempt to discover anticipations of modern criminological theories in Dante's 'Divina Commedia.' In a lengthy introduction the author discusses "The Psychology of Dante," maintaining the thesis that "genius knows neither time nor space," and that the poet's imagination not only "bodies forth the forms of things unknown," but actually exercises prophet functions and foresees the scientific achievements of future ages. Thus, the atomic theory was held by Kanâda (*kana-ada*, atom-eater), the founder of the Vaiseshika school of philosophy in India, and by Leucippus and Democritus in Greece, and the doctrine of organic evolution by Lucretius and Nemesius. In Dante's 'Inferno,' Nicefero finds examples of criminality and degeneracy foreshadowing and illustrating the teachings of Lombroso: the adulterous pair Paolo and Francesca, the ireful Filippo Argenti, the sacrilegious thief Vanni Fucci, the simoniac Nicolò III., Master Adam the falsifier, and the "fiera compagnia" as diabolical types.

Col. Higginson's "Galatea Collection of Books relating to the History of Woman," his gift to the Boston Public Library, is catalogued in the March *Bulletin* of that institution. It reckons somewhat more than 1,000 volumes, embracing a large number of individual biographies, along with works grouped under such rubrics as "Relations and Comparisons of the Sexes," "Rights of Women," "Work and Influence of Women," etc. These are in many languages and some old. They are intended to serve as a nucleus for future growth.

'The Current Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society' (Worcester, Mass., vol. xi., part 3) contains a descriptive list and text of early American broadsides (1680-1800) in the Society's possession, of greater or less historical value. More noticeable is Mr. Lucien Carr's compendious account of the "Dress and Ornaments of Certain Indians" (namely, east of the Mississippi), with copious citation of authorities and much curious information not strictly in line with the theme, which is nevertheless kept well in hand. We recommend this paper, which has been printed separately, to book-illustrators having to depict the savage of old in connection with the first settlers of this country.

Thanks to Mr. Henry C. Mercer, the Bucks County (Pa.) Historical Society's Museum contains a considerable collection of tools and utensils illustrating "the disused arts and crafts, professions and amusements of colonial times." Among these a lidless paint-box points to a survival of illuminative writing (*Fractur*) among the German settlers of the region in question. The art was taught by schoolmasters, was oftenest in black and white, and applied either to school or religious books and apparatus. The curious will find the story set forth, with interesting plates, by Mr. Mercer, in No. 2 of the above society's "Contributions to American History." The tardy establishment of the English school system in Bucks County, in 1854, marked the beginning of the end of *Fractur*, and broke one more link between Pennsylvania and the Rhine valley.

A correspondent points out that in an article on Rufford Abbey (a fine old Nottinghamshire country seat), by Lord Saville, presumably its present owner, in the *Pall Mall Magazine* for April, it is stated that "George IV., when Prince of Wales, paid a visit to Rufford. During this visit, Charles Dibdin, the poet, who had accompanied his Royal Highness as master of the ceremonies, wrote his celebrated song 'Woodman, Spare that Tree,' after having witnessed the felling of an oak in the park." Not only, however, was the song notoriously written by George P. Morris, a native of Philadelphia, but the tree was spared.

The Royal Geographical Society's 'Yearbook and Record' contains a brief history of the Society, including an account of its house and library of 31,000 volumes, 100,000 maps, and 100,000 photographs. The list

of one hundred and more expeditions aided begins with that of Capt. Back's Arctic land expedition in 1832, while the first medal awarded was to Richard Lander, in the same year, for the discovery of the course of the Niger, the last to Nansen. The American medallists whom we have noted were the Rev. Dr. E. Robinson for his 'Biblical Researches in Palestine,' Gen. Frémont for his explorations in the Rocky Mountains and California, and Drs. Kane and Hayes. There are also lists of the 3,929 fellows and the referees, arranged alphabetically and again under the various countries.

The recommendation of the committee of the Norwegian Storthing appointed to revise the Constitution, to grant universal suffrage to all men above twenty-five years of age, does away with property and other qualifications in a manner to extend the franchise far beyond its present limits. Under the Constitution, the age limit is the same. Further stipulations, however, are that the right of suffrage can be enjoyed only by those who have lived in Norway for five years, and who either *(a)* have held public office, or *(b)*, in the country, have been in the use—as proprietors or tenants—of land on which they have paid taxes for more than five years, or *(c)*, in the towns, have the right of citizenship, or (*d*) own realty to the value of at least 600 crowns ($160), or, finally, according to the amendment of 1884, (*e*) have paid the preceding year a direct tax upon an estimated income of at least 500 crowns ($134) in the country, or 800 crowns ($214) in the towns, and have resided a year in the election district.

Zacharias (or Zakris) Topelius, the well-known Finnish writer, whose death occurred on the 13th of March, was born near Ny Karleby, Finland, January 14, 1818, the same year as Strandberg and Jolin. Soon after graduating from the University of Helsingfors, he became the editor of the Helsingfors *Tidningar*, a position which he continued to fill for almost twenty years. In 1854 he was appointed professor of Finnish history at his alma mater. His earliest publications were songs and poems in the style of Runeberg, who was at that time the controlling literary force in Finland. Later he published several dramas which achieved considerable success. It is by his 'Fältskärens Berättelser' ('The Surgeon's Stories'), however, that Topelius is known to English readers. This work consists of a series of six romances, or cycles, dealing with the fortunes of a Finnish family during the 17th and 18th centuries. The series began in 1872, the same year as Freytag's similar work, 'Die Ahnen,' and was completed in 1874. The central historical figures are Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII., whom the author has delineated with an enthusiasm tempered by judgment. Many passages in the cycles treating of these heroes remind one of the prose epic style of Sienkiewicz. Topelius was also very successful as a writer of children's stories.

Mr. William I. Fletcher, the librarian of Amherst College, will open a session of six weeks (July 11 to August 19) at Amherst, in connection with the Sauveur Summer School (Department of Library Economy). As heretofore, no special requirements for admission are exacted, but a certain degree of education and aptitude is presupposed. Further information may be had of Mr. Fletcher.

—The Hawaiian agitation has added two books to the literature of the Sandwich Islands, one of which has some local historical value. This is the volume popularly known as "Queen Lil's book," the proper title of which is 'Hawaii's Story, by Hawaii's Queen, Liliuokalani' (Boston: Lee & Shepard). It is an illustrated volume of some 400 pages, and gives a good presentation of the Queen's case. The book ends with an appeal to "honest Americans" to hear the plaint of a downtrodden people "whose form of government is as dear to them as yours is precious to you"—a statement on the accuracy of which some portions of the Queen's narrative throw the shadow of a doubt; her account is not of a people tenacious of its political rights. The other book, which presents the case for the Sons of the Missionaries, is by John R. Musick, author of the "Columbian Historical Novels." It is significantly called 'Hawaii—Our New Possessions,' is copiously illustrated, and is published by the Funk & Wagnalls Co. It contains an account of the author's travels and adventures on the islands (this part of the book has some value), with sketches of their scenery, customs and manners, mythology, and history. It also has a good map. Mr. Musick's readers will find no trace here of those curious parallelisms between his style and the styles of writers like Bernardin de St. Pierre and Dickens, which critics think they have detected elsewhere. The book is written in pure American, and is not in the least imitative. It is chiefly remarkable for its peculiar political terminology. A "missionary" in Hawaii does not merely mean a preacher of the word, but corresponds with "reformer" in South Africa, and has for the student of the science of government connections with "filibuster," insurgent, and even rebel. We were not prepared, however, to find the idea carried so far as to make the upholders of the monarchy "agnostics" (pp. 54, 55, 205); but, with the author, agnostic and monarchist are convertible terms. When we meet Col. Norris, described as a "rank royalist," he displays his political sympathies by beating the ground with his stick, and angrily exclaiming, "No missionary shall stay on my ranch." When a Honolulu business man is asked about churches in the city, he bursts out: "Churches be ——." The author tersely says: "One could see at first glance that my informant was an agnostic. He was not in sympathy with the present rulers of the islands."

—The Jesuit Relations (Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Co.) are coming thick and fast, with the issue of two volumes together, for the second time. Volume xiii. contains the first section of Le Mercier's Huron budget for 1637. No explanation is offered with regard to the authorship, to account for Brébeuf's silence. He is still, one can see from constant allusions, the animating spirit and right arm of the mission. Le Mercier, however, writes well, and we are indebted to him for various touches which Brébeuf could hardly add about himself. While on the subject of personnel, we must mention the coming to Ihonatiria of Father Isaac Jogues, destined to become the hero of the Jesuits in New York State, the man after whom Lake George should have been named. One characteristic touch is that he was given a fine chance to exercise charity along the route he came. He encumbered himself with the care of a sick child, and had a hard time of it at the portages. He was in good health on his arrival, but soon fell ill of a fever, and was forced to undergo the cast-iron treatment of bleeding—performed, in his case, by the lancet of the Father Superior. A lurid light is cast upon Le Mercier's pages by his long and detailed description of how an Iroquois captive suffered torture at the hands of the Hurons. We have had before in this work mention and even accounts of the hideous practices in which the soul of the aboriginal savage took delight. Now we come upon a picture painted with all the care of the realist in fiction, and, though the incident is perfectly familiar to every one, the harrowing effect which a minute reproduction of it creates lingers in the reader's mind until he has finished the book. Indeed, he is lucky if he gets rid of it then. Le Mercier gains solace from the thought that the Iroquois died, if not the death of a Christian martyr, at least the death of a genuine convert. The fact would seem to be that the poor wretch saw the missionaries' kindness of heart, and felt that they were his only friends amid the flames and knives and yells of those about him. Of considerably more intrinsic importance than this incident is the candid statement which Le Jeune makes of the reasons why the Hurons find difficulty in accepting the Christian faith and joining the Christian church. One of them is as old as the conversion of the German tribes during the period of the Inroads. It will be remembered that a Visigothic warrior stepped back from the font on hearing that in Paradise he would be separated from his own kindred. The Hurons shared the same prejudice in favor of their relatives, one of their excuses being that they should find no acquaintances in heaven, and that the French who were there would give them nothing to eat.

—Rather more than one-third of volume xiv. is occupied with the concluding chapters of Le Mercier's Huron narrative. The remainder contains the first part of Le Jeune's Relation for 1638, dealing with Quebec, Three Rivers, and the missions of the Lower St. Lawrence. Le Mercier has already, in volume xiii., dwelt upon the ravages of the plague among the Hurons, and the subject is continued at some length. Several features are brought out by the influence of pestilence upon the savages—their suspicion that the black gowns have come among them to spread disease; their readiness to profess belief for the sake of getting certain medicines, and, in general, their total lack of means to meet the foe which is playing havoc with their race. During this season the Jesuits were trying to reach the Tobacco Nation through Garnier, and to patch up the differences which had made a breach between the main body of Hurons and the Bear tribe. They were clearly anxious to gather fruit after their trying toil. Brébeuf's desire to get at something tangible is shown by a series of propositions which he laid in this year before one of the principal chiefs. He wished to know, first, whether the people had not made up their minds to believe what had been preached to them and to accept the faith; secondly, whether they would look with favor on marriages between the French and themselves; and, thirdly, whether they would reunite with the people of Ossosané. The answer to the last two of these questions was more favorable than to the first. It leaked out in the

course of parley that a plot against the lives of the missionaries had been discussed during the previous winter. Altogether, 1637 was a twelvemonth of disillusion, bridging over a space between the earlier period of hope and the serious dangers which were soon to come. Le Jeune's part of the Relation for 1638 is shorter than usual because his life has settled down to routine and he has less that is unusual to tell. His chief cares now are to develop the seminary and to encourage sedentary habits among such tribes as are within reach of his influence. A spot on the river bank, a few miles above Quebec, has become the centre of an Algonquin colony, through the endowment of Noël de Sillery. Chapter vii., "De quelques Sauvages Errants devenus Sedentaires," is the most valuable section of Le Jeune's reports on this subject up to the present point.

—A writer in a recent number of the London *Times* gives some interesting facts about the operations of the post-office in India. In spite of the fact that only about 4 per cent. of the population of India can read and write, the postal system has shown itself, in comparison with that of Great Britain, remarkably progressive. Instead of enlarging the facilities as the demands of the public increased, the postal authorities have from the beginning made great efforts to encourage the use of the post-office. Recognizing, for example, the native love of secrecy, as well as the habit of using small or thin pieces of paper for writing, a uniform halfpenny rate for sealed letters of light weight was early made. The "value-payable post" transmits parcels deliverable only on payment of a sum specified by the sender, this sum when received being forwarded to the latter by post—a system similar to that employed by express companies in this country. The object is to increase the amount of cash trading, and to give persons in remote districts the benefit of prices in the leading business centres. A special arrangement is provided for the payment of the land tax through the post-office, and another for the payment of rents by cultivators "who wish to avoid the delays and petty exactions incident to their attending in person at their landlord's office." In the Punjab, copies of legal documents from the courts may be had through the agency of the post, and the same service is used for paying military pensions. The postal savings banks, more than 90 per cent. of whose depositors are natives, furnished eleven million money orders during the past year. A particularly striking instance of the use of the post-office, wherever possible, in direct dealings between the Government and the people, occurred in 1892. The Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, desiring to combat the prevalent malarial fever by offering quinine to the peasantry at cost, had the remedy prepared in single-dose packages, bearing directions for use, which were sold at the post-office in every village at a *pice*, or farthing, each. In the last two years, the writer in question states, nearly six million such packages have been sold in Lower Bengal alone, and the system has been successfully extended to other malarial provinces.

—The latest issue of the *Zeitschrift* of the German Oriental Society (Vol. 51, No. 4) contains interesting information with reference to two important ventures in the line of Oriental publications on a grand scale. These are a Lexicon of the Egyptian Language, and a Mohammedan Encyclopædia. Both projects received the approval and commendation of the International Congress of Orientalists at their Paris convention last summer. With regard to the former work, the German Emperor, by a decree of May 10, 1897, furnished the funds for its publication. An appeal for coöperation appears in the *Zeitschrift*, signed by the editorial committee, Ebers, Erman, Pietschmann, and Steinkopf, appointees of the Royal Academies of Sciences in Berlin, Göttingen, Leipzig, and Munich, to whom conjointly the task of preparing this lexicon has been intrusted. The appeal states that the lexicon is to contain the entire *copia verborum* found in hieroglyphic or hieratic writing, while the demotic and Coptic texts are to be used only as secondary helps. The materials are to be collected after the manner pursued in the preparation of the 'Thesaurus Linguæ Latinæ,' which means the gathering of all pertinent passages under a particular word, the sifting to be done by the editorial committee. This body proposes to have the work ready in eleven years, and asks for the voluntary assistance of scholars and learned societies in furnishing materials, especially from unpublished sources. The report on the status of the Mohammedan Encyclopædia is furnished by Prof. Socin of Leipzig. In this case, the enterprise is not in such a forward state, yet a hopeful beginning has been made. The publication has been provisionally undertaken by the firm of E. J. Brill of Leyden, and a young Arabist, Dr. Paul Herzsohn, has published a specimen pamphlet of the proposed work, entitled "Erste Sammlung von Stichwörtern für eine Encyclopädie des Islam," in which certain words taken from the departments of geography, history, mythology, etc, are treated for examination and criticism by scholars. The report is published chiefly for the purpose of enlisting further interest and co-operation, especially on the financial side.

—The four hundredth anniversary of the martyrdom of Girolamo Savonarola will fall upon the 23d of May, 1898. The city of Florence proposes to celebrate this event in a becoming manner, and has appointed a number of committees to make the arrangements. The committee on speakers had requested the poet Carducci to deliver the leading address, but he declined, assigning, among other reasons, the following: "For me, Savonarola is the iconoclast, who aimed to destroy the arts and the literature of the Renaissance. His historical and political importance consisted in this, that he tried to establish a democracy of monks, and to transform Florence into a cloister. I have thought a year over the matter, and have not been able to find any reason for changing my opinion. I cannot, therefore, deliver a memorial address on this man to the citizens of his own city. Viewing Savonarola as a man, it is my opinion that the Roman Catholics—and here I have in mind those who are such conscientiously, honestly, and earnestly—are the only persons who have a call to become the interpreters and protagonists of his ideas and life." In Florence a clerical committee was organized to arrange for a celebration of the anniversary in the interests of the Church. The committee was careful enough to ask for the views of the Vatican on the subject, and received the reply that the authorities there looked upon the project with "benevolent neutrality." As the Protestants of Italy are also getting ready to celebrate, there will be three distinct memorial festivities in honor of Savonarola in Florence in May.

SIDGWICK'S PRACTICAL ETHICS.

Practical Ethics: A Collection of Addresses and Essays. By Henry Sidgwick. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: The Macmillan Co. 1898.

Prof. Sidgwick's 'Practical Ethics' did not probably cost him a tenth of the labor expended on his 'Methods of Ethics' or his 'Elements of Politics'; but this series of addresses and essays, making up not more than 260 small pages, gives to ordinary readers a better idea of its author's rare genius than do his longer and more elaborate writings. His book is marked throughout by two qualities rarely to be found in ethical disquisitions—veracity and reality. Perfect veracity or truthfulness is indeed the characteristic not only of these essays, but of every line which Prof. Sidgwick has ever written; and veracity includes, if the matter be carefully examined, far more than the mere desire to speak the truth, or than the capacity for seeing what is true. Truthfulness, in this its narrower sense, is, one may hope, aimed at, though it is certainly not always attained by every man who seriously discusses the moral problems presented by human life. But perfect veracity implies, in addition to the desire to see and express what is true, the open-eyed fairness which makes a man determined to see the truth all round, and to give weight, not only to the arguments in favor of his beliefs, but also to the reasons by which doctrines opposed to his own—opinions, that is to say, which, on the whole, he believes not to be true—may be supported.

This truthfulness, which, with Mr. Sidgwick, rises into perfect equity, is constantly lacking in eminent and earnest moralists. Bentham, for example, never even tried to do full justice to the foes of utilitarianism. They were, in his mind, knaves or fools, and the only justice they deserved was to be placed intellectually in the pillory for the scorn and derision of honest men. Maurice, with all his subtlety of intellect and saintliness of character, and with all his ardent desire to be fair and equitable, never was just to teachers who opposed his profoundest convictions. He never understood the strength of the utilitarian position; he met the arguments or fallacies of a dialectician such as Mansel with moral denunciation instead of logical confutation. Maurice was too much of a prophet to be an impartial controversialist. If ever there was a writer who wished and tried to deal fairly with the questions to which he devoted his attention, it was J. S. Mill; yet even those, of whom we may hope there are still many living, who owe a debt of gratitude to Mill both for the intellectual and for the moral aid which they derived from him in their youth, must admit that among his gifts is not to be found the capacity for really entering into doctrines with which he did not sympathize. In plain truth, both Mill and his readers are the dupes of his inimitable style. His language is always lucid, calm, temperate, logical, and judicial, and it is difficult to believe that the unimpassioned manner of the judgment-seat conceals the bias of fervent enthusiasm, and at times of vehement partisanship. Yet that this is so will become appa-

rent to any reader who considers, with a coolness which was almost unattainable by the generation to whom Mill appealed, the most striking of Mill's writings—his treatise 'On Liberty.' Of the merit of the book this is not the occasion to speak. The point which for our present purpose is important is, that Mill did not weigh the force of the arguments which might be opposed to his teaching. Sir James Stephen's 'Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity' is not a real confutation of Mill's 'Liberty,' but it assuredly does establish that logic was in Mill's hands often a form of rhetoric, and that his celebrated treatise was a most impressive apology for freedom, but was not a logical demonstration of the principle that "the sole end for which mankind are warranted individually or collectively in interfering with the liberty of action of any of their number is self-protection." This doctrine may possibly be true, but Mill did not state or weigh anything like all the arguments by which its validity may be impugned.

T. H. Green, again, was as incapable of untruth as Maurice or Mill, but he was likewise as incapable of judicial impartiality or indifference. He held, and advocated with the firmest faith, his own ethical creed. He fought dissentients with all the force of logical dogmatism. He was by nature a controversialist, not a critic: it was his aim to confute error; it was not his aim to appreciate with candor the strength of the reasoning by which doctrines that he deemed erroneous might be supported. It is a great thing to say of Prof. Sidgwick that where men of the eminence and honesty of Bentham, Maurice, Mill, and Green have failed, he has succeeded. Yet no one who impartially examines his 'Practical Ethics' can doubt that Mr. Sidgwick has attained to a kind of judicial sincerity not possessed by any of the writers whose names we have referred to for the sake of illustration.

Take, for example, the essays on Religious Conformity and on Clerical Veracity, which both, indeed, deal with the same subject. The problem of which they treat is how far a man may rightly belong, either as a lay member or a clergyman, to a church maintaining doctrines many of which are in his judgment untrue. No question demands for its treatment a more difficult display of fairness. It is, further, a question on which Mr. Sidgwick obviously feels strongly. His natural bias, as any one can see, is towards the strictest view of an individual's obligations. If on such a matter a thinker were at liberty to follow the impulse of his own feelings, or obey what many moralists would call his intuitions, our author would, we may be sure, lay down the simple doctrine that no honest man ought to belong to a religious society when he has ceased to believe in the truth of doctrines which, if words are taken in their most natural sense, clearly form part of that society's creed. Let us further add, to prevent even momentary misconception, that the object of the essays on conformity is in fact to enforce the obvious but constantly forgotten principle that, in matters of religious belief as in all other concerns, men ought to cultivate plain honesty, and ought not, from motives however good, to avow their belief in doctrines which they do not hold to be true, or in the reality of events which they believe never to have happened. But though Mr. Sidgwick's feelings are all in favor of the practice of bare and simple truthfulness, he enters with thoroughness into the position of persons who continue members of a church whereof they can hardly be said to share the creed, and shows the fullest appreciation of the circumstances which may sometimes make it possible to repeat without dishonesty formulas with which, if taken in their original and most obvious sense, the speaker does not agree.

Thus, as to the lay members of a church, he shows that in many cases their continuing to belong to a body into which they were born, but with the main doctrines of which they do not agree, deceives no one, and therefore does not partake of dishonesty, and he brings forward an argument in favor of continued membership which is not often used, but assuredly tells for a great deal with good men. "One moral advantage" he instances "of membership of a church for ordinary men—which remains even when the authoritative creed of the church no longer seriously affects their belief as to the moral order of the world—namely, that it constrains them, gently but effectively, to a regular and solemn profession of a morality higher than their ordinary practice." Then, again, while holding up to the clergy a standard of veracity which to some clergymen seems unduly severe, or, as one critic expresses it, "almost what might have been expected from a Kantian rigorist," Mr. Sidgwick is careful to point out that expressions used in creeds or formulas often do, as a matter of fact, actually change their meaning, and that such expressions may therefore with perfect honesty be repeated by the clergy and others in a sense which they did not originally bear. A change has, he writes, "taken place in the common understanding of the phrase 'descended into Hell,' which has lost the idea of *downward* movement, and even perhaps of spacial movement altogether, and come to mean simply 'passed to the abode of departed spirits,'" whence follows the result that a clergyman may repeat this statement of the creed without pledging himself to a belief as to the locality of this abode which is inconsistent with the physical science of modern times.

This idea of the real and insensible change in the meaning of words in connection with its bearing on religious honesty has great subtlety and originality, but the reason for dwelling on it here is that it illustrates the candor with which Mr. Sidgwick considers every plea which can be urged in favor of doctrines or courses of action to which he is himself opposed. Any clergyman who thinks that our author is too much of a rigorist, should, after reading the treatise on clerical veracity, ask himself calmly whether he can produce a single plausible argument, against our author's conclusions, to which Mr. Sidgwick has not given due consideration. We firmly believe that any fair critic will be compelled to answer this question with a negative. Prof. Sidgwick has the exhaustiveness and truthfulness of Butler.

A writer, however, may be in the highest degree truthful and candid without possessing the capacity for dealing with the real, and, so to speak, tangible problems presented by the lives of ordinary men. He may lack what for want of a better term we may recall the sense of reality; and, to speak with perfect truth, we may say that it is on this side that Professor Sidgwick's moral speculations are, in our judgment, occasionally open to criticism. He is such a devotee of reason that he does not always realize how small a part reason and reasoning play in the lives of ordinary men. We should not be surprised to find that many readers closed the 'Methods of Ethics' with the feeling, however expressed, "It may be reason, but it is not man"; and we are certain that few, indeed, are the men who are seriously troubled by the dread which Mr. Sidgwick apparently entertains, of dwelling in an intellectual and moral chaos—which seems to mean pursuing the course that all of us have to pursue, of following moral principles which we cannot fit in to any quite satisfactory logical system. But if our author, in his more elaborate works, thinks too much of reason and rather underestimates the importance of the non-rational element in human nature, it must at once be admitted that, in these essays on practical morality, there is little or no trace of this failing. Mr. Sidgwick shows in them a firm grasp of the matters which actually concern living men and women. His treatment thereof, even when he is considering problems of rather a speculative character, has the vital merit of reality.

Thus, the essays on conformity raise a question which touches the conduct of thousands in every civilized community. We may be certain that, of the millions throughout England and the United States, who wish to lead and in fact do lead a life higher than that of mere worldlings, there are thousands who are troubled by not being able to satisfy themselves as to their right relation towards the religious communities of which they hardly share the creeds, but to which they are firmly attached by habit, by association, by sympathy, and by the need for the common expression of moral and religious feeling. We may be equally certain that, among the clergy of all denominations, there are hundreds who are tormented by the conflicting convictions that, on the one hand, the work of ministers is the work for which they are fitted, and that, on the other hand, they can hardly, with a quiet conscience, repeat day by day formulas which to them either are meaningless, or mean something quite different from the signification attached to such prayers and formulas by an ordinary congregation. Now laymen and ministers alike who are tormented by what are called the difficulties of belief (though better described as difficulties of conduct in relation to belief), will find in Mr. Sidgwick's 'Practical Ethics' much of the aid which they require. Whatever other complaint they can make, they can never say that their teacher is not dealing with the real problem in hand. At lowest, he brings questions to a decided issue. If his two essays on conformity were only worked up into a small book of the size, say, of Mill's 'On Liberty,' which would allow the subject under discussion to be amply illustrated, we are convinced that Mr. Sidgwick's teaching might produce throughout the English-speaking world as considerable an effect as did Mill's treatise.

But of these essays on conformity enough has here been said; and whoever wishes merely as a critic to appreciate what we have called the reality of the 'Practical Ethics,' would do well to turn to a very curious and striking essay entitled "Unreasonable Action." Professor Sidgwick in this article raises and attempts to answer two inquiries which are very closely interconnected. Is it

the case that a man often acts unreasonably, in the sense that he pursues a course of conduct which he himself knows will not conduce to his own benefit or happiness? The second is, If we assume the first to be answered in the affirmative, what is the explanation of this practical paradox?

We are quite aware some critical reader will say that such inquiries are very far indeed removed from the sphere of actual life; that they harass no man of common sense, and can occupy the attention only of inveterate casuists. Now we undertake to say that whoever reads with intelligence the twenty-five pages which Mr. Sidgwick has devoted to the examination of unreasonable action, will conclude that the topic, as treated by our author, has as much practical as speculative interest. The paradox that a man acts against his own view of his interest does really exist, and its existence makes it necessary considerably to modify the mode in which theories of morality, and especially (though not only) the utilitarian theory, must be stated. The student will further see that the recognition of unreasonable action does much more than qualify many received ethical formulas; it suggests a whole set of considerations as to the conduct of life, in so far as unreasonable action depends on a man's yielding to logical fallacies. In so far as unreasonable action arises, as we suspect in the main it does, not from a man's being deceived by fallacies, but from the tendency to shrink at all costs from immediate pain, the peril has to be encountered by strengthening the habit of obedience to reason. But the various questions connected with unreasonable action are far too complicated for even cursory consideration at the end of an article. Our aim is here to insist upon one fact only, namely, that Mr. Sidgwick, in the last of his essays, which looks like the most speculative of them all, deals with no question of abstract and unreal casuistry, but with an inquiry which, as he shows, tells upon the daily conduct of every man who desires to pursue the higher aims of human existence.

Life and Progress in Australasia. By Michael Davitt, M.P. London: Methuen & Co. 1898. Pp. xx, 470. Maps.

One of the most grinding and mentally severe systems of penal servitude is that of Great Britain. If among those who for long years had been subjected to it there had appeared many men who, like Mr. Davitt, had broadened and deepened in character after its application to them, it would be difficult to argue in favor of change. We cannot follow him in many of his single-tax and labor theories; but even where we least understand or most differ, we are glad to recognize his candor and fairness. He would probably modify many of his ideas were he charged with the necessity of applying them in practice. These are the impressions with which we close this interesting volume—the best handbook that has yet appeared on the condition and prospects of the seven self-governing colonies of Australasia.

It is based on personal observation and inquiry during an extended tour in 1895-1896. Personal narrative is kept well within bounds; were it less so, it might commend the book to a wider circle of readers. Ways and means of life, statistics, constitutions, methods of government, scenery, prison discipline, the fate of aboriginal people, thrilling reminiscences of prison life, escapes such as those of John Boyle O'Reilly, are judiciously blended. Not to be taken up for mere amusement, the book is more entertaining than most written with a like grave intent. "Labor" settlements are fully described, and "labor" questions fully treated, as established, or as they find themselves in essentially democratic communities unfettered by written constitutions, and under circumstances of sparsity of population, plethora of land, and favorable climatic conditions that do not exist in older-settled countries. Human nature appears the same everywhere, and we find nothing in Mr. Davitt's experiences to lead us to expect that legislation can ever do much to divert the channels of life and method which that nature has graven out for itself. Writing of one of the Murray settlements, Mr. Davitt says:

"There was no 'boss' or master. Nobody walked off with the major portion of the value of a worker's daily efforts. The 'unearned increment' of the little community remained with those to whose sweat and toil and requirements it owed its creation. . . . Land and water were as free as air. . . . Surely no conditions of industrial life could be much more favorable to labor?"

Yet two pages further we find the admission:

"This camp has decreased in membership since the period of my visit. The latest report issued by the Surveyor-General of Lands gives the present population as 186. It was originally 300."

Again, concerning another settlement:

"Here was labor left to its own laws, unfettered by any landlord or capitalistic right, rule, or authority. All the right and all the law and all the land here belonged to the workers."

Yet at an election which Mr. Davitt attended, a

"speaker spoke as if the retiring committee had been a board of capitalistic autocrats, deserving of impeachment for not having made the pumping-station complete in half the time, and the grain to grow and the fruit trees to ripen before the seasons had time to perform their share of the work of the harvest."

Of Moorook camp we read:

"The character of their work, the dry and healthful climate, the pleasant outlook over the river and the forest, together with the feeling that what they were doing daily in their labor was for themselves and their families, and not for the stevedores or shippers of Port Adelaide, rendered the new life in the bush an experience as happy in its moral results as it was hopeful of future material prosperity for these ex-dock laborers."

Yet Mr. Davitt, with his usual candor, is compelled to add a note:

"This camp has since ceased to be an association, and is now worked by some of the settlers on a lease of the land from the State."

The view of these communities expressed by a neighboring independent settler will be shared in by many of Mr. Davitt's readers:

"'Am I a commonist? Not much. I works for myself, and them there bush lawyers up at Pyap will all be for themselves in a short time. It's all very well to talk and read about this commonism, but it's another thing when you come to work it out with pick and shovel or fishing-boat. I'm no believer in these new-fangled idees, I'm not. I'm a Cornishman, I am. I have enough to do to work for my missus and myself. No, sir, I'm no commonist. Good-by.'"

In various parts of the book Mr. Davitt refers to the disastrous outcome of the great Australian maritime strike of 1890, not as warning against the folly of the irremediable disasters then brought to the trade of Melbourne and other ports, but as pointing the necessity of "Labor" seeking to attain the ends it then aimed at by political means. A "Labor" party appears to have been established in most of the colonies. The "Conciliation and Arbitration Act" of New Zealand is the most practical outcome of their efforts. It is much to be doubted whether the trade organizations of the more settled countries would be in any degree satisfied with many of the awards cited. Its future working will, however, be watched with interest. One of the many advantages the world is likely to derive from the practice of home rule in the Australian States, so vast in extent, so meagre in population, is that many political and social experiments, entailing evils (where failure may result) upon but small communities are likely to be tried out.

Upon all humanitarian questions Mr. Davitt is clear and true. We have seldom read more scathing denunciations of the base treatment of aboriginal peoples by white settlers. Rising from the perusal of this volume, it would be difficult to hymn praises in glory of empire. We must rejoice at the spread of civilization and well-ordered peace and comfort over such wide areas, once giving sustenance but to animals and wandering nomads in the lowest stages of barbarism; it is impossible to justify or glory in the initial stages of the change. Mr. Davitt carefully investigated the condition of the unhappy imported South Sea Island laborers in Queensland, and emphatically pronounces against the system. Australasian prison systems, generally humane, are fully treated. Each scene visited appears more lovely than the other, each country township more charming. One portion of our author's route he travelled with Mark Twain, and details some amusing conversations. His estimate of many of the places he visited is little below that of Mark Twain's of Dunedin, New Zealand, "as a place which was visited by some people from Scotland who were on their way to heaven, and who, believing they had reached their destination, remained." Readers who have borne the hot winds, sand storms, and insect plagues of Australia and the semi-tropical climate of northern New Zealand, will know how to qualify some of the writer's enthusiasms. Mr. Davitt does not unfairly obtrude his religious opinions; yet it is interesting to note the degree in which a sincere Catholic associates the spread of conventual institutions and hierarchical government with the spread of civilization and enlightenment. Surely never was there greater irony of circumstances than that the means by which it was hoped to eradicate Catholicism in Ireland has led to its spread and establishment in every portion of the English-speaking world. An index would have added to the value of the book.

King Ponthus and the Fair Sidone: A Prose Romance translated from the French about the year 1450, now first edited from the unique MS. Digby 185 of the Bodleian Library. By Frank Jewett Mather, jr. Bal-

timore: The Modern Language Association of America.

By universal consent the 14th and 15th centuries are adjudged the most sterile in the history of French literature. The creative impulses and the imaginative traditions of the Middle Ages had then run out, and the new interests of the Renaissance had not yet distinctly asserted themselves. The literary historians are wont to mention a few stock names—Froissart and Eustache Deschamps from the 14th century; Commines, Charles d'Orléans, and Villon from the 15th. But the critical treatment of the period has come to be almost conventional in its character, and it is probable that there are not a dozen persons living who have a detailed first-hand acquaintance with the literary documents of the time. Current sources of information as to what was taking place in French letters during those long years are consequently almost entirely lacking. And yet now and then we stumble upon some literary phenomenon that makes us ask if, after all, this neglect has been wise. It is almost as dangerous to draw an indictment against a whole period as against a whole people.

Such a phenomenon, for example, is a group of romances (or, better, romantic novels) composed in the main in the last half of the 14th and the first half of the 15th century, which are noteworthy both because of certain distinct literary qualities they have, and because of their large diffusion in other European literatures in the form of translations. One of these tales is that known as 'Mélusine,' composed in its most widely current prose form at the very close of the 14th century, as a glorification of the family of Lusignan. Another is the delightful story of 'Pierre de Provence et la belle Maguelonne,' written towards 1459. A third is the tale of 'Pontus et Sidoine,' of about the same date as 'Pierre de Provence,' and similar to 'Mélusine' in that it was composed in honor of a great family, that of La Tour Landry in Anjou. In spite of their general neglect by the historians of French literature, we cannot but think that these romances deserve the careful attention of students.

For, to begin with, the manner of them is distinctly removed from that of the great romantic compilations of the 13th and 14th centuries, in which the already bewildering mass of adventurous and marvellous incident of the Arthurian and other romantic compositions of the 12th century was diluted to a veritable sea of fantastic inventions. The 14th century 'Perceforest,' for example, which served as a stop-gap between the Arthurian romances of the Middle Ages and the 'Amadis de Gaula' and its congeners in the Renaissance, is indeed, in its vagueness and indecision, its diffuseness and formlessness, the acme of literary fatuity. The author has neither a story nor actors for a story; no living fact appears in his pages. The outworn mediæval stuff simply goes echoing on until the reader sinks into a very drowse of attention. There is some excuse, therefore, for those who, judging all French narration of the period by examples like this, reject it as meaningless and valueless. It is too hasty a judgment, however, for the tales we have mentioned. In them we have essays in a new direction, an effort to use the imaginative stuff of mediæval romance in such wise as to make it verisimilar. Romantic adventure and even the marvellous find ample employment, and yet the dramatis personæ are vascular, to use Emerson's expression—if you stick a pin into them, they will bleed. The realism of the mediæval *fabliaux*, which was in the main due to the unromantic and often actually vulgar material employed in them, here strives to associate with itself the delights of the imagination.

Now, this fusion of the real and the romantic happens to be the quality which more than any other has given permanent success to literary narrations, from the 'Odyssey' to the works of the present day. In earlier modern literature, particularly in the great creative period of the Renaissance, we find this quality mainly in tales that had passed through Italian hands. But it is not uninteresting and not without significance that in France, before the influence of the Italian *novella* had been perceptibly felt there, an attempt should have been made to reach the same goal. To be sure, we are obliged to confess that the result was indecisive in many ways, that the experiment was not clearly and purposefully carried out. And yet it remains true that the tales which illustrate the experiment are both gracious and persuasive.

Another source of interest in these tales is their wide diffusion in translations or versions. As the biography of them is gradually brought into shape, we find that they were known from one end of Europe to the other. Indeed, it is hard to understand how stories so universally familiar should have dropped so entirely out of sight within so brief a space of time. Is such to be the fate of our Stevensons and Maupassants? To go into the details of this widespread diffusion would take us far afield, and we must refrain. It is enough for our present purpose to note that in England no less than on the Continent these stories were gladly received.

It is one of the two English translations of the 'Pontus et Sidoine' that Mr. Mather has printed in the present volume. The other, a version not completely independent of this, as Mr. Mather has judiciously shown, was printed by Wynkyn de Worde in 1511. As, however, only a single copy of this quarto, that in the Bodleian Library, is known to exist, Mr. Mather has the credit of being the first to make the story in its English form accessible to the modern reader. It was a task, as we have endeavored to indicate, well worth doing, and Mr. Mather seems to have accomplished it in a highly creditable fashion. His text, based upon the unique Digby MS. in the Bodleian, has been judiciously handled in the light of the French tale and of Wynkyn de Worde's English version. The introduction clearly sets forth the obligations of the original story to the Anglo-Norman tale of 'Horn et Rimel,' and discusses the known versions of it. Of interest here is Dr. W. H. Schofield's contribution of an account of the little-known Icelandic 'Pontus-Rímus,' of which we have as yet no edition. In short, Mr. Mather's book bears the marks of sound and industrious scholarship. There is but one serious criticism which we are disposed to make upon it, though we are far from certain that Mr. Mather deserves the blame. The proof-reading of the introduction, particularly in quotations from the French, is really very bad indeed, which is the more to be regretted since it throws a degree of suspicion upon the accuracy of the text as well. We doubt if the suspicion is justified, but we cannot honestly say that we do not feel something of it ourselves.

Social and Ethical Interpretations in Mental Development. By James Mark Baldwin. Macmillan. 1897. 8vo, pp. 574.

Prof. Baldwin here puts forth a sequel to his remarkable work on 'Mental Development in the Child and the Race,' which our readers will remember contained a most valuable body of observations upon two children. The aim of the present volume is "to inquire to what extent the principles of the development of the individual mind apply also to the evolution of society." But no insignificant part of the former volume was devoted to this same subject; so that the contents of the present work were largely anticipated in their outlines in the former publication. About five-sixths of this new book is occupied with the development of the individual consciousness, and is substantially a restatement of the author's previous results, without any gain in clearness.

The general position of the author, that the individual mind is produced by intercourse with other persons, while on the other hand society is the composite of the individuals, so that the two factors are inseparably conjugate, is certainly far from being novel, and no doubt Hegelians will see in it a new instance of the permeation of their master's doctrine. In point of fact, there are in these pages many indications of the great interest that Prof. Royce has felt in the labors of Prof. Baldwin. But what is entirely fresh is the discussion of that proposition upon the basis of rich stores of scientific observations.

In the previous volume the author showed how his observations had led him to admit three distinct stages in a child's knowledge of personality, those of persons as "projects, subject, and ejects." The first of these is the most difficult to understand, and it is itself subdivided into three imperfectly distinguished stages. The baby first distinguishes persons from inanimate things, according to Prof. Baldwin, by their moving about; and by the character of these movements it distinguishes one person from another. This is the state of consciousness during the first half-year of its life. But gradually it becomes impressed by the irregularities of some of the movables. The pendulum goes tick-tack with perfect uniformity, while the father sometimes notices the child and sometimes does not. Thus, persons become known as movables that are eccentric. In this irregularity Prof. Baldwin thinks that the child recognizes Agency; and after the second half-year and up to the age of two years, it is learning to recognize a special uniformity, or characteristic, in the peculiarities of each movable eccentric. This is a recognition of Personal Character. So far, persons are known merely as "projects." But now the child is beginning to act, and in acting it recognizes its own person as similar to the agents that are already familiar to it. It thus attains the second stage of knowledge of personality, that which connects its own feelings with the idea of agency previously acquired, bringing it to a sense of its own subjectivity, and a knowledge of Self, as subject. Finally, it hypothetizes for each of the other agents a corresponding subjectivity, and thus converts them into ejects.

Such is Prof. Baldwin's theory of the development of self-consciousness. As the ti-

tle implies, the present book is largely an interpretation of phenomena connected with personal and social growth in the light of that theory. Great weight must certainly be attached not only to the describable observations of Prof. Baldwin, but also to those subtler intuitions which can only express themselves as his convictions that such and such are the thoughts and feelings of the child. But the above theory contains more than such observations, as we will venture to show. In the first place, it does not appear from the observations that, during the first half-year, the baby pays any attention at all to things that do not move. If it does not, then motion cannot serve to separate persons from things, but only to individualize the differently moving objects. In the second place, Prof. Baldwin may be quite correct in his insight into the infant's mind, so far as to perceive that the irregularity of persons is perplexing its mind, and also that some idea allied to that of Agency is present to it. Yet whether or not it is the former idea which suggests the latter, is not a question of observation but of inference.

There are several different ideas, mostly of an intellectual character, which might be denoted by the word Agency, but none of them have any logical connection with irregularity, which is mostly associated with the absence of any definite Agency. Now, although it is certainly conceivable that one idea should suggest another with which it has no logical connection, yet the hypothesis that any particular such illogical suggestion has taken place must remain quite gratuitous, unless a mass of facts can be adduced to support such an irrational connection. There is a great gulf between the idea of an eccentric, surprising thing and that of agency in any sense. We cannot help suspecting that, notwithstanding the close observation of Prof. Baldwin, the child has made innumerable *efforts* before the age of two, which the author assigns as the commencement of the subject-knowledge. If these efforts have escaped his keen eye, it is because they were so futile. Not only does the sense of effort necessarily involve a sense of resistance so as to objectify itself immediately as an I and a not-I, however rudimentary these conceptions may be; a sense of failure, which is sure to accompany the first efforts, must magnify the effort and the resistance, and thus stimulate the subjective tendency. It is very doubtful whether there is any earlier idea of agency than that which must thus come from futile effort. If not, Prof. Baldwin's "projects" are merely ideas of queer, eccentric, startling movables—the only distinct objects of the baby's world—and are in no proper sense ideas of personality. If we remove from the author's philosophy of society all that is said about "projects," it may lose a good deal of its freshness, but it will become more widely acceptable.

Prof. Baldwin has a great deal to say of the influence of the child's own actions, particularly in his games, in shaping for him clear conceptions; and he rightly regards this truth as highly important. He adds that these very actions are for the most part imitations of the conduct of his elders, and thus the child's understanding becomes formed after the pattern of the grown-up people about him. All this he terms social heredity. Whether or not this begs a question will be a point sure to be discussed. The individual, says Prof. Baldwin, is the product of society, while on the other hand to all which he "inherits" from his family he imparts his own personal signature. Invention invariably accompanies imitation, although in very variable proportions.

Prof. Baldwin thinks that the "project" is recognized as the master of the "subject," and the "subject" in its turn of the "eject," and that the disposition of children to domineer over weaker children is a case under that rule. There are, he declares, two sorts of social influences, that which produces social organization and that which appears in particularizing and synthetizing actions of individuals. All individual variations are particularizations of earlier generalizations. The author is thus working his way toward the conception of a public self, and the further he proceeds the more he seems to be influenced by Hegel or Hegelians.

The matter of social organization consists, he says, of imaginations, knowledges, informations—a statement which, in its desire to minimize the individuality of things, betrays already the incipient sway of Hegelian tendencies. He uses the term "self-thought-situation" for the social situation implicated in the thought of self, where a dialectic process productive of the thought of self is plainly recognized. After that we are not surprised to be told that "every socially available thought implies a public self-thought-situation which is strictly analogous in its rise and progress to the self-thought-situation of the individual member of society." The author differs from Hegel only concerning a matter of detail, namely, in recognizing imitation as the bridge from the private thought to the public thought, which enables the self-thought-situation to become public. He considers that all that has been written by the School of Moral Sentiments concerning sympathy as imagining one's self to be in another's situation, is so much in favor of his own doctrine of the importance of the imitative process in the development of public consciousness.

The application of this to ethics, as developed in the chapter devoted to Rules of Conduct, is sufficiently smooth sailing. To those who think that in Morals, at any rate, conservatism is the safest course, and who are sceptical about the desirability of carrying any system of philosophy into practical applications until there can be a little more agreement among philosophers as to what is proved and what is not, the present volume, however interesting and important, will be deemed inferior to its predecessor in almost every respect. That it richly deserves the gold medal of the Danish Academy with which it has been crowned, there can be no doubt.

A Short History of the Royal Navy—1217 to 1688. By David Hannay. London: Methuen & Co. 1898.

This is the first volume of a history of the British Navy, which, commencing about 1217, is to finish with the end of the Napoleonic wars in a second volume. Much of the period covered by the volume just published has been somewhat obscure; but as of late years new matter has been published by the Navy Record Society, as well as derived from other sources, an opportunity for fresh treatment has been afforded to the author which he has not neglected. For one disposed to investigate more exhaustively the subjects treated, the author affords facility by giving at the head of each chapter the authorities drawn upon.

Although this history of the British Navy covers the same ground as the small one by Mr. Hamilton Williams, entitled 'Britain's Naval Power,' it is more exhaustive and detailed, and from its critical treatment appeals to an older and more professional class of readers. Still, notwithstanding its consecutive narrative, it maintains a popular character, wisely illustrating the various conditions and times by interesting incidents as well as by general descriptions and narrations.

It was in the years 1213 and 1217, from which this book dates, that began, properly speaking, the history of the British Navy. Previous to the earlier date, the royal ships had been used as transports and carriers between portions of the same dominion. With the loss of the Continental portion of this dominion during the reign of King John came another state of affairs. The French coast became that of an enemy, and for many a year afterwards the source of a possible invasion and attack. The two attempted invasions of 1213 and 1217 gave to the royal navy a different task, which it met successfully, not by waiting for the enemy's approach in its own waters, but by proceeding to sea and there meeting him. The success of the offensive-defensive expedition of the later date under Herbert de Burgh shows once and for all how Great Britain should meet such attempts at invasion or attack. As a rule, the lesson has been learned, and Englishmen rely upon their navy as the first line of defence, and the protection has never failed them, when the navy has been loyal and efficient, during a period covering nearly seven hundred years. While it is true that the great maritime Powers of the early and middle ages that preceded Great Britain were on the mainland, still the insular position that relieved her from invasions and the necessity of large standing armies has always counted much for her growth and stability as a sea Power. To this can be added her position towards the Atlantic Ocean. With the evolution of the sea-going ship and its growth in size and sea-keeping power, this ocean disappears as a barrier, and becomes the road which led and still leads to wealth and empire the world over.

The story of the mediæval navy of Great Britain is one of struggles against pirates and the neighboring French and Spanish. The nature of the seas and the weather about the British isles gave no scope for the galleys of the Mediterranean, and the ships developed into crafts of stouter build and greater radii of action. The fights of this period were affairs of no great moment, except those known as the battle of Huys and that of "les Espagnols sur mer." These two partook of the nature of regular engagements, and were not without elements of the picturesque. The seamen of those days were much given to acts of license and brutality, which became almost monotonous in repetition. To Henry VIII. much credit is due for his measures for improving the royal navy, both as to its material and as to its personnel, though it seems strange to us at this day, used to the British seamen and shipwrights as the first of their craft, to read that Italians were brought to England to serve both as seamen and as shipbuilders. Henry did not, however, propose to be dependent upon out-

siders, for during his reign he established the Portsmouth dock-yard and founded the Trinity House of to-day "for the reformation of the navy, lately much decayed by admission of young men without experience and of Scots, Flemings, and Frenchmen as loadsmen." Loadsmen were presumably leadsmen, and skilled seamen from whom masters and pilots were selected.

The Spanish Armada is treated in a spirited manner by the author, who has evidently benefited by the recent publications of the Navy Record Society. His descriptions of the two commanders of the Spanish and English fleets make one wonder at the choice. Of the Duke of Medina Sidonia he says: "He was a youngish man, small, of a swarthy complexion, and somewhat bandy-legged, who, according to his own candid and somewhat pitiful confession to the King, knew nothing of war, by land or sea, was always seasick when he went in a vessel, and never failed to catch cold." Lord Effingham, the English commander, though not an ideal leader, was of better stuff. He had no experience in war, either, and does not appear to have been a man of ability; but, though not a seaman, he was a man who did have character and the happy faculty of being guided by his more competent subordinates without losing his authority and position. Fortunate was it for England that the elements, above all, were in her favor.

The voyages of the great Elizabethan navigators and the stubborn sea-fights of the three great Dutch wars are treated by the author with sufficient fulness and vivacity. His criticisms and deductions, though made by a civilian, are not without professional value and interest. Neither can fault be found with his impartiality in treating of the Dutch wars. To an outsider—shall one use the word foreigner?—this is shown in a reference to a not unfamiliar English characteristic. Speaking of the feeling resulting from De Ruyter's cruise of retaliation in the track of Sir Robert Holmes, he says: "This counter stroke provoked a furious outcry of anger in England, for it is perhaps more the custom of the English than any other nation to be seized with unaffected moral indignation when another does unto them the disagreeable thing which they have just been doing to some one else."

Marching with Gomez: A War Correspondent's Field Note-Book, kept during Four Months with the Cuban Army. By Grover Flint. Illustrated by the Author. With an Historical Introduction by John Fiske. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. 1898.

It is just two years since Mr. Flint joined the Cuban insurgents, but he could have chosen no time when the account of his adventures with them would have found a more interested audience. He gives us not only the most novel and entertaining relation of the insurrection yet written, but, so far as it goes, the most authentic. Mr. Flint was peculiarly fitted for his task. He had lived for two years in Spain and spoke the language. He had served for two years more in the United States cavalry, and, as to matters of drill and discipline, was a competent military critic. In addition, he writes with naturalness and (though the story is in the first person) with an entire suppression of self. His numerous illustrations have a similar sincerity, that makes them much more interesting than the many vague "kodaks" that find their way from the field.

The value of the book lies in the fact that the author understood what he saw, and does not profess to describe much else. He uses hearsay sparingly, giving the sources of his information and the grounds of his belief in its authenticity. For instance, he saw nothing of the *reconcentrados* of the western cities, having landed at Cardenas and worked eastward to Nuevitas. A note by way of appendix is, therefore, all he has to say on that feature of the Cuban question in which we are now most interested, and which a less exact writer might have been tempted to embroider on. Spanish atrocities upon the *pacíficos* of the country, he speaks of without exaggeration, recounting in some detail a few he had knowledge of, and the general reports prevalent concerning similar ones. For the greater part, the book is about the life of a Cuban column on the march, in camp, and in battle, and about the insurgent military and civil organizations. Mr. Flint was, first, with a small force under Andarje; then with Lacret, who made him a brevet major; and lastly with Gomez himself. Of the civil leaders, he saw Cisneros, then President; Masó, his successor; Hernandez, and others. He followed Gomez into two small battles, and was under fire at other times.

His conclusions are that the Spanish officers invariably act on the defensive, and even then with poor judgment; instancing a three days' fight where an inferior force of insurgents occupied rising ground about a Spanish camp and forced the Spaniards to retreat without any effort to take the offensive, though they had artillery and the weight of numbers. To this policy, which the insurgents well understand, he attributes the absence of Spanish military success, as continuous attacks by light irregulars on columns in close formation (as in the fights at Concord and Bennington) ultimately tell against superior force. For the plan of campaign, Mr. Flint gives all the credit to Gomez, of whom he presents an attractive picture—a fearless, high-tempered old man, fierce of speech, a rigid disciplinarian, and a despiser of the pretentious, holding "the old-fashioned theory of the moral responsibility of journalism," and distrusting Americans, in the sincerity of whose sympathy he disbelieved. Throughout the eastern country Mr. Flint found the insurgent civil Government collecting taxes, maintaining schools, printing a newspaper and small books, and manufacturing a certain amount of war material. Both it and the military Government suppressed crime ruthlessly. He bears testimony to the peaceable character of the peasant population, and, without moralizing on it, to the destructiveness of the war.

Prof. Fiske's historical sketch of Cuba is slight, but exceedingly suggestive, like everything he writes. The book is well arranged, except that it lacks an index; and calls for little criticism, except from the proof-reader.

The Tenth Island: An Account of Newfoundland. By Beckley Willson. London: Grant Richards. 1897.

This little book gives but a very partial account of the Newfoundland past, and sketches with undue partisan ardor certain phases of its recent history. And its descriptions of the island's physical possibilities and resources are vague in the extreme. It also merely glances at the old futile colonization schemes by romantic adventurers like Lord Baltimore, who have left no other mementos than such poetic names as Avalon. It tells nothing of that strange rough-and-ready government over the fishing fleet and the few settlers exercised by those transitory and arbitrary administrators, the admirals; and though it enlarges on the French interpretation of France's treaty rights, it makes slight mention of the French occupation of and retirement from a large part of the island.

This curious story has been told in a ponderous sort of way and with much detail by Judge Prouse in his 'History of Newfoundland,' and by Hutton and Harvey in their 'Newfoundland'; but it still remains to be narrated by some historian of imagination as well as industry, for it is the most romantic of the many experiments in commerce and colonization made by the nations of Europe after the revival of maritime enterprise inaugurated by Prince Henry of Portugal, and so furiously stimulated by the discovery of America. Such a history will have to deal with the days of those hardy adventurers of the Elizabethan age who laid the foundations of the present British empire. It will also afford instructive illustrations of such a selfish trade policy as was the old colonial policy of Great Britain, especially when controlled by a single section; for England's treatment of Newfoundland was virtually controlled by the Devonshire fishing interests. It will also emphasize the lesson which statesmen find it so difficult to learn, that, as the world advances apace, their decisions must be regulated, not only by immediate exigencies, but by remote eventualities. The failure on the part of British diplomats adequately to foresee the future is the cause of the present burning question in Newfoundland, namely, the vague fishing-rights of the French over about one-half the island's shores. In the last century, when the treaties of Utrecht and Versailles were made, it would have betokened superhuman foresight on the part of these framers to anticipate the conditions prevailing to-day, and more than official command of language to avoid the ambiguity in phraseology which to-day gives the French a certain ground of justification for the position they take. The deduction to be drawn, therefore, is, inasmuch as you cannot see the ultimate scope of the concessions which may be made, make them as few and as slight as possible. Take all you can, even though not of apparent or immediate value, and give as little as may be. Certainly the embarrassments which have grown out of the apparently harmless fishing-rights conceded to the French nearly two centuries ago confirm those selfish principles, which are those on which the European Powers, great and small, seem to be acting in Africa, and on which this country has not unwisely shaped her conduct on more occasions than one.

The vehemence with which our author echoes the popular indignation of the Newfoundlanders at Britain's supine indifference to their grievances is comprehensible, though unreasonable. England's relations with France are too intricate and delicate to allow of their being strained for the sake of a very small portion of the very small population of Newfoundland. It is one of the disadvantages of an extended empire that,

to secure the welfare of the whole, the interests of a part must sometimes be, if not sacrificed, at least neglected. As it is, though Newfoundland has enjoyed self-government for over half a century, her population has grown to only 200,000, and though the revenue from seal fishing has more than compensated for any injury inflicted by the later interpretations of the French treaty rights, her annual exports amount to only $10,000,000. She suffers from a too great adherence to a single industry. Fish have been accounted by the world at large as the only product of the island and its coast, and the Newfoundlanders themselves have come to accept the world's estimate of its limited capabilities as correct. Fish and fishing still occupy the energies of the people and of the mercantile class, to the exclusion of all other interests.

But the island seems to be at last throwing off this illusion. A railroad now traverses it. The interior is no longer an unknown and forbidding wilderness, but is found to conceal varied resources. Very considerable mineral wealth is being exploited as a supplement to the fisheries, and agricultural activity will follow, for the island, though protected by a formidable rocky sea-wall, is by no means barren. Standing as a bulwark, protecting as it were the commerce of the St. Lawrence and the Lakes against the angry Atlantic, this great island is sure to play in peace and war no inconspicuous part. Her strategic position makes her invaluable to Great Britain, and her situation as a half-way house between the head of lake navigation and Europe will confer on her advantages not appreciated or even dreamed of to-day.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adler, Cyrus, and Ramsay, Allan. Told in the Coffee-House. Turkish Tales. Macmillan. 75c.
Baedeker, Karl. Spain and Portugal. Leipzig: Karl Baedeker; New York: Scribners. $4.80.
Coates, Florence Earle. Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Dickens, Charles. David Copperfield. 2 vols. Dombey & Son. 2 vols. Tale of Two Cities. [Gadshill Edition.] Scribners.
Egerton, George. Fantasias. John Lane. $1.
Fletcher, J. S. The Making of Matthias. John Lane. $1.50.
Gerhard, W. P. Sanitary Engineering. New York: The Author.
Harrisse, Henry. The Diplomatic History of America. Its First Chapter. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50.
Illingworth, J. R. Divine Immanence. Macmillan. $1.50.
Jayne, Dr. Horace. Mammalian Anatomy: A Preparation for Human and Comparative Anatomy. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Levasseur, E. L'Ouvrier Américain. 2 vols. Paris: L. Larose.
Mallock, W. H. Aristocracy and Evolution. Macmillan. $3.
Martin, Rev. Chalmers. Apostolic and Modern Missions. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Maxims of Goethe. Translated by W. B. Rönnfeldt. London: Walter Scott; New York: A. Lovell & Co. 40c.
McMillan, D. C. The Elective Franchise in the United States. Putnams. $1.
Morgan, H. J. The Canadian Men and Women of the Time: A Hand-book of Canadian Biography. Toronto: William Briggs. $3.
Morris, Prof. E. P. The Captives and Trinummus of Plautus. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35.
Mudge, Rev. James. The Best of Browning. Eaton & Mains. $1.50.
Murray, D. C. This Little World. Appletons. $1.
Naegely, Henry. J. F. Millet and Rustic Art. London: Elliot Stock.
Newbolt, Henry. Admirals All, and Other Verses. John Lane. 35c.
Pallen, Condé B. New Rubáiyát. St. Louis: B. Herder. 50c.
Prince, Helen C. At the Sign of the Silver Crescent. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Rathbone, St. George. The Girl from Hong Kong. F. T. Neely. 50c.
Renan's Life of Jesus. Translated by W. G. Hutchinson. London: Walter Scott; New York: A. Lovell & Co. 40c.
Smith, Hannah. Music: How it Came to be What It Is. Scribners. $1.25.
Smith, H. A. Macaulay's Essay on Addison. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Some Philosophy of the Hermetics. Los Angeles: R. R. Baumgardt & Co.
Stanley, H. M. Through South Africa. Scribners. $1.
The Trial of Émile Zola. New York: B. R. Tucker. 25c.
Theuriet, André. Pages Choisies. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Uhlenbeck, Prof. C. C. A Manual of Sanskrit Phonetics. London: Luzac & Co.
Van Dyke, Rev. Henry. Sermons to Young Men. Scribners. $1.25.
Whigham, H. J. How to Play Golf. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Whitaker's Directory of Titled Persons for the Year 1898. Brentanos. $1.
Wood, Henry. Victor Serenus: A Story of the Pauline Era. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 7, 1898.

The Week.

Trunkfuls of Cuban bonds are said to be in the possession of yellow journalists and other persons supposed to be influential. These "securities," says the Chicago *Record's* Washington correspondent, "are among the greatest embarrassments felt by the President in dealing with this matter." Obviously, these bonds are a fund for bribery. They cost nothing to the issuers; consequently, they can be distributed in any amount. Being issued by no recognized government, they can be repudiated at any time, but the holders can afford to take this risk, since they pay nothing for them. The bonds purport to become valid upon the recognition of the Cuban republic by Congress. Consequently, every holder of them has a motive to work for such recognition. "Many of the bonds," says the *Record's* correspondent, "have been given away to Cuban sympathizers, and millions have been sold for 3, 4, 5, and 10 cents on the dollar to raise funds to carry on the war. The members of the Junta have trunks full of them, and it is said that nobody knows the amount outstanding."

We have not yet heard from Mr. Dingley regarding the product of his revenue law in March. This is the month when import tariffs traditionally do their largest work. It is also the month upon which Dingley himself had fixed for a generous exhibit this season; in fact, the promise of a heavy surplus had originally been made for January, and was postponed only through stress of circumstances to March. What is the result? Customs receipts show decrease of $6,383,000 from March of 1897; they exceed only slightly the same month's yield in the worst years of trade prostration after the panic of 1893, and they run short of the March returns in years such as 1889 and 1890 by twenty to twenty-five per cent. Meantime expenditures are, of course, enlarged again; the Government's disbursements last month being, in fact, the heaviest ever made in that period during the present generation. The result, naturally, is another monthly deficit in income, not rendered any more cheerful from the fact that April's quarterly disbursements leave in a normal year a deficit of four to eight million dollars. We must therefore again remind the enlightened Dingley that a new explanation is in order, and that a new and more distant date for the inevitable surplus must be fixed. He surely will not leave the *Tribune* and his other faithful allies to meet this fresh discouragement alone.

Mr. Bryan has kept pretty quiet on the subject of war since the present excitement began, but he made a significant remark the other day, that if we have war the Republicans will be sorry that they upset the income tax. Now, it is not quite true that the Republicans upset the tax, although more of them than of Democrats may have contributed to that end. The tax was upset by the Supreme Court, and in that tribunal politics did not cut any figure whatever. The opinion of the court was rendered by Chief Justice Fuller, a Democrat, and the dissenting opinion by Justice Harlan, a Republican. Nevertheless, Mr. Bryan's remark has a deal of significance. In case of war it will be necessary to impose war taxes. It is well to cast a look backward at the war period in order to see what sources of revenue are available that are not now resorted to. First is the internal tax on manufactures, which yielded in one year during the civil war $127,000,000. Incomes came next with $61,000,000. Licenses, other than liquor and tobacco, yielded $14,000,000, stamps $15,000,000, gross receipts $11,000,000, and so on. There were taxes on sales, on salaries, on railroads, on banks, on pianos, billiard tables, watches, carriages, and horses, on perfumery and patent medicines, and on friction matches, and the tobacco tax was much heavier than it is now. The whole amount realized from taxes that have since been repealed was in one year $256,000,000. Now, if an income tax is impossible, at all events the other abolished taxes would have to be revived, because the tariff cannot be made to yield more than it is now yielding. In fact, war would cut down importation, and therefore customs duties, enormously, thus requiring a greater proportion of receipts from internal revenue. It is well to look these facts in the face.

The change of opinion among the people of California on the subject of Hawaiian annexation is highly important. It was essential to the success of the scheme that it should be favored by the State of the Union which is in closest relations with the islands. One plan of bringing about annexation which has been much discussed was to make the islands a county of California, giving it one member of the State Senate and two of the Assembly. A Washington letter in the last issue of the *Hawaiian Gazette* received in this office says that not only Speaker Reed, but many members of both branches of Congress, fear that a State will be created soon, and two Senators and members of Congress given to the newly acquired territory; that "some advocates of the county plan are urging that it will disarm the objections of those who foresee statehood in a short time, and secure their assent to the proposition." But this project is impracticable unless the California people want Hawaii for a county, and it is now clear that they do not. The *Gazette* gets the same news that we do regarding public sentiment in California, reporting that "the labor unions of the rural districts of the State will oppose it strongly, the farmers will also oppose it, and probably the sugar-beet men will follow them"; and it concludes that "the proposition to annex the islands as a county of the State of California does not appear to be, as matters now are, a very practicable matter."

The persons who have been favoring the bill to rob the Duncan Mission in Alaska of nine-tenths of its reservation and all of its means for productive industry, have found the road more thorny than they anticipated. A considerable and influential sentiment against the perpetration of any such injustice has been aroused. This may explain the introduction on March 25 of a new bill (H. R. 9481) by Mr. Dovener, entitled: "A bill to create a permanent reservation on Annette Island, southeastern Alaska, for the use of the Metlakahtla Indians and other natives of Alaska." Upon this promising title follows a text which, with immaterial modifications, confirms to the Indians about one-tenth of their present reservation, as in the previous bill, and concludes by repealing the provision of the Revised Statutes establishing the present reservation. The contrast between the title and the real intent of the bill is regarded by land pirates and Indian harriers generally as an exquisite bit of humor.

Mr. Wanamaker continues to expose the rottenness of boss government in Pennsylvania. He delivered another speech Saturday night, at Conshohocken, in which he declared that "the cause of the recent collapse of four banks and trust companies in Philadelphia may be put down to scrofulous politics." The banks which have failed had held a large amount of State money without paying interest on it, and Mr. Wanamaker told his hearers that "the taxes paid by you and others for your schools, charities, and State maintenance, have, to nearly a million, gone down in the wreck, only to be recovered by the assessment of derelict directors and trustful stockholders." He set forth the intimate relations that existed between the People's Bank (the Quay bank) and the Guarantors' Finance Company, and

said that these relations should surprise no one, "as the same political friendship, the same dangerous relations, the same baneful influences, and the same daring men were the controlling power around and within both institutions." Mr. Wanamaker proceeded to describe in detail one of the most extraordinary performances ever known in an American State—the visit of a United States Senator to Harrisburg, "where, for a night and a day, he lobbied to pass what was known as the infamous Guarantors' Insurance bill, which was intended to give this insolvent company the right to amend its own charter by a vote of its directors; to change its plan and classes of insurance without authority of the State Insurance Department, thereby placing it beyond the jurisdiction of the State insurance officials, and making this particular company unanswerable to the protective insurance laws of the State." He told how from the Speaker's room this United States Senator directed the fight for the bill; how, while the House was in session, he summoned members to him, and on political and personal grounds urged them to vote for the iniquitous measure; how every branch of the State political machine, under his direction, was put in motion—requests, promises, and threats being freely used.

Mr. Wanamaker declared further that "only once in twenty years has a State Treasurer been elected that Quay did not own politically, and but once in all these years have we had a glimpse of the methods employed." This was in 1879, when Samuel Butler was elected as an anti-machine man, and upon examining the accounts of his predecessor he "found due-bills, orders, and worthless securities amounting, it is alleged, to several hundred thousand dollars, which he refused to receive as good assets." Mr. Wanamaker proceeded:

> "The story has been told in the New York *Evening Post* and several other metropolitan journals, and never yet has been denied, of how Quay, the political boss, and Walters, Cashier of the State Treasury, speculated in stocks with money belonging to the State Treasury, and substituted practically worthless securities for cash they had used; of how the approaching time for Treasurer-elect Butler to take his seat rendered it necessary to make good a shortage of what is commonly reported to be $300,000; of how an exposure was imminent when a friend came to the rescue and raised the money. The details of all this were known to but few until long after. Walters died by his own hand, and before he died he wrote a letter telling all. During the administration of Henry K. Boyer, Treasurer, now Director of the Mint, a threatened investigation forced his chief clerk to leave the country, and he is to-day a fugitive from justice. The State was saved from loss, it is alleged, by the liberal contributions from corporations and individuals who have long since received their reward by favorable legislation, secured through the influence of the machine."

It is a great thing for the cause of good government to have such revelations of boss rule in Pennsylvania as these from such a source. It is no Mugwump or doctrinaire who tells the story; it is a life-long Republican, who has never bolted the regular ticket, and who has been "on the inside," so that he "knows what he is talking about."

The people of the State owe it to Gov. Black that the session of the Legislature which ended on Thursday was one of the least harmful that we have had for many years. Not since Mr. Cleveland was Governor, have we had as the result of a winter's work a smaller amount of positively bad legislation than is to be found in the bills now awaiting executive action. This is due entirely to the position which Gov. Black took openly at the beginning of the session, when he declared that he would not give his approval to any measures amending the Greater New York charter except such as might be found essential to its actual working, and would not sanction "deal" measures of any kind. The flood of bills amending the charter was tremendous, reaching nearly or quite 100 during the first few weeks, but few of them got through both houses and none of them will become law. The great value of this service to orderly and honest government lies in the fact that the bulk of this legislation consists of what are known as "deal" bills. When a Republican Legislature proposes to interfere with the government of this city by Democrats, the main object in view is to get a share in the patronage of the government. The new charter placed an enormous amount of patronage in the hands of Tammany Hall, and as the placing of it there was due entirely to the course of the Platt Republicans in running a candidate of their own for Mayor, it was only natural for those Republicans to desire to secure what they considered their fair share of the spoils of victory. Their flood of charter amendments was designed to extort this, and but for the Governor's opposition they would have succeeded in passing their bills, thus meddling with our new city government before it had had an opportunity of being tested by practice, or would have compelled Tammany to give "terms" as the price of withdrawing them. Extreme examples of these measures were to be found in a proposal to abolish the new City Magistrates' Court, restoring the old Police-Justice system, and to abolish the Rapid-Transit Commission and substitute in its place a bi-partisan commission appointed by Tammany's Mayor.

Gov. Black's course is all the more commendable since, in taking it, he placed himself in direct antagonism to Mr. Platt, who is supposed to control absolutely the question of the Governor's renomination. He not only planted himself squarely in the way of all "deal" measures, but he exerted his power as Governor to force through the Legislature a revolutionary system of primary control which was bitterly distasteful to the Platt machine. What the law embodying this system will secure for us in practice remains to be seen, but there is no question that its passage is one of the most notable victories for independent party action ever achieved in this State. Its inventors and advocates were Republicans who revolted from machine leadership in this city last year, and the course of the Governor in cordially and efficiently supporting their ideas for purer party methods was a recognition of their power in the politics of the State which of itself is a distinct set-back to bossism. A bossed Legislature has been compelled to pass a reform primary law which contains a specific recognition of the right to disregard machine party obligations and orders in municipal campaigns and elections.

We called attention in last week's issue to a suit which had been instituted in this city, on a charge of criminal libel, against a man accused of furnishing reporters with false information for publication. A similar suit has recently been before the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court, Fourth Department, and a verdict against the defendant has been affirmed with costs. The facts in this case are very interesting. In May, 1895, Senator Coffey, who represented Kings County in the Legislature, furnished the reporters with some extremely damaging statements about two members of the Assembly who were pushing a bill which Mr. Coffey was opposing. One of these sued him for libel and got a verdict of $6,500. Mr. Coffey carried the case to the Appellate Division, which held that while the evidence did not warrant the conclusion that the defendant was guilty of express malice in giving the information to the reporters, still it did "permit the inference that such statement was made carelessly and recklessly, and if the jury took that view of it, as they undoubtedly did, they were furnished sufficient justification for awarding punitive as well as compensatory damages." In their opinion the court called attention to an amendment to the section of the Penal Code, made in 1894, which renders it much more stringent than it was in its original form. Originally it provided that anybody who in any way transmits libellous information to a newspaper "for publication," and "thereby secures actual publication of the same," is guilty of a misdemeanor. As amended, the transmission of information, "which, if published, would be a libel," is made a misdemeanor. This makes the business of "stuffing" reporters with malicious information extremely dangerous.

A new law in relation to newspaper libel has been passed by the New Jersey Legislature. It contains some provisions very like those in the New York

penal code, though less stringent in character. Any person who transmits libellous information to any newspaper or other publication, and thereby secures its actual publication, is declared guilty of a misdemeanor and liable to a fine not exceeding $500, or imprisonment at hard labor not exceeding two years, or both. A valuable provision for the press is the second section of the law, which provides that, in every civil action for libel, "unless the plaintiff shall prove either malice in fact, or that the defendant, after having been requested by him in writing to retract the libellous charge in as public a manner as that in which it was made, failed to do so within reasonable time, he shall recover only his actual damage proved and specially alleged in the declaration." This is in marked contrast to the kind of law which Croker and Platt tried to have enacted in this State, for it is designed to furnish reputable newspapers with an opportunity to make full reparation for errors into which they are led by malicious or careless informants.

The war on department stores has pretty much died out in this part of the country. In Chicago it has entered on a curious phase. An appeal was first made to the Legislature for the passage of a State law to break up the big establishments, but nothing was done at Springfield. Then the City Council was attacked, and an ordinance was passed by that body from which much was hoped. But the result has been disappointing, and the promoters of the movement have concluded that relief cannot be secured in this way. The next step in the campaign is very curious. The complaint against the big stores has always been that they undersell the small stores. A number of small dealers have now agreed to "pool their issues" and try to undersell the undersellers. They propose to open a large store in the heart of the city, which will be supplied with goods by the coöperating merchants, each of whom is to get a percentage of profits from all sales to customers living in his district. The "district" notion is an odd one, but the fundamental idea underlying the enterprise is sound—that the only effective way to fight cheap stores is with cheaper.

Prof. Briggs's final decision to cast anchor in the roomy harbor of the Episcopal Church will be variously received by Presbyterians. The militant brethren will profess satisfaction that they have finally got rid of him that troubled Israel. They will, however, not be innocent of inward quakings lest other troublers arise in his stead, and they will not be nearly as happy as they pretend to be over the fact that a man of the broadest scholarship and most sincere and undoubted piety has not been able to live and work in their communion. On the other hand, the liberal wing in the Presbyterian Church, some of the leaders of which were earnestly hoping that the ecclesiastical ban might soon be lifted from Prof. Briggs, will both grieve at his departure and probably be all the bolder in asserting that his views should be and, in fact, are tolerated in Presbyterian clergymen. The denomination, in truth, seems to have exhausted itself in casting out Prof. Briggs, and to be in no mood to pursue others for the same offences. He has gone, but his heresy remains, is openly avowed by prominent Presbyterians, and is in a fair way to become orthodoxy, as usual. But his loss can but be considered as the severest which American Presbyterianism has ever sustained.

The rejection by the Dominion Senate of the bill to ratify the contract entered into last January by the Canadian Government for the construction of a railway from Telegraph Creek to Lake Teslin in the Yukon district, has been a foregone conclusion for some time, and it appears, notwithstanding the utterance of partisan papers, to meet with very general approval, or at any rate acquiescence, among our neighbors. It is true that the majority of the Senate belong to the party now in Opposition in Canadian politics, but the unbiassed Canadian does not appear to consider their present course prompted by partisan feelings, but rather reluctantly taken in what they have deemed the best interests of the country. The fact is, the secret manner in which the contract was entered into, the neglect to afford an opportunity for tenders from other quarters, the enormous land subsidy (at least 3,750,000 acres, with all mineral rights), to be granted to the contractors, and the extraordinary prerogatives proposed to be given in the selection of blocks of land to make up this amount—all these things have caused the "deal" to be less liked the more it was looked at. Nevertheless, the action of the Senate is a bold one, probably the boldest taken by it since its origin at the confederation in 1867. The Dominion Senate holds a very different constitutional position from our own, which, as every one knows, represents preëminently the federal element in the Constitution. The Canadian Senate is intended as far as possible to hold a position similar to that of the House of Lords in the United Kingdom; for the framers of the Dominion scheme of confederation sought in every way to reflect the forms and preserve the principles of the modern British Constitution. All the constitutional rules and conventions which regulate the relations of the two houses in Great Britain regulate those of the two houses in Canada. Hence, to throw out a bill which has passed the popular House by a substantial majority, in a matter of urgency and of great popular interest, is a courageous act.

The conduct of the English press during the present crisis in British affairs is worthy of all praise. This crisis is ten times more serious for them than the Cuban crisis is for us. They are threatened with a war which would task all their resources, and might end in depriving them of their maritime supremacy. We, according to our most excited patriots, have nothing to fear but a petty sixty-day conflict, which can have no effect whatever on our national fortunes. Yet there has been the utmost calm and rationality among English newspapers — no shrieking, yelling, blathering, lying. Neither Salisbury nor Balfour nor Chamberlain has agreed to serve on the advertising committee of the *Halfpenny Blatherskite*, nor has any member of either house agreed to produce blatherskite in debate under contract in order to promote war. The spectacle is an impressive and ought to be a useful one. It is true the British ought all to be killed, and the monarchy broken up, but their way of meeting crises like the present is worthy of imitation.

The passage of the naval bill in the German Reichstag without any opposition, in spite of all the former mutterings and protests, shows how completely the Emperor's "mailed fist" policy has triumphed. The scanty support given to the attempt to honor the memory of the men who fell in the insurrection of 1848, and the presence of several of the sons of these men in the Conservative ranks, in some cases as agents of William's absolutist policy, is a striking illustration of the way Germany has fallen away from the liberal ranks. Fifty years ago she was abreast of France as a supporter of liberal political ideas; to-day she apparently cares nothing about them. "More markets" is now the cry, instead of "more liberties." The whole youth of a country cannot be put under arms without enormously strengthening the principle of authority, and discrediting discussion, and rendering the bulk of the population less fit for the conduct of a democratic government. Moreover, it must not be forgotten how much liberal institutions have been discredited, in sober German eyes, by the career run by democracy in France, here, and in Austria. The corruption, the disappearance of leading men, the rise of the "bosses," the fights in legislative assemblies, the absurdities promulgated in wild waves of passion, have turned the German heart perceptibly towards the monarchical régime, as the surest, the safest and most money-making. "Consecrated persons" are again on top, a century after "divine right" became ridiculous.

DELIBERATION.

The most striking feature of the Declaration of Independence is the spirit of deliberation which it breathes. It was no hasty step which the representatives of the colonies took in severing the bonds with the mother country. Nor did the statesmen of that day consider that the mere announcement that our people wanted to be free would suffice. In the impressive language of that great instrument, they recognized that, when so grave a step was to be taken, "a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation." History has fully justified their action.

There is to-day danger of war between the United States and Spain, and the most astonishing feature of the situation is the lack of deliberation which has thus far characterized the members of the war-making body at Washington. The President has from the first shown the clearest perception of the tremendous responsibility which would rest upon any man in this republic who should precipitate a war which might honorably have been avoided. But in both Senate and House there have been plenty of members who have not dissembled their desire for war, and who could not conceal their fear that the Executive might secure what this nation has sought in Cuba without war.

There is overwhelming evidence that the people have been with the President in his policy of deliberation, as against the Congressmen who are for rushing into war. Every day, in spite of the continuance of false rumors, and in spite of the possibility that the latest peace news may also be false or exaggerated, brings fresh justification of the President's policy. Every day's events strengthen the position he has taken, and make peace more probable. The nearer the time comes when, according to the Jingoes, "something must be done," and men are to begin to die for Cuba, the stronger becomes the wish that the controversy may be ended without killing anybody or destroying any property. Every day makes Spain less able to fight, more willing to treat and yield. The more she thinks over the issue of an armed conflict with the United States, and the more she hears from the rest of Europe about it, the less valiant she feels. That she may fight still is, of course, possible. Our contention is simply that the longer fighting is postponed, the less likely it becomes. For this reason, it is not impossible that when President McKinley's account is made up at the last great day, he will find the saving of thousands of lives, the prevention of thousands of sorrows put down to his credit. He, more than any other man in public life, has realized the great truth that war is something that rarely suffers from delay; that the occasions are few when more talk and more consideration may not prevent it altogether.

On our side we see evidences every day of progress, not towards war, but towards peace, of increasing confidence in the President's policy. Such, conspicuously, was the speech made last Thursday in the House by Mr. Johnson of Indiana, in deprecation of war, in which he was not afraid to hurl defiance at war hissers in the gallery, on behalf of humanity and civilization. Mr. Frye of Maine, who has been very Jingoistic, telegraphs to the Maine State Board of Trade:

> "Their confidence in our Chief Magistrate does not exceed mine. I am well informed of his purposes, his conduct, and his hopes: know that diplomatic negotiations are about concluded and their purport; have hopes that the result may be what we all desire, an honorable peace, but propose, so far as I can, to be prepared for disappointment. The committee on foreign relations, of which I have the honor to be a member, will do nothing rashly, will give to the resolutions referred to it careful, conscientious, and deliberate consideration; will be in constant communication with the President, and without doubt act in entire harmony with him."

He would not have said anything publicly about "hopes" of peace, or "careful, conscientious, and deliberate consideration," three weeks before. His talk would then have been about the "national honor" and the need of prompt action. Then, we must remember that three weeks have immensely diminished the influence of the yellow journals, which were in the beginning the chief promoters of the war fever. Their lies and exaggerations have been among the chief influences against which the President had to contend in following his own judgment. Had he been influenced by the excitement they stirred up in the beginning, about five thousand young men would have been killed or maimed and a ship or two sunk by this time. They have, however, overdone the thing and reduced themselves to impotence. Sounder notions of "national honor" have begun to circulate. This phrase "honor" is borrowed from the duellists, but has really no meaning in the international relations of a community like ours. In the duellist terminology, a man's "honor" means his reputation for physical courage. It is to prevent any doubts about this courage that he fights. Accordingly, we often find that a man who has fought many duels declines to fight another, on the ground that he has "made his proofs"; that is, has shown conclusively that he is brave. In the duelling world, therefore, fighting about anything and everything, is absolutely necessary. The question, Are you right or are you wrong? is of no consequence. The one question is, Are you afraid of being shot at or stabbed?

The adoption of the term "honor," as used by duellists, by a nation like ours, in dealing with a nation like Spain, is, therefore, ridiculous. Saying that our honor in the bellicose sense requires us to fight Spain is absurd. It is like saying that a brawny pugilist's "honor" requires him to meet a slight and consumptive youth in the "twelve-foot ring." We cannot be suspected of fear in the duellist's sense, as a motive for going to war with a declining and distracted people like the Spaniards. "Honor" of that kind is useless baggage for a rich and puissant nation 70,000,000 strong. The only honor she needs to possess is the honor of a respectable and respected business man; that is, a reputation for living honestly, fulfilling all obligations faithfully, injuring no man, and giving every man his due. This duellistic honor goes strictly with war patriotism. The man who has most "honor" for war is generally the man who has least patriotism for peace, who does not care how his country is governed, or to what bad influences she is exposed. He will cheat, steal, read yellow journals, go to the country on election day, make fraudulent contracts, and invite Croker to dinner, in time of peace; but the minute the fierce blasts of war blow in his ears, his patriotism infuriates him, and he wants to kill anybody who doubts it. As Capt. Mahan pointed out the other day in the *Evening Post*, the honor of a strong people lies simply in doing right. Its strength gives it the luxury of a moral sense; and the moral sense of a Christian people covers love of all things which make for peace, and nothing makes more for peace than slow negotiations.

AMERICAN FINANCE.

The hot-heads in Congress who want to plunge the country into war without adequate cause and without sufficient military or naval preparation, could not be expected to have much regard for financial preparation. Nevertheless that would be the first question to be considered, and the most pressing one from start to finish. Fortunately we have at the head of the Treasury Department a man of financial experience and not a tyro. In this respect we are in better shape than we were at the beginning of the civil war, when we had in that position, indeed, a man of high character, fine legal attainments, and lofty patriotism, but one wholly destitute of financial training, and who caused a suspension of specie payments quite unnecessarily at the very beginning of the struggle.

The first thing to be considered is the present financial situation. This must be considered precarious. The Government has demand liabilities outstanding to the amount of nearly $900,000,000. This includes silver certificates and silver dollars. As these must be kept at par with gold, under penalty of a general smash, they must be reckoned in the same category as the greenbacks and Treasury notes. The two latter amount to $450,000,000 in round numbers. In normal times and in a condition of fairly

good business, none of these notes would be presented for payment unless gold were wanted for export, which is not the case now. The fact remains, however, that those notes are liable to be presented for redemption. The amount of gold in the Treasury is only $150,000,000 or thereabout.

The next element in the situation is the ominous fact that the public receipts are not equal to the expenses on a peace establishment; that the Government is now, and has been for a long time, living in part on a reserve borrowed by the last administration. This reserve has been diminishing gradually, but would have served for a sufficient time to determine whether the Dingley bill would furnish the needed amount. If not, then new taxes would be required and would be enacted in due time. If we plunge into war, three consequences will follow: the demands on the Treasury will be vastly increased; importations, and consequently customs receipts, will fall off enormously; the Government will be compelled to have recourse to the gold reserve, and the holders of greenbacks will have a powerful incentive to present them for redemption lest specie payments be suspended. Who are the holders of greenbacks? Every man and woman in the United States who has a dollar in pocket or in bank. All these dollars are resolvable into legal-tender money, and all legal-tender money is resolvable into gold as long as the Treasury has gold to pay. The drain would be manifested in New York because here the bulk of the gold is stored, but it would most likely start in Minnesota or Texas, whose bankers, anticipating a run, would order their New York balances to be remitted to them in gold. If their New York correspondents should tender them greenbacks instead, they would take these around the corner to the sub-treasury and draw the gold themselves. Refusal on the part of the New York banks to draw gold at the request of the country banks would cause not more than one day's delay in getting at the Government's hoard. Probably, in such a mêlée, we should hear a good deal of unmeaning gabble about the lack of patriotism on the part of bankers, as though bankers could exercise any volition to prevent their depositors from taking what they are entitled to have. The element of danger in all cases of this kind is that each man fears that somebody else will get ahead of him in the race for self-protection, and therefore each will want to take an early start.

Fortunately we are not engaged in war yet, but if war comes we shall be on a paper basis, which means that the Government will be bankrupt, within thirty days, unless a large loan is authorized and negotiated promptly. What kind of a loan shall this be? Under present circumstances it is doubtful if anything short of a gold bond could be sold except at a ruinous discount. Certainly none could be sold abroad unless made specifically payable in gold. What view might be taken by capitalists at home is a matter of doubt. Capitalists are generally opposed to war except in self-defence. They are much opposed to an emotional war, a Jingo war, an unnecessary war, and they would take the most mercenary and businesslike view of a war pushed upon an unwilling President by a Congress that had given no mature consideration beforehand to the means for carrying it on. They would look at the subject as a matter of investment strictly, and would buy the bonds or not buy them according as they might consider them safe or not safe. They could not avoid considering the fact that a large party, claiming to be a majority of the nation, are in favor of paying all the public obligations in silver worth less than half the value of the present standard. They could not avoid considering the fact that war is an uncertain factor in the polity of governments, that the most unexpected things may happen both internally and externally—things which need not be considered now—and hence that it would be the part of prudence to insist upon having a gold bond in exchange for gold. Would our silverite Senate ever pass a bill for an issue of bonds payable in gold? We pause for a reply.

SPANISH FINANCE.

The cost of the Cuban insurrection is charged against the Cuban treasury, but this is a fiction of bookkeeping, as the Cuban treasury has long been bankrupt, and even in years of peace could not meet the heavy charges imposed upon it by former insurrections. To sell in foreign markets bonds with a Cuban guarantee only was out of the question, and a Spanish backing was necessary. As the more profitable sources of revenue in Spain outside of the customs had been pledged or farmed out, and could not be hypothecated more than they were, the customs revenue was made the foundation of a new loan, the evidences of which were to be "Cuban" bonds, guaranteed by a pledge of the "Spanish customs." Even this combined and somewhat mongrel scheme did not appeal to the investors of France and Belgium, and the Spanish Government was thrown back upon internal loans.

To what extent was the Spanish customs revenue available for credit? The receipts from this source in 1896-'97 were $24,195,520, which would pay the interest at 5 per cent. on about $500,000,000. But the full amount cannot be thus employed, as a sum must be set aside each year for extinguishing a part of the capital of the debt. Since May, 1897, when authority to use this customs revenue for credit purposes was conferred on the ministry, nearly three-fourths of the possibilities it contained have been exhausted. A first issue of 400,000 bonds pledged nearly one-half ($11,826,558) and a second issue, 200,000 bonds, again took its full quota of one-fourth ($5,913,279), leaving available the sum of $6,455,715. At the end of December, 1897, the cabinet decided to create a third issue, to be of 400,000 bonds, to be held against any emergency that might arise, the special emergency being trouble with the United States. Although this third issue more than exhausts the revenue from customs, assurance is given of a further pledge of the taxes on colonial merchandise, on spirits, and on foreign and colonial sugars—taxes which produced in 1896-'97 about $4,613,000. Beyond this it does not seem possible for Spain to go in pledging her existing revenue. Only a drastic reform of her revenue system can provide new resources.

Having established the credit for a loan and determined the nature of the security to represent it, the question of disposing of the bonds was still to be met. A 5 per cent. bond at 60 should be a tempting purchase, provided there was any confidence in the ability of the borrower to meet the full obligations of the contract. Unfortunately, no foreign investors held this confidence to such a degree as to warrant the purchase of large blocks of the Spanish-Cuban bonds; and, indeed, the older securities of the Peninsula, bearing only 4 per cent. interest, were rapidly returning to domestic markets. In this dilemma, the first two issues of the new bonds were sold at home, and largely to the Bank of Spain. This operation is, however, considered as a temporary expedient, as the Bank passes the securities on to its clients, and thus is enabled to make a fair showing in its balance-sheets. At the end of December, 1896, the Bank held of the 4 per cent. stock, $79,340,000, and in December, 1897, $77,310,000. The large transactions in Spanish-Cuban bonds had left no trace in that item of state securities in the Bank's reports, and must be sought in the loans and discounts. That item had risen from $75,600,000 in January, 1897, to $128,550,000 at the end of December, 1897, and on March 5, 1898, stood at the high figure of $143,595,000.

This shows how Spain is meeting the expenses of the war. Were it not for the Bank, she could not obtain funds, and every recourse to the Bank weakens the position of that institution. Already on a paper-money basis, it is only by increasing its issues that the demands of Government can be met; and every new issue makes necessary the form of a security. As it is, the Administration is depositing with the Bank the Spanish-Cuban bonds and receiving advances in banknotes. The "reserve" of gold and

silver still represents a good proportion to the circulation, but in the last year the Bank felt called upon to purchase gold to place in the reserve, and this purchase involved a heavy loss. In January, 1895, a month before the insurrection broke out in Cuba, the Bank held $38,951,466 in gold and $54,154,412 in silver, against a circulation of $177,890,041. In January, 1898, the gold had increased to $45,895,962; the silver had fallen to $50,193,081, and the circulation had mounted to $236,098,248. The movement since the beginning of the year is of particular interest, as it marks the extraordinary activity in issuing banknotes incident to the steady demands of the Government on the Bank.

The following table gives in millions the specie and the circulation of the Bank of Spain each week since the first week in 1898:

	Gold.	Silver.	Circulation.
January 8.....	$47.2	$51.5	$242.6
January 15.....	47.2	51.6	245.2
January 22.....	47.2	52.4	245.8
January 29.....	47.2	52.8	246.9
February 5.....	47.5	52.6	249.5
February 12.....	47.5	53.3	250.3
February 19.....	47.6	53.5	249.3
February 26.....	47.7	54.4	249.8
March 5.....	47.8	54.4	250.9
March 12.....	47.9	54.3	251.9

Evidently this operation cannot go on much longer. As soon as the Spanish-Cuban bonds are exhausted, the Government must create some new revenue or credit. The first would require time, and the second will not check the vicious involving of the Bank in the bankruptcy of the nation. As it is, the Bank is authorized to issue $300,000,000 of its notes, provided a reserve of one-third the amount issued be kept in specie. There is sufficient gold and silver now in the vaults of the Bank to constitute a reserve for the full amount of issue authorized. In a few months of actual war the limit of issue will have been reached, and, with the currency already at 34 per cent. discount, a removal of every limitation on the amount will precipitate a depreciation that must involve a financial cataclysm and temporary paralysis of all commerce and industry.

The very basis on which these bonds are issued is suffering a contraction, and so affecting the value of the securities; for the customs receipts in the first seven months of 1897-'98 were more than $2,400,000 less than in the corresponding period of 1896-'97. Another significant move is the fall in the quotations of Spanish securities other than Government issues. Indeed, the fluctuations in the railroad stocks are of greater moment than the variations in the Government securities, for the railroad obligations have a certain guarantee or value behind them, while the worth of the national stocks is dependent on the resources of the Treasury. Whatever financial institutions rest upon movements in these Government and railroad bonds have suffered in credit. The larger part of the assets of the Crédit Mobilier Espagnol consists of these obligations, and has always consisted of them. The shares of this society were quoted at 190 in 1890; 80, in 1893; 63, in 1895; and are now selling at 52, having touched the extremely low mark of 40 in 1897. Spain is expending $9,650,000 a month in Cuba, and had a total debt of $1,649,475,737 on January 1, 1898, of which nearly one-sixth was a floating debt, certain to prove troublesome when it must be met or funded. The charges on this great debt take two-thirds of the entire revenue of the state ($101,746,832 out of a budget of $152,970,000), leaving less than $50,759,000 to meet the current expenses of the Administration, a costly war in Cuba, and extraordinary demands in the Philippine Islands. It follows that Spain is conducting her wars entirely on credit, and, as foreign money markets are closed to her, on credit of the worst and most dangerous description—internal loans at ruinous rates, a floating debt, already large, and bank issues at greatly depreciated values.

THE NEBRASKA FREIGHT-RATE DECISION.

The unanimous opinion of the United States Supreme Court handed down on March 7, prohibiting the enforcement of the Nebraska maximum freight-rate act of 1893, is the last of a long line of important cases affecting railway property, the first of which were the so-called Granger decisions (Munn vs. Illinois, 94 U. S., 113). Down to the period of the Granger agitation it had always been assumed that railway property in the United States was protected against invasion by State authority, through the clause in the Constitution which prohibits interference with the "obligation of contracts" (art. 1, sec. 10). This was owing to the authority of the Dartmouth College case (4 Wheat., 518), according to which charters were contracts, with which the States could not tamper. In the Granger cases, however, while this principle was neither overruled nor avowedly qualified, a new principle was resorted to which was adapted to impair most seriously the defences of property against legislative attack. Under this ruling, all property was held subject to a right of legislative supervision and regulation, provided it was "affected with a public interest." Many people suppose that the Supreme Court applied this only to railroads, on the ground that railroads were "monopolies" and had an arbitrary power over rates; but in reality they made it cover all property, whether in the nature of an exclusive legislative franchise or not, in which the public had an interest that the exactions of the property-owner should be reasonable. Munn vs. Illinois itself was not the case of a railroad, but of property invested in private grain elevators.

It was manifest that if the Legislature of a State had the right, in the interest of the public, to regulate, not merely transportation charges, but the price demanded for every article which was "affected with a public interest," a principle existed most dangerous to property. There is no property of any sort, from the most primitive and universal to the most artificial and refined, that is not affected by a public interest. The idea underlying the opinion in Munn vs. Illinois was that only such property was affected by a public interest as required an invitation to the public to put it to use, *e. g.*, a railroad charter, a ferry franchise, anything from which a toll is taken; but the fact is that the public has to be called in whenever a price for any property or its proceeds is to be got. The right to sell labor, or service of any kind, or food, or books, or newspapers, or to get rent from the use of land, is what gives the "property" its life; and hence the logical deduction from the decision was that of a general legislative power to fix prices, or at least maximum prices, in all cases. That in this decision lay some of the seeds of the later development of "Populism" there can be little doubt.

It became very soon obvious that if the constitutional guarantees which protect the citizen against the Legislature were to be of any avail, and the position of the Federal courts in our system was to be upheld, some way must be found to qualify the control over property conceded to it by the Granger cases. A long line of decisions, culminating in the Nebraska case, have been rendered which have gradually established the doctrine that while the Legislature may regulate the charges to be exacted by the owners of railroads, elevators, ferries, and other property "affected by a public interest," they derive this right from the supreme "police power" of the State, and must exercise it reasonably, so as not to violate those provisions of the Constitution which guard the citizen against being deprived of his property by a State without due process of law (Const. U. S., 14th amendment). Applying this principle to railroads, it follows that while a State can by legislation and through legislative commissions fix the rates at which persons and property shall be transported, if it fixes these rates at such an unreasonable figure as to operate as destruction or confiscation or deprivation of capital invested, the regulation is void and of no effect, and that this is wholly a judicial and not a legislative question; and, further, that such unjust regulation can be prevented by injunction.

The importance of this conclusion can hardly be overstated. In the Nebraska case, though the action was nominally against certain officers of the State, the decision was in effect to uphold an injunction against the State itself, absolutely forbidding the enforcement of its whole freight tariff, on the ground of its injustice. It is true that the case leaves

it open to the State to remodel its tariff and then apply to the court again; but if this is done, the final decision will still rest with the court. In other words, the State Legislature can never in any case decide the question what it is reasonable for railroads to charge, so as to preclude a judicial examination of its action by the Federal courts. It cannot even leave the matter to its own courts, for in almost every conceivable case (as in this) some circumstance, such as a difference of citizenship in the parties, will arise, to give Federal jurisdiction.

If we ask how the court undertakes to determine what are and what are not reasonable rates, the answer is, by the same means that a perfectly just and omnipotent ruler would decide such a question. The cost of the railroad, its running expenses, the average return on similarly invested capital, are all to be taken into the account, and the court then decides whether the rate is fair or unfair. In the Nebraska case the court prepared a table showing the effect of the tariff, year by year, from 1891 to 1893, supposing it to be in operation on the seven railroads affected. In the last column the result is shown, and the result was that the profits would have been swept away.

To sum up the principles of the decision, which the court explicitly states will apply to future cases, it is not enough to show that a State tariff prevents a railroad from paying its operating expenses, fixed charges, and a dividend upon its stock. This would make the profit to the railroad the sole consideration. A railroad is a public highway, and the "rights of the public" would be ignored if other matters were not taken into the account. These other matters are the fair value of the property invested, fictitious capitalization, and the question whether the rates exacted by the company in order to pay dividends, would "impose upon the public" a burden "for the purpose of realizing profits upon such excessive valuation or fictitious capitalization." What evidence is relevant to such an inquiry? The court says: "The original cost of construction, the amount expended in permanent improvements, the amount and market value of its bonds and stock, the present as compared with the original cost of construction, the probable earning capacity of the property under particular rates prescribed by statute, and the sum required to meet operating expenses," are all matters for consideration; but "we do not say that there may not be other matters."

Many observations might be made on this decision, but practically the most important point about it is that it makes the law perfectly plain, and makes railway property much more secure from attacks through State legislation than it has hitherto been.

CHARAVAY'S LAFAYETTE.—III.

PARIS, March 24, 1898.

Lafayette's relations with Bonaparte have been told with very interesting details by Lafayette himself in 'Mes Rapports avec le Premier Consul.' They were at first very friendly, but became more distant when the Consulate for life was established. Lafayette was an incorrigible liberal; he voted against the Consulate for life, and his relations with the First Consul came to an end. He spent his time in the occupation of a gentleman-farmer; he refused a high rank among the dignitaries of the Legion of Honor when this new order was founded. Napoleon grew very angry with him and tried for a moment to connect him with the first conspiracy of Malet. All through the Empire, we find him living in retirement, going only occasionally to Paris, occupied with his own affairs, always keeping up a correspondence with his American friends.

When the evil days came, and when France was invaded, he offered his services, but they were not accepted. On the day when the Allies entered Paris (March 31, 1814), he shut himself up in his house in Paris and wept bitterly. He wrote a letter to the Count d'Artois, and presented himself, in uniform, to the King, who received him with politeness. The Duke d'Orléans gave him a warm reception; spoke to him of old times, of their common proscription, of the community of their views and principles. Lafayette met the King of Prussia and the Emperor of Russia. He saw Alexander at Madame de Staël's. The Emperor of Russia complained to him of the Bourbons and their prejudices. "It seems to me," said Lafayette, "that they ought to have been amended by their misfortunes." "Amended," said Alexander; "they are *incorrigés et incorrigibles*. There is but one, the Duke d'Orléans, who has liberal ideas; as for the others, you can hope for nothing from them." "If such be your opinion, sire, why have you brought them back?" "It is not my fault." The same evening Lafayette saw Talleyrand, and they exchanged views regarding the Bourbons.

Lafayette was in the country when he heard the news of the landing of Bonaparte in Provence. He had become very much dissatisfied with the royalists and the *émigrés* during the first Restoration; on the other hand, he did not believe in the new liberalism of Bonaparte: "Republican in Provence, half-republican at Lyons, absolute Emperor in Paris." He was elected a Deputy, and, after the disaster at Waterloo and the abdication of the Emperor, he was one of the six commissioners charged by the Chamber with the painful mission of entering into communication with the Allies. The Commissioners found the allied sovereigns at Hagenau, in Alsace, on June 30. They were not received, and their arrival caused some irritation. Lafayette wrote a letter to the Emperor Alexander, and asked to be received by him as a private person. All he could obtain was permission for the six delegates to enter into communication with four commissioners of the Allies, who were Capo d'Istria for Russia; Lord Stewart, for England; Gen. Knesebeck, for Prussia, and Gen. Wallmoden, for Austria. In the discussions which took place, Lord Stewart told Lafayette that peace with France was impossible if Bonaparte was not placed in the hands of the Allies. "I am surprised," said Lafayette, "that, in proposing such an act to the French people, you should address yourself to a prisoner of Olmütz."

The delegates returned to Paris, where they arrived July 5, 1815, after the capitulation had been signed. There was nothing left for the Chamber to do; Blücher entered Paris, and the Prefect of Police, Decazes, closed the doors of the Palais Bourbon. After signing with his colleagues a vain protest, Lafayette retired to his country house, La Grange.

He took a dark view of the future of the second Restoration. In a letter addressed to Lord Holland, December 15, 1815, we read:

"I will not say with Charles Fox, in his Memoir on the reign of James II., that 'a restoration is the worst of revolutions, because it has the inconveniences of a revolution, and besides deprives the people of all that was advantageous in the preceding revolutions.' . . . The present dynasty has unfortunately never desired to occupy itself with the general regeneration of France; it has stood a stranger to the principles, the successes, the politics of this country for more than twenty years. . . . I say with all sincerity, notwithstanding the acquired proof I have that the royal family will never cease to hate me and to try to harm me, I should still prefer them if I could persuade myself that they would at last bow to the evidence of their interests and their security, and that they would not incline, as they do now, to the destruction of all that I have passionately desired while consecrating myself to the defence of the rights and interests of my country, as well as of all mankind, throughout my life."

In 1818 Lafayette was elected a Deputy from the Department of La Sarthe. He took his place on the left side of the House and became one of the chiefs of the Liberal party. In 1821 he allowed himself to be involved in a secret conspiracy against the Government. A provisional government, of which he was to be a member, was to be proclaimed at Belfort and established at Colmar. It seems extraordinary that Lafayette should have consented to take part in such a dangerous and imprudent action; but he started in December for Alsace, and learned at Lure, in the Haute-Saône, that the Government had discovered the plot; no movement took place, and Lafayette returned to La Grange. Four sergeants of La Rochelle, Gen. Berton, and Col. Caron, were tried and executed. The Government did not institute proceedings against Lafayette, Benjamin Constant, Manuel, Gen. Foy, Laffitte, whom it suspected to be in sympathy with the conspirators.

Lafayette was reëlected a Deputy in 1822, at Meaux, but he lost his election in 1824, and carried out a project, which he had long cherished, of making a visit to the United States. His journey was a long ovation. Congress made him a gift of $200,000 and of 24,000 acres. I shall not go into the details of this visit, during which Lafayette entered into friendly communication with President Monroe, John Quincy Adams, who was elected President during his sojourn; with Gallatin, Daniel Webster, John Adams. He was Jefferson's guest at Monticello. He left Havre on the 11th of July, 1824, and returned there on the 4th of October, 1825. On his return he received his portion of the famous "milliard des émigrés," though he had always repudiated all confusion of himself with the *émigrés*. But he had children and grandchildren, and he thought that he owed it to them to claim compensation for such of his estates as had been confiscated and sold while he was in exile. The share which he claimed amounted to 325,000 francs.

He was elected a Deputy from Meaux in

1827 and again in 1830. He received at La Grange a copy of the *Moniteur* containing the famous ordinances which caused the Revolution of 1830. During the last years of the reign of Charles X., he had been in the head and front of the Opposition in the Chamber; he perceived at once that the insurrection in Paris was the signal of a revolution. He saw his colleagues of the Left in Paris, and assumed at once the direction of the movement. He accepted, on the 29th of July, the command of the National Guard. He installed himself at the Hôtel de Ville. On the 30th of July the Deputies met at the house of Laffitte, and afterwards at the Chamber, and decided to offer to the Duke d'Orléans the General-Lieutenancy of the kingdom. In vain did Charles X. withdraw the ordinances and dismiss the Polignac ministry. Lafayette declared that all reconciliation was impossible, and that the royal family had ceased to reign. Lafayette, M. Charavay says rightly, was undoubtedly at that moment the master of the situation. He could, if he had chosen, have proclaimed the republic and been named President. The eyes of the Liberal party were turned, however, on the Duke d'Orléans, who had never been associated with the illiberal policy of Charles X. Lafayette had a conference with the leaders of the Liberal party; he declared to them that, though the republican form of government had his sympathy, he believed that a constitutional monarchy was more suitable for France. This declaration was transmitted to the Duke d'Orléans, who went, on Saturday, July 31, to the Hôtel de Ville. Lafayette received him at the foot of the steps and conducted him into the building. The Hôtel de Ville and its surroundings were still full of people who bore arms and who had taken part in the struggle; and many of them were republicans. "No Bourbons!" was the cry of the populace. The General placed a tricolor flag in the hands of the Duke d'Orléans, led him to one of the windows, and embraced him. This demonstration was the solution of the problem, together with a word which went the round of Paris in an instant: "The Duke d'Orléans is the best of republics." This famous scene was made popular by various engravings. Some of the leaders of the popular movement made stipulations with Lafayette, who guaranteed that the new monarchy should be subject to certain conditions. These conditions were never embodied in any written document; they were (under the name of the "Programme of the Hôtel de Ville," by which they were often alluded to afterwards): the recognition of the sovereignty of the people, the abolition of hereditary peerage, and several dispositions concerning the elections, etc. Lafayette summarized the programme when he said that "a popular throne would be surrounded with republican institutions."

On the 7th of August, 1830, the two Chambers called the Duke d'Orléans to the throne. At the sitting of the Chamber of Deputies, Lafayette insisted strongly on the abolition of the hereditary peerage. He had himself become again as popular as in the first days of the great Revolution. Louis-Philippe appointed him commander of all the national guards of France. He was present at the Champ de Mars, in that capacity, at the distribution made by the King of the new tricolor flags to the national guards. The Chamber a few months after passed a law placing the civic guards again under the control of the Home Office. Lafayette thought himself insulted by the vote of the Chamber, and resigned his command. He wrote to his friend Ségur: "It is time that I should withdraw. I am, I know, a nightmare to the Palais-Royal; not to the King and his family, who like me, and who are the best people in the world, whom I myself tenderly love, but to their surroundings. Have I not heard Viennet say before the King, on seeing me enter the room, 'Here is the *Maire du Palais*'?" Nothing could alter the General's decision, and the King finally accepted his resignation. From that moment, Lafayette, feeling perfectly free, threw himself openly into the constitutional opposition; he persevered to the end in what he considered his mission, the defence of republican and democratic measures. As his friend Ségur says in his memoirs: "From his early years to the end, he seems to have obeyed a sort of predestination. He was candidly, invariably, unreservedly devoted to this terrible mission."

Lafayette died at the age of seventy-six years, in the Rue d'Anjou, in Paris. The Government gave him a splendid official funeral. He was buried in the little cemetery of Picpus, where some victims of the Revolution had been buried, and where his wife had been waiting for him for twenty-seven years.

Correspondence.

TIMELY INQUIRIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A pugnacious personage in Congreve's "Old Bachelor" declares that, for him,

> "Fighting for fighting's sake's sufficient cause:
> Fighting to me 's religion and the laws."

Persons of less ardent temperament, however, before they engage in a quarrel, wish to know clearly what they propose to fight for.

As an American citizen who, in this Cuban imbroglio, is anxious to bestow his sympathies on rational grounds, I beg you to inform me: (1.) How large a part of the people of Cuba really desire independence? (2.) What sort of people are these? (3.) What kind of independence do they want? (4.) What reason have we for thinking that they will be better off if they get it?

I have looked in vain, in the innumerable speeches and communications on Cuban affairs, for answers to these questions, which yet seem to me of considerable importance.

B.

THE FALLACY OF INTERVENTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If intervention by nation A in the affairs of nation B is to-day good law and justice, because of B's oppression of a portion of its people, then intervention in nation A's own affairs by nation C or D may to-morrow or next week become equally good law and justice. The right to meddle which we claim to-day must equally be conceded to others against ourselves when the time comes; and the time never fails to come to every nation. Take the condition of the blacks under slavery in our own country. That was a case of cruel oppression on an immense scale, as our civil war clearly conceded. But should we have listened for a moment in the '50's to a British proposal to teach us our duty by stepping in to free the blacks by force? Did we not even treat it as an insult that the British should offer to feed the starving Southerners? When, as late as 1894, a British society was formed for a crusade against negro-lynching in the South, did we not serve notice that even such peaceable meddling in a most righteous cause would be resented? Would we, at any moment, now or in the past, have brooked any outside rebukes of our scandalous maltreatment and looting of our nation's wards, the Indians? In the winter of 1886 nearly 100,000 Chinese, in this civilized republic of liberty, gathered in California, fugitives from the frightful cruelty and oppression of the whites throughout the Northwest; but would we have conceded that this national dishonor was the business of any European state? The mere statement of the case shows how preposterous the notion of intervention becomes when once practically and consistently applied—as of course it must be. It would become the most prolific breeder of international discord ever invented. No nation could pass a decade of its life without giving cause for the self-righteous meddling of some other nation, blameless of that particular sin. The civilized world would be in a state of intermittent war, waged in the name of humanity. Let our neighbor's blood be upon his head and our own upon ours. We must all agree to stand firmly by this rule, for any other is absolutely incompatible with the peace of the world.

And yet our people, in these closing years of the century, inspired by the conceit of their own prosperity and power, are allowing themselves to lose sight of the world's experience and boldly assuming the seat of an international dispenser of righteousness, vested by their own mandate with the task of doing justice to the oppressed. First it was the Jews under the Czar that we reached out to encourage; then it was Venezuela against Great Britain, the Armenians and the Greeks against the Sultan, and now the Cubans against Spain. No one knows what distant community will be the next object of our sentimental frenzy. It is fortunate for us that each of these waves of romantic emotion speedily absorbs and abates the preceding one, else we might by this time have had half-a-dozen wars on our hands. Can we not learn the lesson that, however noble these sympathies may be, they do not confer on us the right to assume such an impossible function as that of international dictator of righteousness?

What of the other reason—that which tells us that we have as little duty as right to interfere? This rests upon an enlightened selfishness which realizes the chimerical impolicy of surrendering ourselves to the altruistic pleasure of meddling. There are individuals whose circumstances are so comfortable, and whose opportunities so manifold, that they may devote the better part of their time to righting the wrongs of other individuals. But of nations there is none such. The business of international reformer is a luxury in which no nation can afford to indulge. Its own problems are deep and fierce and pressing enough to engross its complete attention. It is simply a wicked neglect of duty to its own people when a nation allows itself to spend on suffering foreigners that energy and anxiety which is thus diverted from those who have

the first claim upon it. We are acquainted, among modern women, with that type of mother who seeks to fulfil her mission by assiduous attendance upon clubs for the improvement of other women and other women's children, and who meanwhile neglects her primary duties to her own children and home, and we justly ridicule such conduct. But are we not fast coming, as a people, to exemplify that type of conduct among nations? Are we not tending to become an international gadabout and charity-monger, while the increasing evils of our own household are complacently neglected? We have vitally interested ourselves in the affairs of a South American dictatorate; we have groaned over the Russian Jew-baiting and the Turkish misrule; and now we choose to think of nothing but Spanish misrule in Cuba.

Meanwhile, we are heedless of the approaching precipice of national repudiation and bankruptcy, the pregnant terror of the labor problem, the racial oppression of blacks and of Indians. Inspired by the love of foreign humanity, we are insensible to the stench of municipal corruption. Shocked by the photographs of starving Cubans, we lavish our money to buy food and appropriate millions to make war for them, while the thousands of starved and oppressed creatures within a stone's throw of us, in New York and in Chicago, beg for help in vain. They may live and die in their slums for all the help they will get from us when we are filled with fine frenzy for (foreign) humanity. Ask any worker in the slums, who knows the true conditions of our poor and oppressed, and he will tell you that, if the neglect of their condition is ever excusable, it ceased to be so when we so readily passed them over and poured out our wealth in abundance to a stranger community, whose sufferings, forsooth, were so much more romantic and heart-stirring because they were not so close to our own doors.

There is a dissipation in charity as well as in drink. This emotional and flighty altruism is as unhealthy as it is misguided. It violates the dictates of moral consistency, national duty, and international experience. We may as well come to realize that this sentimental dissipation of meddling in other nations' affairs is, in spite of its attractions, bad national morals and wicked neglect of home duties. We cannot afford it. The sooner we turn back our national energies into the channels of domestic duty, the greater the chances of the Republic mastering its own internal dangers and vindicating to its critics the mission of popular self-government.

J. H. W.

CHICAGO.

DREYFUS AND PRINCESS CAROLINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Fortnightly Review*, for March, Baron de Coubertin, in an article entitled "The Contradictions of Modern France," has explained the reverence which the French have for the army. And, while admitting that, in the Dreyfus trial, "the strict forms of justice were somewhat distorted," yet he would not have the distortion remedied, for fear of destroying the prestige of the army.

Pertinent to this whole affair is the account of a famous trial in English history in the early part of the century. The Royal Family was involved, and the monarchy—an institution as dear to the English as the army is to the French—was threatened with overthrow. The events which led up to this trial were as follows: The Princess Caroline of Brunswick had been married to her cousin, the Prince of Wales, afterward George IV., than whom a more graceless, brainless creature never existed. This "great simulacrum," as Thackeray has called him, was incapable of devotion, and, soon tiring of the Princess, resorted to the basest means in order that he might convict her of misconduct, and thereby afford himself ground for separation. Every humiliation was heaped upon her, and, to crown all, she was denied the privilege of living with her daughter.

At last the situation became so unendurable that the Princess left England and went to the Continent. But the length of Europe was not sufficient to protect her from her husband's malignity, and she encountered his spies wherever she went. Matters came to an issue upon the death of George III., when the Princess found herself a queen in a foreign land, with no arrangement made for her allowance, and no certainty as to the recognition that her title would receive. The King sent a statement of his terms, namely, that she would be allowed an annuity of £50,000, that she was to take up her residence abroad, and that she was not to take any title belonging to the Royal Family. All negotiations were to cease if she stepped foot on English soil.

The Queen refused the terms, and proceeded to England, where action was at once begun against her in the shape of a "bill of pains and penalties, with an attempt to degrade the queen-consort and deprive her of her rights." Brougham was counsel for the Queen, and his management of the case was masterly. All that he desired was to clear the Queen of calumny. However, had the bill passed the Lords, instead of being laid aside after its second reading, Brougham would have impeached the title of the King, for, by his marriage while heir-apparent with the Roman Catholic Mrs. Fitzherbert, he had placed his title in jeopardy, and of this fact Brougham had proof of the most damaging character.

A speech which Brougham made while the bill was pending illustrates his conservatism, and at the same time his determination that the majesty of the law should not be trifled with:

"My lords, . . . if I did not think the cause of the Queen, as attempted to be established by the evidence against her, not only does not require recrimination at present, not only imposes no duty of even uttering one whisper whether by way of attack or by way of insinuation against the conduct of her illustrious husband, I solemnly assure your lordships that, but for that conviction, my lips on that branch would *not* be closed; for, in discretionally abandoning the exercise of the power which I feel I have, in postponing for the present the statement of that case of which I am possessed, I feel confident that I am waiving a right which I possess, and abstaining from the use of materials which are mine. And let it not be thought, my lords, that if either now I did conceive, or if hereafter I should so far be disappointed in my expectation that the case against me will fail as to feel it necessary to exercise that right—let no man vainly suppose that I, or the youngest member of the profession, would hesitate one moment in the fearless discharge of his paramount duty. . . . An advocate, by the sacred duty which he owes his client, knows, in the discharge of that office, but one person in the world, *that client and none other*. To save that client by all expedient means—to protect that client at all hazards and costs to others—is the highest and most unquestioned of his duties. . . . Nay, separating even the duties of a patriot from those of an advocate, and casting them, if need be, to the wind, he must go on reckless of the consequences, if his fate it should unhappily be to involve his country in confusion for his client's protection!"

MARY E. LANE.

BARRE, MASS., March 28, 1898.

A HINT FOR TOURISTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Now that a great many of your readers are, no doubt, planning a trip abroad for the summer, allow me to call their attention to a most interesting and unique place, and that is Königsfeld, near the Triberg waterfalls, in the Black Forest. Some years ago I had the pleasure of making a pedestrian tour with Mr. Archibald Forbes from Strassburg to the Odelienberg in the Vosges Mountains. On our return Mr. Forbes told me that he had several days at his disposal, and asked me where he should spend them. I suggested Königsfeld, of which he had never even heard the name. But he started next morning by the Kinzig Valley Railroad, and left the train at Peterzell, from which station Königsfeld is reached in half an hour by omnibus. The consequence of Mr. Forbes's visit was a most interesting four-column article in the *Daily News*, which, unfortunately, was not read by American sight-seers, or I am very sure many would have since been influenced to stop at Königsfeld, instead of hurrying on to Switzerland.

Your readers may ask what special attraction, more than any other village, has Königsfeld; to which I would reply that it is a Moravian community, as Bethlehem, Lititz, and Nazareth were a hundred years ago, when Washington, Lafayette, Adams, Lee, and others went from New York and Philadelphia to visit them. Although Königsfeld has remained unknown to American tourists, English, French, Swiss, and Germans in large numbers go there every summer for a longer or shorter stay. You find there professors from Heidelberg, Bâle, Tübingen, Berlin, etc., who enjoy studying the life among the Moravians. In fact, it has become a summer resort for the antiquarian and those interested in religious communistic life. There are excellent hotels and boarding-houses at Königsfeld. The principal one, the Gemein-Logis, carried on by the church authorities, is the best; but all are good and comfortable. Then, from Königsfeld as headquarters, delightful excursions to various points in the Black Forest can be made.

ARMIN DE BONNEHEUR.

"IN OUR MIDST."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a cutting from the *Sun* of the 7th instant, sent to me by a friendly correspondent, I observe that I am called, "as a writer, . . . one of the most confused, tortuous, pedantic bunglers that ever set pen to paper." And why this shower of unsavory missiles? So far as appears, simply because of my having said, five and twenty years ago, after production of abundant proofs, that, "with reference to analogical principles, *in our midst* is altogether irreproachable." I found myself compelled, by facts, to differ from the ruling of Dr. Webster's editors, that *in our midst, in your midst*, etc., "seem contrary to the genius of the language."

As analogues of *in our midst*, I formerly brought forward *in my absence, in our despite*, and other locutions of the same stamp. But of this fact the *Sun* says nothing, and, moreover, pretty obviously, knows nothing. To be discredited at random is considered as being my appropriate desert. "Dr. Hall and his analogies," we are merely told, "must be thrown out"; following which notification of ejectment come, with original logicality, the metaphorical dead cats and addled eggs aforesaid. So much for the *Sun*.

In her middis, equivalent to *in their midst*, I have adduced, in my 'Modern English,' from a treatise some four hundred years old. Similar expressions, I have reason to believe, however, were of rare occurrence down to about the middle of the current century. Some quotations for them may, accordingly, be acceptable to the curious; and here they are:

"He stuck, at last, yet *in their midst*, it seem'd." Chapman, *Cæsar and Pompey* (1631), Act iii., in *Dramatic Works* (1873), Vol. iii., p. 159.

"If we then could have had our dear Dr. Bell *in our midst*, our pleasures and improvements would have been greatly heightened." Rev. C. John (1794), in Southey's *Life of Andrew Bell* (1844), Vol. i., p. 205.

"We forget that these very errors would have remained invisible, but for the enduring light that broke out *in their midst*, intersecting, and contracting them." Rev. Dr. James Martineau (1846), *Essays Phil sophical and Theological*, Second Series (1869), p. 133.

"We . . . looked upon the luxuriant plain, the glittering capital shining *in its midst*." Lawrence Oliphant, *A Journey to Katmandu* (1852), p. 132.

"We can only wish their authors success in the salutary though unattractive task of disclosing to Europe the cesspool of filth which lies *in their midst*." *Saturday Review* (1858), Vol. v., p. 46.

"*Out of its midst*." Bp. Samuel Wilberforce (1872), *Speeches* (1874), p. 326.

"The presence, *in our midst*, of what remains on earth," etc. Cardinal Newman (1873), in Robert Ornsby's *Memoirs of James Robert Hope-Scott* (1884), Vol. ii., p. 253.

However it may be in the United States, *in our midst*, with the like, now rarely incurs any censure in England. One here sees it in passable writing, and even better than only passable, every day. Authorities for it I have long ceased to collect.

Of interest, as illustrating a use of *midst* which has become obsolete, are the following passages:

"Never Prince carried his life farther into death; for it seemes he past, without any *midest*, from one extreme unto the other death." Edward Grimston, Translation of P. Matthieu's *Heroyk Life*, etc. (1612), Part I., p. 145.

"It stood, indeed, in another *midst*." Abp. John Williams (1636), *The Holy Table* (1637), p. 210.

F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, March 23, 1893.

A DISCLAIMER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My attention has been called to a circular recently issued in behalf of the proposed National Art Club of New York, in which my name is included in the list of those who favor the establishment of the club. Will you permit me to say that this has been done absolutely without my knowledge, and in spite of a letter which I wrote to the Secretary expressing my doubts as to the advisability of increasing the number of artistic organizations in New York city at the present time?

Very respectfully yours,
EDWARD ROBINSON.

MUSEUM OF FINE ARTS,
BOSTON, April 4, 1893.

Notes.

Copeland & Day are about to publish 'Songs from the Ghetto,' a German transcription from the original Yiddish of Morris Rosenfeld, with an English prose translation by Prof. Leo Wiener, of Harvard. Our readers are not unaware of this remarkable production of the sweat-shop. From the same firm will come 'Ireland, with Other Poems,' by Lionel Johnson; 'Impressions,' poems by Mrs. T. S. Perry; and 'On the Birds' Highway,' by Reginald Heber Howe, jr.

'Advanced Rules for Large Assemblies,' by Mrs. Harriette R. Shattuck, is announced by Lee & Shepard.

A new collection of poems by Bliss Carman, 'By the Aurelian Wall, and Other Elegies,' is being brought out by Lamson, Wolffe & Co.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have undertaken a translation of Brunetière's 'Manual of the History of French Literature'; 'The Poems and Sonnets of Shakspere,' edited by George Wyndham; and Tolstoi's 'What is Art?'

'Tennyson's Debt to Environment' is the theme of a little book, by Prof. William G. Ward, which will have the imprint of Roberts Bros.

Through Dodd, Mead & Co., Prof. Harry Thurston Peck will issue a translation from Petronius, 'Trimalchio's Dinner.'

Mrs. Murray Macdonald's translation of 'Karl Marx, and the Close of his System,' by Prof. Böhm-Bawerk, will be shortly forthcoming from Macmillan Co.

Nearly ready, in Frederick Warne & Co.'s list, is 'Stories from Dante,' by Norley Chester.

In Waugh's "Pamphlet Library," published by Henry Holt & Co., the next volume is 'Religious Pamphlets,' by the Rev. Percy Dearmer.

Harper's June issues embrace 'George William Curtis at Brook Farm and Concord,' by George Willis Cooke; 'Collections and Recollections,' by an anonymous writer; 'Crooked Trails,' by Frederic Remington; 'The Moral Imbeciles,' by Mrs. S. P. McLean Greene; 'Phases of an Inferior Planet,' by Ellen Glasgow; 'A Romance of Summer Seas,' by Varina Ann Jefferson Davis; and 'The Story of a Play,' by W. D. Howells.

Longmans, Green & Co. have in press 'Stonewall Jackson,' by Col. G. F. N. Henderson; 'The Life of Admiral Duncan, First Viscount of Camperdown,' by his grandson, the present Earl; a 'Memoir of Major-General Sir Henry Creswick Rawlinson,' by Canon Rawlinson; 'The Story of the Malakand Force, 1897,' by Winston L. Spencer Churchill; and 'The Life and Letters of Henry Reeve,' late editor of the *Edinburgh Review*, by J. K. Laughton.

The third and concluding volume of the 'Letters and Times of the Tylers,' by President Lyon G. Tyler, of William and Mary, is now obtainable of Henley T. Jones, Williamsburg, Va. The edition is, unfortunately, limited to 250 copies, and should readily be absorbed by the public libraries alone.

A. N. Marquis & Co., Chicago, announce as in a forward state of preparation, 'Who's Who, the Country Through'—a dictionary of the living celebrities of the United States, of both sexes. It might be difficult to explain why our publishers have hitherto looked askance at a project like this, with contemplated periodic revision and reissue. Across our northern border, Mr. Henry James Morgan, a practised biographer and prolific author of excellent hand-books, has just got out, through William Briggs, Toronto, 'The Canadian Men and Women of the Time,' of more than a thousand pages, which he hopes to work over three years hence, and indefinitely thereafter, at the same interval. The compiler's scope includes Canadians abroad as well as at home. His sketches are highly praiseworthy for their compactness and the lack of such fulsome eulogy as our own cyclopædias often tolerate as the result of gratuitous assistance from relatives and friends. Mr. Morgan ingeniously substitutes for this quotations, in appreciation, from the press and other sources. He takes pains, however, to show each character's relation to the questions and movements of the day—as, politics, temperance, imperial federation, etc. An innovation much to be commended is the regular mention of wife or husband as a necessary part of the subject's life and connection. Finally, the present address of each personage is appended. So far as we have tested this work, it is eminently satisfactory in execution, and we trust the compiler and publisher will find their account in it.

The 'Directory of Titled Persons' ventured last year as a companion to 'Whitaker's Almanack' (New York: Brentano's) has proved a success, and is indeed a most handy compendium. The issue for the present year profits by the absorption of Walford's 'Windsor Peerage,' and is swollen with "the exceptional number of the Jubilee honors." A grouping of each peer's issue and other titled relatives is a distinct improvement. The convenient index to country seats and residences cited in the Directory fills twenty-eight pages.

Those Americans who have laid their plans for a summer in Spain cannot be many, in the present strained relations of the two countries; but such as venture can now avail themselves of the brand-new Baedeker, 'Spain and Portugal' (Charles Scribner's Sons), in rivalry with O'Shea's 'Guide to Spain and Portugal,' which six years ago was in its ninth edition. In wealth of detail and abundance of maps and plans, this volume parallels the other members of a series whose quality is beyond the need of advertising or of praise. There is a list of the artists mentioned in the handbook, and this is the only appendix. Under Barcelona, mention is made of the steamers which ply to Port Mahon and to Palma; but, by an omission which decidedly needs to be repaired, the Balearic Isles are excluded from the editor's scope. Their delightful scenery and their attractiveness as a sanitarium merit a better acquaintance on the part of tourists. Palma might well, in time, become a port of call for the German steamers from New York to Genoa, which now pass in sight of the islands.

The bound volume of the 'Cumulative Index to a Selected List of Periodicals: Authors, Subjects, Titles, Reviews, Portraits,' for 1897, forms the second in this remarkable enterprise of the Cleveland Public Li-

brary. It is cumulative not only in the sense of a serial issue which contains in each succeeding part all that has gone before, but in its growing comprehensiveness. As compared with volume one, 100 periodicals have been indexed, against 70, and the bulk increased from 384 pages to 635. Book reviews and portraits have been still more carefully looked after, and a new heading, Poetry, gathers up the verse heretofore scattered in the main alphabet. *Literature* and the *American Journal of Archæology* will be included in the current Index, which is now the promptest of all keys to the periodical literature of the day.

Benj. R. Tucker has fulfilled his promise to print 'The Trial of Émile Zola: A detailed report of the fifteen days' proceedings in the Assize Court at Paris'; but, large as the event was, a smaller type would have been more legible, and we could have spared the eccentricity of a ragged right-hand edge, the result of not spacing out the lines.

Pascal forms the subject of two recent publications; the first being a new edition of his 'Pensées,' edited by the Abbé Margival, and preceded by an interesting study of the author and his much discussed work. The editor has taken as the basis of the text (which is intended for use in colleges and schools of a higher grade, as well as for the students of Pascal in general), the Bossut edition as revised by Havet. His preference is clearly for the original Port-Royal edition, but it could not be accommodated to his purpose. The second book is a study of Pascal and his work, great space being given to the 'Provinciales,' and greater still, as is proper, to the 'Pensées.' It is entitled 'Pascal,' is written by a competent scholar, M. Maurice Souriau, and published in the Lecène-Oudin series of "Classiques Populaires." Admirably composed, it reads as easily as a work of fiction, though a very serious study of a very serious author. M. Souriau's style makes even the drier parts of the subject interesting and attractive. He does not exhibit partisanship or undue enthusiasm in striving to give his readers a true portrait of Pascal, and a correct view of his purpose in the composition of his famous works. He has a theory, which he develops and maintains very strongly, that Pascal intended his 'Apologie,' of which we have only the fragmentary materials in the 'Pensées,' to defend not Christianity so much as Jansenism in particular.

When Emin Pasha was murdered five years ago, it was known that he had left a large abundance of manuscript matter that would throw considerable light on his unique personality and career. These sources have now been used in the preparation of a biography by his nephew, Georg Schweitzer. Emin, especially in his later years, was in steady and prolific correspondence with his sister, and in addition kept a diary down to almost the day of his death. The Life now published by Hermann Walther of Berlin is based chiefly upon these new sources of information. In spite of the most charitable construction naturally put on all Emin's doings, the work will doubtless become his standard biography. It shows that he was preëminently not a man of action or of statesmanship, and still less a soldier, but a savant, scholar, and specialist.

A little volume of select translations from Mrs. Browning's poetry ('Poesie Scelte di Elisabetta Barrett Browning'), avowedly free, has just been made by an Italian whose versatility, as poet, painter, art critic, patriot, statesman, senator of the realm, philanthropist, recalls Massimo D'Azeglio. Tullo Massarani, now past sixty, has undertaken a task which might daunt a youth, and would, indeed, have been impossible if carried out in anything like a literal fashion. Not all the power of poetical compression which resides in his native tongue could, without omission and paraphrase, turn, for example, the five-line stanza of "Mother and Poet" into a four-line; and if the cisalpine imagination toys with such a line as

"And 'broider the long-clothes and neat little coat,"

it avoids altogether such another as

" 'Twere imbecile hewing out roads to a wall."

In this poem, Massarani's changes in the original metres which his admiring colleague, G. Negri, animadverts upon in the Milan *Perseveranza* for March 14, are exemplified to his disadvantage; but, as we have implied, he will be forgiven, considering the difficulty of the job. Negri asks whether the publication of this memorial of a devoted friend of Italy amid the fiftieth anniversary celebrations of the Revolution of 1848 was patriotically intentional; and sighs over the common absence of other signs of survival of the spirit of those glorious days. "Come tutto passa e si trasmuta quaggiù!" These translations may profitably be compared with the English. The publishers are Fratelli Treves, Milan.

The whole of the March number of the *Psychological Review* (Macmillan) is taken up with a notable bibliography of the literature of psychology and cognate subjects for 1897, compiled by Livingston Farrand of Columbia and Howard C. Warren of Princeton in coöperation with N. Vaschide, Paris, and B. Borchardt, Berlin. An author's index follows the classification by topics.

The *Land of Sunshine*, edited with so much spirit and independence by Mr. Charles F. Lummis at Los Angeles, Cal., has become incorporated, and now proclaims itself a "Magazine of California and the West." A number of well-known writers have united to make it worthy of the trans-Missouri portion of the continent, as appears in the April number.

The *Geographical Journal* for March opens with an account, by Lieut. Peary, of his four journeys to Greenland, together with his plans for his next expedition. These are, in brief, to establish a small Eskimo settlement as far north as a ship can take it, and then to transport it, if possible, with supplies, to "the most northerly point of land, wherever that may be." From thence (say, 85° N.) he will endeavor to reach the pole; and if the first attempt is unsuccessful, he will repeat it, being prepared to stay four or five years, if necessary. Not entirely dissimilar to the experiences of the American explorer were those described in the next article, by Dr. Sven Hedin, in his account of his four years' travel in Central Asia. Substitute camels for dogs, a tarantass for a sledge, Kirghiz for Eskimo, and deserts of driving sand for fields of drifting snow, and the differences between a journey at the end and on the "roof" of the world are not so very great. Here also there were ice-covered passes to be climbed, amid blinding snow-storms and an Arctic temperature, as well as interminable tracts frightful from their loneliness. But in Asia there was the added suffering from thirst and from the swift transitions from freezing cold to scorching heat; and during the terrible crossing of the Takla-makan desert, most graphically described, Dr. Hedin was for six days without water. His most interesting discovery was the ruins of a city, probably more than ten centuries old.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for March contains, besides the Hon. D. W. Carnegie's account of his Australian explorations, a description by Major Yates of life at Chaman, the present terminus of the Quetta and Kandahar Railway on the Afghan frontier. It is a dreary place on the edge of a vast desert, in which last year there was no rain from April 22 to December 7. There is some permanent cultivation, chiefly by means of irrigation, but the nomads plough the ground and sow the seed in the winter months, and harvest their wheat and barley in June, unless it is eaten by the locusts. Both papers are illustrated with reproductions of photographs of characteristic scenes.

Remembering the fame which Munich enjoyed as a literary centre in the sixth decade of the century, when King Maximilian II. had gathered around him the coryphei of German poetry, a number of more or less eminent writers and poets, now living in the Bavarian capital, have recently formed the Munich Literary Society, with the distinct purpose of awakening the community from its somewhat unnatural lethargy. A lay membership of about a thousand, and several successful meetings during the first two or three months of its existence, seem to augur well for the future prosperity and usefulness of the Society. Its spirit is a catholic one. Not only are older dramatic productions, not generally found in the repertories of the theatres, represented under its auspices, but its interest is directed to any new production of real poetic worth, regardless of form or tendency. Young talents may, therefore, look to the Society for that hospitable reception and mediating influence through which the *freie Bühnen* in certain cities have opened a career to such dramatists as Gerhart Hauptmann and Max Halbe. Each reading, recitation, or stage representation is given but once, and only before the members of the Society, no guests or paying auditors being admitted. Thus, while members of the Munich stage take part in the performances, all competition with the public theatre is precluded. So far, representations have been given of Shakspere's "Troilus and Cressida," of Tolstoi's "Die Macht der Finsterniss," of Hartleben's "Die Erziehung zur Ehe" (a satire on European social customs), and a play by a still younger dramatist, Bruno Piper, a typical modern production, having for its painful subject the parting of George Sand from Chopin on the island of Majorca, and closing with an impressive scene in which the composer pours into passionate chords the sorrow from which his genius draws new inspiration.

In a catalogue of modern paintings to have been sold on March 30 at the Hôtel Drouot in Paris, we remark a photogravure after a picture by Manet, showing the *Alabama* in the offing at Cherbourg: a "kodak" of exceptional interest and value.

We have received the new Harvard University Catalogue for 1897-98. As this publication has served as a model for others, we will suggest one needed improvement. It is easy to refer from the index to each student in his department, but no such aid

is given in the case of the officers, whose arrangement (pp. 6-28) is by collegiate seniority and not alphabetical.

Senate Document No. 161 emanates from the Library of Congress, and is a list of books relating to Cuba, compiled by A. P. C. Griffin, Assistant Librarian, together with a bibliography of maps, compiled by P. Lee Phillips, superintendent of the maps and charts department. Mr. Griffin's list has an eye to periodicals as well as to books. It is mainly concerned with the political history of the island.

An International Congress of History will open at The Hague on September 12, when the Netherlands celebrate the majority and coronation of their Queen. It is organized under her auspices, and will be presided over by the Minister of Foreign Affairs and by M. de Maulde de La Clavière, General Secretary of the Paris Société d'Histoire Diplomatique. Membership, for women as for men, is procurable for a subscription of twenty francs ($4.00), which insures the distribution of printed copies of the papers read before the Congress. Each nation may use its own language in papers and discussions. The organization of the United States section has been intrusted to Mr. James Gustavus Whiteley, No. 223 West Lanvale Street, Baltimore.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, adds to his imperial-panel series of photographs of eminent Americans the late Gen. Rosecrans, in a very striking and lifelike reproduction.

—The *Atlantic Monthly* for April contains several articles of interest. Among the more purely literary are "Personal Impressions of Björnsen and Ibsen," by W. H. Schofield, who seems to have had many opportunities for observation. Ibsen is described chiefly by negatives. He will not talk of the "meaning" of his plays—professing in one case to have entirely forgotten what he meant; and on other subjects connected with literature he talks little because he knows little. He does not understand English or French as spoken languages, and cannot have been much influenced by French authors, for "he hardly knew of their existence." Of Shakspere he knows nothing, and of Goethe (indeed, of anything German) he is no admirer. "His self-devotion seems almost to have blinded his eyes to merit in others." Of course he is at the opposite pole from Björnsen, whose son, by the way, married Ibsen's daughter. This circumstance has not brought the parents any nearer together in literary matters, Björnsen declaring emphatically of one of Ibsen's plays, "Oh, that is a piece I can't stand—entirely pessimistic and useless; not the kind of thing we want at all. It won't do anybody any good." Ibsen, it seems, was reluctant to believe that Shakspere still "held the boards" in the United States and England. A most unusual piece of writing is W. J. McGee's description of the various stages of death by thirst, founded on observation in the Western desert. "Thirst in the Desert" will be found of interest by lovers of imaginative literature, as some of its most terrible description recalls strikingly portions of "The Rhyme of the Ancient Mariner." "Shall We Still Read Greek Tragedy?" is a valuable article by Prof. Thomas Dwight Goodell, who protests against Shakspere being taken as "the norm of perfection, by which the world's drama is to be judged"; but he himself gives a powerful proof of the hold Shakspere has upon the Anglo-Saxon mind by endeavoring to draw a parallel between the Greek chorus and the secondary characters in such plays as "Hamlet" and "Romeo and Juliet."

—"England and Germany" is the subject of an article in *Harper's*, by Sidney Whitman, who knows both countries better than most of those who write about them. He points out that the feeling of contempt for everything German so commonly met with in England is nothing new. In 1825 Gen. Sir C. J. Napier speaks of finding "the people of every part of Germany stupid, slow, hard animals," without "even so much tact as to chat well." "Honor to Cæsar," he adds, "for killing so many of them." To-day an English journalistic critic, writing of a second visit to Germany, speaks of "dirty, dusty, nasty-smelling, unromantic Germany." Mr. Whitman points out that the English do not now write in this way of the French, though, if the record were searched, passages about "Johnny Crapaud" could be found which would prove that the French, too, have been at times pretty well exposed by John Bull. Mr. Whitman thinks that this sort of contemptuous abuse of one country by another cannot be found in German papers, books, or periodicals. He might have gone further and declared that nowhere on the continent of Europe is violent contempt for foreigners, or the expression of it, considered well-bred. The newspapers are introducing it where they can, but its native soil is Anglo-Saxon. It comes with the English and with us from a real belief in our superiority, not to this or that nation, but to the whole world, and from an abiding conviction that we can "lick" it. Owing to this fact, as soon as our interests clash with any particular set of foreigners, whether they happen to be German, or Spanish, or French foreigners, we frankly explain to them that we really despise them from the bottom of our souls; that they are boors, pirates, or monkeys, and that it is only our generosity and long-suffering meekness which prevents our "wiping them off the face of the earth." This may not be urbane, and Europeans do not think it is, but it is our way, and it accounts in part for a great many misunderstandings, such as that between England and Germany, which Mr. Whitman attempts to analyze. One of the most curious features of it is that the English are nowadays fond of inquiring why they are disliked on the Continent; and in the United States we are always overcome with wonder if we are told that our manners and our press do not lead foreigners to love us. Mr. Worthington C. Ford, the statistician, has a temperate article on "Commercial Aspects of the Panama Canal," in which he reaches the conclusion that the canal will be a "convenience," but not a "necessity," and that "the commercial interests of the United States in any event are of even less importance than the interests of Europe." The only noticeable illustrations in the number are Joseph Pennell's six sketches in an article about bicycling, and Frederick Remington's novel pictures of "Cavalry Tactics on the Plains." The snap-shots in the opening article, exhibiting an African buffalo in its death-throes, are surely too redolent of the slaughter-house to be admitted to a family magazine.

—The leading illustrated articles in the *Century* are on "A Pennsylvania Colliery Village." The first, describing "a polygot community," is by Henry Edward Rood; the second, by Jay Hambidge, gives "an artist's impression of the colliery region." Both together do not add much to our knowledge of the subject, but it is gratifying to know that, notwithstanding the tragedy of last year at Lattimer, there is ground for believing that there has been some improvement in twenty years. The period of the "Molly Maguires," when a sort of *mafia* held sway, has passed away, and there is something like law in the coal regions, though certainly not enough. The community still holds life pretty cheap, and, as has been often observed, there is no way to draw an indictment—or at any rate secure a conviction under an indictment drawn—against a whole community. Nor will even government by injunction prevent the private use of stilettoes, stones, and pistols at christenings and weddings, when it is the sense of the guests that they should be used, and when, if trouble subsequently arises, there are always witnesses to be found who will swear that all concerned were ten miles away at the time of the fracas. A sort of criminal Trust exists for the purpose of assisting members when accused of crime. One thing is made very plain—that nine-tenths of the "oppression" from which the miners suffer is connected with the difficulty they find in not using up their credit at the company's store for wages; it comes from their own want of thrift, and not from the cruelty of capitalists, who really do very little for them one way or the other, beyond furnishing them with a job. The rest is their own work, but, like so many of their fellow-creatures, a miner is inclined to attribute whatever measure of success he attains to himself, but to impute all losses and disasters and failures to others. What is done is done by Labor; what goes wrong is the fault of Capital. "Heroes of the Life-Saving Service," by Gustav Kobbé, is the latest contribution to the "Heroes of Peace" series. The stories of self-sacrifice in the work of rescuing life along the coast are a marvellous proof of the capacity for endurance and fortitude latent in man. Comparing the anecdotes with stock stories of heroism in battle, one cannot help wondering whether in process of time the universal delight in glory through carnage and homicidal patriotism may not be replaced by a gentler courage; it is certainly not beyond the bounds of belief that mankind should come to recognize that there is a great deal of humbug in military heroism. Fifty years ago it was supposed to be the mission of American democracy to produce heroes of peace.

—So much has been written about the "New Sayings" of Christ that many readers will be interested in the Rev. Henry Van Dyke's poem in *Scribner's* called "The Toiling of Felix," designed to throw light on one of them. It is an elaborate legend, in ballad form, with a prelude and envoy, on the theme,

> "Raise the stone and thou shalt find me; cleave the wood, and there am I."

The meaning given to the saying is that the secret of finding Christ lies in faithful work or drudgery. Such a reading excludes any more supersensual and imaginative rendering; but this is the privilege of exegesis. The pictures in Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge's "Story of the Revolution" continue to be one of the most attractive features of the magazine; the text will bear a little revision here and there before it appears as a book. For instance, is it not rhetorically a mistake to say of Frederick the Great

that he was "not only a great man, but a clear-sighted and efficient one"? Would it be correct to say of Washington that he was not only a good man, but a man of considerable rectitude, or of Solomon, that he not only was a wise man, but was considered by his friends and admirers to have a good deal of sense? Mr. Brander Matthews has an entertaining essay on "The Conventions of the Drama," which very cleverly demolishes scenic and "clothes" realism, partly by indirection. Mr. Matthews's thesis is not that realism is a bad thing—this nobody can successfully maintain—but that the art of acting is based on a series of conventions, which are known to all concerned to be the negation of reality. We agree beforehand that a passageway between flat paper walls shall be a street, and that ten men shall be an army, and the acting does the rest. More than this, experience shows that if we attempt to do away with the conventions, and substitute imitation, the illusion is actually impaired. A curious instance of the readiness with which a new convention may be introduced is found in the discovery that an audience will accommodate itself to actors representing a play in two different languages at the same time. Thus, Booth acted *Iago*, speaking English, with Devrient as a German *Othello*, while Frau Methua-Schiller played *Desdemona*, speaking English, except when she addressed *Othello*, to whom she always spoke German.

—Prof. Wrong's annual 'Review of Historical Publications relating to Canada' (The University of Toronto: Published by the Librarian) has entered its second year with increased bulk and a high standard of merit. The average length of articles is considerably less than before, for we find on comparison that while the number of pages is about one-fifth greater, the number of subjects treated has nearly doubled. Two facts will help to account for this difference. In the first place, fewer works of importance appeared in 1897 than in 1895-96 (and 1895 was drawn upon in the opening review). Secondly, the bibliographical search has on this occasion been very thorough, and thus many fugitive pieces are mentioned which deserve no more than the passing notice they receive. As for the literature itself, the falling off in point of quality from 1895-96 is noticeable in several large departments, particularly so in all that relates to French Canada. Dr. Drummond's 'Habitant,' which was issued in December, has made a great sale, but, whatever may be its value to the historian of the future, it cannot redeem the province of Quebec from a year of sterility in historical composition. On the other hand, interest in geographical discussion has been active. The longest papers in the present series relate, respectively, to the Cabot voyages and to westward migration, the one finding its text in nine and the other in three titles. The index shows evidence of the care taken to secure a complete survey. Lives from the 'National Dictionary of Biography,' historical novels, and even slight articles in the current magazines are remembered. Prof. Wrong continues to permit the members of his staff to avow their identity or not. The tendency, however, seems to be setting towards anonymous contribution. While pointing out the fact that the historical material in sight seems to be thinner than usual, we must not neglect to give Canada credit for economic progress. The record of industrial advance falls within the scope of Prof. Wrong's project, and among other useful notices he has been able to secure from Dr. George Dawson a sketch of historical events in the Yukon District. While Canada's gold fields may prove a doubtful blessing, there is no denying the immediate interest of Klondike news from an authority who can give it at first hand. "The man who has been there" is often suspect, but, with the possible exception of Mr. W. Ogilvie, no returned prospector will be listened to with better attention than the Director of the Canadian Geological Survey. We fully recognize the merit of Prof. Wrong's publication, and feel sure that it will react favorably on historical studies in the Dominion. It should also be stated that the name of Mr. H. H. Langton, Librarian of the University of Toronto, appears on the title-page as that of assistant editor.

—Prof. Cunningham, in his 'Alien Immigrants in England' (Macmillan), has opened, rather than occupied, a new field in English social history. In the space at his disposal he has been able only to provide an introduction to the subject, which, while fairly adequate for the middle ages, is a mere outline for the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. One rises from this sketch vividly impressed with the contribution made by alien immigrants to the industrial education of the English people. Almost every step of the transition from the sparsely settled agricultural frontier-community life of the middle ages to the industrial and commercial supremacy of the past century has been taken with the help or under the guidance of aliens. New processes of manufacture, new methods of management, and wholly new industries were continually introduced either by voluntary immigrants or by religious or political refugees. French Huguenots were the financial backers of the "glorious Revolution" of 1688. Their friends declared, in 1709, that they had invested more than £2,000,000 in the public funds, about £500,000 being in the newly established Bank of England. One must regret that the author has confined his attention so exclusively to the industrial side of the influence of the aliens as almost to ignore their contribution to the intellectual progress of the country and to the diffusion of English ideas on the Continent. If Huguenot capitalists contributed to the triumph of civil liberty in England, it was also a Huguenot historian, Rapin de Thoyras, who revealed to Europe the connected story of the rise of the English state in the best general history of England that had been written up to that time. Again, after another century of development, it was the Swiss exile Delolme who produced the best treatise of the age on the English Constitution. Examples need not be multiplied. There is plenty of material for a most instructive chapter in the history of English civilization.

—The decease of the Great Prime Father of Korea, usually known as the Tai Wen Kun, removes from the peninsular politics of the weakest state in the Far East its most impressive figure. Indirectly and unintentionally he was the means of opening the hermit kingdom to the world's notice and commerce. A telegram to the Foreign Office in Tokio, from the Japanese Minister in Seoul, announced that the patient, who had been ill during several months, died at 7 P. M. on February 22. A blood relative to the King Hung Chong, who was succeeded by Chul Chong (who died in youth, January 15, 1864, and without issue), the Tai Wen Kun made himself virtual ruler of the kingdom when his second son was nominated King. Hitherto indifferent to politics, he became, in spite of the three royal widows living and the powerful Min clan, a true mayor of the palace. A rabid hater of Christianity, foreigners, and any progress which meant deviation from Confucianism and Korean precedents, he put down numerous insurrections with blood and iron. He lured the converts of the French priests to their ruin, and is believed to have put no fewer than ten thousand of them to torture and death. His high-handed proceedings brought the fleets of France, the United States, Japan, and Russia into Korean waters, with resultant battle and bloodshed by at least three of these Powers. His career as intriguer, assassin, reactionary, foiler of the unscrupulous plots of the unsleeping Min clan, to whom the Queen belonged, almost passes belief and reads more like fiction. In 1884, Li Hung Chang felt it necessary to deport the old gentleman to China for a couple of years. His last triumph was the killing and cremation by kerosene of Queen Min through Japanese ruffians, whom he led into the palace. He was a typical product of that old Korea which is as surely passing away as the old Japan has done. In his later days he had overcome most of his anti-foreign prejudices, gladly utilizing dynamite for his special purposes.

BODLEY'S FRANCE.

France. By John Edward Courtenay Bodley. Two volumes. The Macmillan Co. 1898.

Mr. Bodley takes care to have it understood that he is neither a holiday tourist just back from France, nor a compiler from the books of others. By way of fitting himself to criticise a nation which he calls "the most complicated product of civilization on the face of the globe," he went to live in its midst. "I came to France in May, 1890, and wrote the last lines of these volumes more than seven years later, having in the interval not spent seven weeks away from French soil, as I had soon perceived that uninterrupted residence in the land was the only means of accomplishing my self-imposed task." Life in Paris, numerous *voyages d'études* (which were extended to Algiers), and the tenantcy of a château in the Brie were among the incidents of this period. Mr. Bodley has enjoyed a further advantage of great value—personal intercourse with eminent Frenchmen. Renan, Taine, Clémenceau, Comte Albert de Mun, and Mgr. Freppel were friends worth having at the outset of such an inquiry, and ever since he has moved up and down through the social strata, from members of the Institute and parliamentary leaders to peasants and shopkeepers. We are led to speak of his qualifications by the insistence which he lays on his method and means of study. While a sensitive and shrinking modesty might have refrained from giving all the details he offers, it is clear that Mr. Bodley undertook a heavy task seriously.

His "capital subject," according to the preface, "is Political France after a Century of Revolution." To state this in other words, our author is more occupied

with the Third Republic than with social traits and usage. But as the present form of government can be fitly considered only in the light of French vicissitude since 1789, he becomes, perforce, an interpreter of past politics for above a hundred years. Of the four books which follow his long introduction, that on "The Revolution and Modern France" stands first both in order and in general interest. The remaining three, though principally devoted to an account of public functions as they exist to-day, are also flavored with a dash of historical philosophy. They are entitled "The Constitution and the Chief of the State," "The Parliamentary System," and "Political Parties." By defining Mr. Bodley's real scope we at the same time limit the possible range of our comment.

One cannot mistake his two main conclusions. The first is that the régime which was set up after Sedan and confirmed during the presidency of Marshal MacMahon, has failed to bestow pure administration and to enlist national pride. Let alone affection, it has not even attracted the respect which an example of republican virtue would have claimed. The second is, that, amid the incessant change about them, Napoleonic institutions have stood firm and have wedded France to centralization. There is much in the book besides the proof of these points; but, taking our cue from Mr. Bodley's own lips, we shall consider them most prominently.

The Third Republic, he argues, is condemned by the political pessimism of its citizens, aristocrats and workingmen alike. We can illustrate his position by a contrast between the First Republic in its latter days and modern France. Between 1789 and 1798 many political idols were broken, and yet the French were interested in their public affairs. Despite the Terror, even despite the Assignat and Fructidor, they had hope. If the politicians were inept, what, after Campio Formio, could not be hoped from the army? Presently, the Directory fell, and the General for some years justified the confidence which the nation placed in him by conniving at the revolution of Brumaire. One gathers from Mr. Bodley's pages that France esteems her politicians very little higher in 1898 than she did a hundred years ago. The pessimism is blacker now because no martial glory is in immediate prospect. The parliamentary system, after a fair trial, has disappointed expectation; the masses are apathetic, and to chauvinists the Exposition of 1900 will be a poor equivalent for Marengo. Sufferers in the last stage of phthisis occasionally get relief from a mild, damp climate; only it is a pity that they should ever reach the stage where dry air is bad for them. So with politics. In certain cases it may be as well that citizens should not take the trouble to cast their votes; but one feels convinced that the body politic is consumptive when this symptom becomes pronounced. Mr. Bodley testifies that France is in a bad way by speaking thus of the electoral torpor:

> "It might be thought that the wholesale abstention from the polls of hard-working, self-denying, and often highly civilized members of a society whose political representation sorely needs sanitation, is an evident evil. It would be so in a community which had adopted with the parliamentary system its necessary corollary, the party system; but, as things are in France, it is perhaps for the public good that so large a proportion voluntarily refrains from politics."

We may ascribe the common use of "je ne m'occupe pas de politique" to absence of the party system, or to that widespread indifference which M. Anatole France has observed and mentions in a passage quoted by Mr. Bodley from 'L'Orme du Mail': "Public opinion, which was a reality under the Monarchy and the Empire, has no existence in our time, and the people, once ardent and generous, are now incapable either of love or of hatred, of admiration or of contempt." Thus Mr. Bodley detects among the French a want of political hope which is disclosed by cynical distrust in the value of universal suffrage, and he inclines to think that, as things are, it is "for the public good that so large a proportion voluntarily refrains from politics."

In conjunction with this stolid attitude of the masses, we must place as a bad symptom the vindictive hatred of politicians. Their corruption has been well known since the Panama trials; their savage slashing at each other is equally scandalous. Mr. Bodley sees on the one hand several thousand gladiators contesting violently for the palms of place and emolument; on the other, several million listless, however "free and independent," electors. The most famous and bitter contest of recent years was waged in the Var, when M. Clémenceau, driven to the wall, fought with a dash which had often enabled him to overthrow ministries. "But though, to assure his defeat, the forces of the boulevards were transported to Provence, the Department, which for a week was the talk of Europe, entered so tepidly into the fray that only one-half of its voters went to the poll." To atone for popular languor, Deputies and other candidates run to an excess of activity. Hence the scurrilous tone of newspapers and the long campaigns of abuse. Mr. Bodley adapts the phrase *homo homini lupus* to make it read *Gallus Gallo lupus*. Reprisals, either by arms or slander, have been the rule ever since Carrier proclaimed that the Jacobins would turn France into a cemetery rather than not regenerate it after their own fashion. On Ferry's death in 1893, M. Clovis Hugues gave as an obituary the Communist view of the late Senator: "Yesterday all-powerful, to-day Jules Ferry is but a corpse which the people have the right to execrate, and to-morrow the worms will eat him just as he had us eaten up by the Versailles troops in 1871." Should the typical Communist be called an *exagéré* like Hébert, Mr. Bodley, after seven years' study of the French press, might rejoin that the question of rancor is merely one of degree. "There is a nation to the members of which Frenchmen are more revengeful than to the Germans, more irascible than to Italians, more unjust than to English. It is to the French that Frenchmen display animosity more savage, more incessant, and more inequitable than to the people of any other race."

Fearing that passages like the last might have the ring of diatribe, Mr. Bodley declares that he is less severe than candid Frenchmen are. He claims warrant for every stricture he has made in a harsher criticism from some local source. For instance, according to M. Jules Roche, an ex-Minister: "We are the worst-governed country in the world—or, I will say, so as to hurt no one's feelings, one of the very worst." Despite his sense of republican shortcomings, Mr. Bodley will not allow the truth of this charge. On the contrary, he observes, "I should be perplexed to mention three nations which on the whole are better governed than France."

We now reach the second matter we have already emphasized, Mr. Bodley's praise of the institutions that were created under the First Empire. "The well-organized daily life of the nation, which is but little affected by politics, is a striking sign of the excellence of Napoleon's administrative structure." But if the present democracy is a failure, and France owes her chief gratitude to a despotism, what becomes of the legacy which the First Revolution is vaunted to have left? Are Liberty, Equality, Fraternity, once an ideal, at present a reproach? Mr. Bodley derives evident satisfaction from using these picturesque watchwords as a standard whereby to measure French failings. He will allow the Revolution no praise for the political salvation of France, because that is still unattained. He implacably traces to its turmoil "a psychological or moral result," restlessness, which keeps the waters always agitated and muddy. Since 1789 the country "has never yet found a political government to soothe and weld together the elements unsettled by the great upheaval." Taine, from whom Mr. Bodley draws much—if not in actual detail, at least in disenchantment of outlook—might have taken a similar tone about constitutional matters. He would have disagreed with his admirer's estimate of Napoleon's part in harvesting the good influences of the Revolution. We remember to have seen shortly after Plon Plon's death a manifesto in favor of Prince Victor Bonaparte. The strongest point in it was that France is undoubtedly republican, but that she needs an imperial head. Mr. Bodley instances the gold coins of the First Empire from 1804 to 1807. "On their face is engraved 'Napoléon Empereur,' and on the reverse, 'République Française.'" This seeming inconsistency, he urges, may point towards the right issue of France from her political difficulties. Let her cease to imitate British institutions, which are alien to the Celtic spirit. She "should organize her own, under an appropriate headship, and thus an Emperor, as the chief of a Republic, far from being an anomaly, might under favoring circumstances solve the unravelled problem of the century."

An English critic would put himself in a very false position were he to champion the claims of any French pretender, and we must explain that Mr. Bodley means the "strong man" in general, not a member of the Napoleonic dynasty. He judges the Second Empire more leniently than many would, but he likewise spares a kind word to the July Monarchy. His real enthusiasm is reserved for the founder of the code and the administrative system under which France lives through all changes of leadership. He believes that the French have accepted centralization finally and—considering national temperament—to good purpose. It means stability in the midst of experiment, and its necessity can be appreciated only when one tries to imagine the state without it. "If the Napoleonic fabric of centralization, which has survived all the vicissitudes of the century, were demolished, it would bring down with it every institution in France, with havoc more ruinous than that of 1789; and to build another structure, another Napoleon would be needed."

In a country which is subject to sudden political change, the constitutional forms,

while they may be important, are less important to the world at large than the spirit and tendencies of the time. We have, therefore, tried to indicate the chief impressions which remain after a careful reading of Mr. Bodley's book, instead of fastening upon points which arise from his description of President, Chambers, and parties. We ought not, however, to dismiss the subject before we have given a fuller idea of his purpose and contents. As to aim, he is simply a scientific inquirer like Arthur Young, De Tocqueville, and Mr. Bryce. He has no belief that he can reconcile French and English, because, where types are clear-cut and aggressive, fuller knowledge but breeds the conviction that genuine sympathy is impossible. This mental attitude reacts well on his tone and temper. Where a man believes that he is an agent of public conciliation, he may even stoop to flatter that good may come. Mr. Bodley is saved from paying court to the French nation by a knowledge of the fact that the cause of peace and national fraternity does not hang upon his pen. Still, he deserves credit for his candor. After accepting kindness from so many classes of people, the truth could not always have been easy to speak.

Mr. Bodley presents a much smaller number of topics under 'France' than Mr. Bryce took up under 'The American Commonwealth,' and his essay is of narrower extent. Having already cited the titles of his four large divisions, we may state that the first examines the ideals of 1792 in the light of their fulfilment; that the second and third centre about such organic features as legislative and executive power; and that the fourth, with its eight subdivisions, enters fully into the group system of political parties. We are unable to single out any one heading for special notice, but we shall observe that Mr. Bodley regards constitutional matters with an eye to their flesh-and-blood purport, and not at all as metaphysical abstractions. He sometimes suggests De Tocqueville, never Sieyès.

One must distinguish between the Third Republic and the people of the country. Mr. Bodley's interest in the vital side of politics becomes plain whenever he speaks of the French themselves. Though disparaging a form of government, he admires many traits of the national character, and sets France far before Germany in her hold on the attention of mankind. The corrupt politicians, the outrageous press, the equally vapid and mischievous life of fashionable society are on the surface; let one break ground a little, and he will discover a hard-working army, a devout clergy, an austere and laborious university. Mr. Bodley never wearies of magnifying the Institute, whether in the case of individual members or of the whole body, and he seems to detect a saving remnant where one would least expect it—in the Chamber of Deputies. The Left Centre with Whig sentiments and a certain amount of *sang froid* preserves the best traditions of bourgeois rule during the reign of Louis Philippe. Only a small quota of just men was demanded from the cities of the plain, and followers of the late Léon Say will perhaps give a good account of themselves should the French Legislature ever develop into a political Sodom.

We shall add a final word concerning Mr. Bodley's value as a critic and as a writer. With a good command of historical and literary allusion to supplement careful research and local knowledge, one can approach anything short of the Eastern Question in a mood of moderate confidence. We give Mr. Bodley credit for the virtues just catalogued, and also for the wish to put matters in a fair light. If he has a bias, it is towards aristocracy, taking that word in its original meaning, taking it in the sense which Aristotle contemplated when contrasting it with oligarchy. According to the poet, Merlin was amused at Vivien's foolish effrontery—

> "And smiling as a master smiles at one
> That is not of his school, nor any school,
> But that where blind and naked Ignorance
> Delivers brawling judgments unashamed
> On all things all day long, he answered her."

A mage may smile at a fair maiden, but it implies a fund of philosophy to accept thus the antics of the self-seeking ignoramus in politics, and Mr. Bodley, a good deal put out with French office-hunters, becomes paradoxical in limiting the significance of the Revolution. At one extreme we may place Lord Beaconsfield's epigram that there are only two facts in history, the Trojan War and the French Revolution. Surely the truth lies somewhere between this "smart" speech and Mr. Bodley's more carefully considered judgment:

"The best that can be said of the French Revolution is that, just when civilization was on the point of making history colorless, it burst forth and produced for the student and the artist a collection of pictures and documents thrilling and pathetic, grandiose and revolting, such as no epoch of antiquity or modern times has supplied. But, to provide intellectual pleasure for the cultivated, it is hardly worth while that millions of the human race should have lamentably perished before their term."

The reader will see that such an estimate reveals a particular attitude of mind towards the ideas for which the movement stands, and that many parts of a work on modern France will be conditioned thereby.

Although he connects the 'Histoire Parliamentaire' with the names of "Roux and Bouchez," and says that not one out of a million travellers in Switzerland knows the name of the actual President, Mr. Bodley is generally accurate and unexaggerated in statement. A wealth of anecdotal and biographical reference makes his chapters pleasant and lively to read. Claiming our right to find fault, we may suggest that much reiteration could have been saved by a more compact arrangement of leading points. The style has been closely looked after, and an abundance of neat phrases awaits the amateur of terse speech. In this respect the work is so creditable that we wonder how the following sentence could have escaped revision:

"On the former [highway] stands the village of Boissy St. Léger, where Madame de Staël, arriving from Switzerland on November 9, 1799, made her last change of horses before entering Paris, just as Barras passed on his way to Gros Bois hard by, the château then occupied by him, but soon to be given to another son of the Revolution, Berthier, afterwards Prince de Wagram, whose descendant still lives there."

While differing from Mr. Bodley on certain fundamental questions, we can freely avow that he has not spent his seven years in vain.

NETTLESHIP'S REMAINS.

Philosophical Lectures and Remains of Richard Lewis Nettleship, Fellow and Tutor of Balliol College, Oxford. Edited, with a biographical sketch, by A. C. Bradley, Professor of English Literature in the University of Glasgow, formerly Fellow and Lecturer of Balliol College, Oxford, and G. R. Benson of Balliol College, Oxford. 2 volumes, with portraits. Macmillan.

A confusion between Lewis Nettleship and his elder brothers, the late Corpus Professor of Latin, Henry Nettleship, the distinguished consulting oculist, Edward Nettleship, and John Nettleship, the well-known animal painter, is possible among us, to whom Lewis must be known, if at all, by the little that he actually published: (1) The Arnold Prize Essay on 'The Normans in Italy and Sicily' (1873); (2) "An Italian Study of Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress" (*Macmillan's Magazine*, November, 1878); (3) "The Theory of Education in the Republic of Plato" (written in 1879 for Mr. Evelyn Abbott's 'Hellenica,' Rivingtons, 1880); (4) an article on T. H. Green's philosophy (in the *Contemporary* for May, 1882); and (5) the Memoir of the late Professor T. H. Green in Nettleship's edition of that philosopher's works (Longmans, 1888). The need of such an explanation is due chiefly to the disaster on Mont Blanc in August, 1892, which abruptly closed his life before he had yet completed his forty-sixth year. To those whom personal friendship enables to read between the lines of Prof. Bradley's sketch, the brief memoir prefixed to these volumes will seem a model of what such an account should be; but, for others, Prof. Bradley might well have attempted a connected survey of Lewis Nettleship's interpretation of Plato. Also, by a little different treatment of his correspondence, and one or two extracts from Nettleship's unprinted MSS. on 'The Normans in Italy,' Prof. Bradley could probably have given the general reading public a more telling picture and a fuller suggestion of his really noteworthy genius for the pleasures of genuine comradeship with his pupils. Though the biography here given will be found exceptionally interesting, its effect upon many will be that of something too esoteric for the uninitiated.

This defect is all the more to be regretted because the sense of an imperfect contact with Nettleship's personal and uncommon quality can hardly be removed by reading what our editors have to give us from Nettleship himself. All of these Lectures and Remains come to us in an esoteric shape, and not as Nettleship would have prepared them for publication. The first volume, for which Prof. Bradley is responsible, comprises at the outset five notable though extremely brief papers on Immortality, Pleasure, Spirit, Individuality, and the Atonement. These papers make Nettleship most nearly accessible to "the general." They are untechnical discussions of topics of vital interest, modern difficulties, religious and ethical, illustrated by an insight which is not less but more of our own day because perfected by a lifelong study of Plato. The next item consists in accounts of travel and extracts from Nettleship's correspondence with six of his friends. Then follow Lectures on Logic, compiled chiefly from notes made by pupils. The volume closes with portions of a long projected but never completed book on Plato. Mr. Godfrey Benson's second volume is entirely occupied by his compilation (also from pupils' notes) of Nettleship's much frequented Balliol Lectures on the 'Republic' of Plato. Mr. Benson has been extremely successful in the performance of a difficult task, but he could

neither hope nor attempt to alter the off-hand manner used by Nettleship in lecturing, but never tolerated by him in anything intended for publication. His Lectures on the 'Republic' were unwritten; each year they were different, and were always growing better. Those who have heard the lectures of Prof. Alfred Croiset in Paris will have some idea of the effect achieved by Nettleship's conscientiously prepared and finished improvisations. Something to give greater pungency and relief to Prof. Bradley's picture of Lewis Nettleship could perhaps have been gained by inquiry among his occasional correspondents.

"I am afraid circumstances are too much for me," he wrote in 1886 to an American pupil, "and it is no good promising to write regularly to my friends. I still enjoy producing a letter when I have the time and the mood; but the longer one goes without seeing people, the harder it is to think about them continuously, and the less common material there is for intercommunication. And so I find my correspondence has dwindled down to one or two people, and even with those threatens to become intermittent. . . . I am still a Balliol Tutor, and though I live in a house with my mother, I spend most of my time and energy in College. I sometimes try to think how it has changed since your time [1878]. It *has* changed, no doubt, and yet it is very hard to put one's finger on the precise points. There is a good deal of interest now among the men in what they call 'Social Questions,' which I think is healthy, though of course it has its aberrations."

A very different but an equally characteristic side of Nettleship shows in a letter to the same correspondent, written from Drontheim, in August, 1881:

"I have just returned from a month's struggle in the wilderness with the Norwegian devil, and have been trying to work at Plato in latitude 69. In my journeyings I met a Mrs. —— and Miss ——, who said they knew you. They were very friendly to me, and Mrs. ——, under a complication of asthma, rheumatism, and general disease, displayed a vigor such as I never see except in your countrywomen."

This letter closes with a reminiscence which speaks volumes for the easy and almost boyish intimacy that subsisted between Lewis Nettleship and his pupils: "Heavens, how it all comes back again—those morning 'bathes' with you, and little ——and——enormous in the sunrise." In the earliest letter of this same correspondence, written on Christmas Day, 1878, Nettleship announces the death of a common friend, also his former pupil—one who was so passionately attached to him that he refused to leave Oxford without giving Nettleship certain keepsakes.

"Poor D——p," exclaims Nettleship, "I have seen nothing of him since last winter, when R—— and V—— and he and I dined together in Town. Then I had one or two letters, and since the summer . . . I have known nothing about him. I am glad to think that I have got his clock and 'jorrocks' to remind me of him, though I don't know any one whom I should be so little likely to forget. One cannot help feeling that he and M——m were two as representative Oxford men as one could find; the one rejecting all the obvious good of the place, the other drinking it all in; and yet both meeting on a common ground in something which could not be expressed in class-lists, but which yet is of the essence of Oxford. It is sad work, these young deaths."

Passing then to the American phase of the "Greek Question," Nettleship goes on to say:

"I always hope that America may eventually help to shew us old-fashioned people the way to reconcile classical education with modern life. The problem in England is appallingly difficult. So many elements other than purely educational ones enter into it that it is almost impossible to get people to look at it straight. . . . The difficulty seems to be to find methods for gradually diverting the enormous wealth and talent which are now spent on teaching it into other channels. And there is always a danger of playing into the hands of the mere *βάναυσοι*, if one is too much in a hurry to diminish the demands of classics. I quite believe myself that the real interests of classical literature are sufficient to guarantee that the most cultivated minds will always study it; and I don't see why many of the ideas which it contains should not come to be a real power in modern life; there are certainly signs of this. But the more this is felt to be true, the less it seems to me will able men be ready to apply these literatures as mere mechanical contrivances for extracting a certain amount of effort out of the average boy. Nor can I think that it is natural for any boy to begin to get his first ideas from books which can have to him little more meaning than counters."

Here Nettleship, for special reasons, puts the case against the classics; a rather more adequate suggestion of his views may be gathered from an extract given by Prof. Bradley (i., 85), and can be gleaned from his memoir of T. H. Green. Indeed, his deliberate mind on this subject is indicated in the 'Hellenica' (p. 171), where, after admitting that we cannot bring back days like those in which systems were constructed by discussion in the streets of Athens or the gardens of the Academy, he declares that it is "all the more important that the few men in each generation who might have taken part in such discussions should make the works of the great thinkers of the world not a dead letter, but a living voice, by entering into their spirit, interpreting their speech, and carrying on their thought."

How well he himself ended by accomplishing this most difficult task appears repeatedly in these volumes; nowhere more strikingly than in his account of the 'Philebus' (i., 325 ff.). After mentioning the inevitable irritation caused in a modern reader by the drift of this Dialogue, he attributes it to "the length and rapidity" of Plato's "mental stride," and to "the comparatively unoccupied state of the ground which he had to traverse." And then he adds: "It would take a modern philosopher much more time and trouble to pass from an analysis of heat or of itching to the conception of a divine mind or of an absolute good." But he finds our chief stumbling-block in "the fusion (some will say the confusion), already noticed in the 'Gorgias,' of the scientific and moral aspects of life." Another instance of our author's gift as a "revivalist" of Platonic thought may be found in his remark ('Hellenica,' p. 125) that "if the Duke of Wellington could say that the battle of Waterloo was won on the playing-fields at Eton, we need not be surprised at Plato when he speaks of children 'receiving the spirit of law through their music.'" Again he says (ii., 141): "Plato's belief that changes in the fashion of popular music are signs of great political change, seems exaggerated merely because it is stated so simply. A modern writer would establish the connection between these things at greater length, but the idea is certainly not foreign to modern thought."

Lewis Nettleship spent his life piercing each year more completely through "the veil of conventional platitudes, pretentious antiquarianism, and sentimental finery" which obscures the modern eye in contemplating Plato. The study of his progress often has a dramatic interest like that of the gradual cementing of a friendship. Indeed, he himself has said, in speaking of the 'Republic': "Every great book has characteristics of its own, which have to be studied like the characteristics of a person" (i., 4). Pater went a step further, and said that the Platonic ideas were in some sense "persons to be known as persons must be, and to be loved for the perfections . . . of their being." Just how Nettleship worked out in his own mind this personal conception of the 'Republic' is suggested by his definition of it as "an ideal picture of the rise and fall of the human soul; its rise to its highest stage of development, and its fall to its lowest depth" (ii., 5).

At the close of this account of a great teacher, the real record of whose life must fatally remain inaccessible to the larger public, should stand words concerning him written by Prof. Bradley, and inscribed on the wall of Balliol College chapel, above the recently erected memorial of Jowett: "He loved great things, and thought little of himself; desiring neither fame nor influence, he won the devotion of men and was a power in their lives; and, seeking no disciples, he taught to many the greatness of the world and of man's mind."

Picturesque Sicily. By William Agnew Paton. Harper & Brothers. 1898. Pp. xii, 381.

In 1896 M. Gaston Vuillier published a sumptuous quarto on Sicily, the contents of which he had already given to the world in the pages of the *Tour du Monde.* Were it not that its price puts it beyond the reach of many modest purses, there would have been but little occasion for Mr. Paton's book, coming so soon as it does after its splendid predecessor. For a moment we were tempted to think that there was no occasion at all, and that Mr. Paton might have spared himself the trouble of writing. To show what we mean, we cite a passage from p. 152 of Vuillier:

"Lorsque l'empire byzantin tomba sous la domination musulmane, l'Albanie seule, soutenue par l'ardent patriotisme de Scanderbeg, lutta quelques années. En 1488, voyant leur perte inévitable, les Albanais résolurent d'abandonner leur patrie et leurs biens plutôt que de subir la loi du vainqueur. Ils demandèrent asile à Ferdinand d'Aragon, roi de Naples, qui les accueillit avec faveur et les fit passer en Sicile, où ils fondèrent les colonies de *Piana dei Greci, Palazzo-Adriano, Contessa* et *Mezzojuso.* Ils ont vécu là depuis, isolés, en pleine montagne, se transmettant pieusement de père en fils les coutumes de leur ancienne patrie et les superbes costumes des ancêtres."

On p. 137 of Paton one finds the following:

"When the Byzantine empire fell under the dominion of the Mussulmans, Albania alone, inspired by the ardent patriotism of Scanderbeg, continued for some years to offer effectual resistance to the power of her enemies. In 1488 A. D., overcome by overwhelming numbers, the Albanians resolved to abandon their unhappy country, at no matter what sacrifice of worldly goods, rather than submit to the oppression of their conquerors. Ferdinand of Aragon, King of Naples, received the Albanian ambassadors and showed them favor, and granted to their nation the privilege of founding in Sicily four colonies of exiled people, who crossed the seas, as did the later Pilgrim Fathers, seeking 'freedom to worship God' and liberty to manage their temporal affairs. Certain of these exiles settled in Sicily, at Piana dei Greci, Palazzo Adriano, Contessa, and at

Mezzojuso. There these brave people made homes for themselves, and in the lonely valleys where they built their cities their descendants have continued to dwell, cherishing the traditions of an ancient race, preserving the manners and customs and regulating their living according to the habits and laws of their ancestors."

A little further on is another passage, in the description of the costumes of Piana dei Greci, which bears the same strange resemblance to a passage in Vuillier. There are, it is true, differences. In describing the clasp of the girdle of a wedding dress, Vuillier says that it is "ciselée," and he speaks again of its "ciselure." Mr. Paton's description reads like a free translation of Vuillier, except that he says the clasp is "engraved" instead of *ciselée*, and he speaks of its "repoussée work" instead of its *ciselure*. To be sure, there is a doubt permissible as to his knowing the precise signification of the words he employs.

Mr. Paton can scarcely be pleased at hearing that certain of his passages have been anticipated in so nearly identical a fashion. It seems like a waste of time to tell the same thing twice in the same words, and, besides, the first telling robs the second of its air of originality. We do not accuse him of appropriating what is not his: there is that happy touch about the Pilgrim Fathers—it gives relief to what might appear otherwise a vain repetition; his "lonely valleys" gives the other side of Vuillier's "en pleine montagne"; and then the quotation-marks enclosing "freedom to worship God" show a praiseworthy scrupulousness in the acknowledgment of borrowings.

And, to speak more seriously, we do not find that Mr. Paton has taken very much from Vuillier. In the first place, the two follow different lines in describing Sicily. Vuillier is a friend and disciple of Pitré, and, next to the account of places, it is the superstitions, the traditions, the folk-lore of Sicily that most interest him. Mr. Paton, after his own personal experiences (which, to one who knows Sicily, form the freshest and pleasantest part of his book) and his bits of topography, turns his attention, as was the way of the late Mr. Freeman, to history. And as his is the work of a simple tourist, it goes without saying that his history and statistics are given at second hand. There need be no quarrel with him on that score, so long as he chooses his authorities well, and in some way acknowledges his indebtedness. This he has quite sufficiently done except in the case of M. Vuillier, whom he has not mentioned, and of the late John Addington Symonds, for whose first name he invariably substitutes the initial T.

There are, however, two or three vexatious peculiarities in the book. The first that one notices is that the author almost invariably gives the Italian article with the names of streets, places, etc., *e. g.*, "On Il Corso Vittorio Emanuele, near Porta Nuova, is La Piazza del Duomo, to which Il Duomo di Palermo presents its right flank" (p. 59). He does this with such insistence that, when thoroughly exasperated by it, one is tempted to think that he knows but little Italian and has inordinate joy in the flavor of that little. Unhappily, the proof of this is not far to seek. A glance at a dictionary might have saved him from translating plum-trees into *carrubi* (p. 127), and a little more grammar would not have allowed him to substitute the third person indicative for the first (and more than once) in quoting the children who tell him they are dying of hunger. The Conca d'Oro changes its gender as often as he mentions it, article included. One wishes he would not talk about "una signora inglesa" and "una francesa," and one absolutely feels sorry for him in both his transcription and his translation of a sign over the door of a wine-shop. They are respectively as follows: "Sinchero il trovi sempre, e di valore, e avrai sana, la verita, e lieto il cuore," which, he says, "may be paraphrased, 'In wine are sincerity, valor, health, truth, and lightness of heart'" (p. 90)! It is no sin not to know Italian, but in such case it is an indiscretion to attempt to write it.

Of course, the errors and blunders that every tourist inevitably falls into are not wanting here, but, as they are mostly of slight moment, it is not necessary to enumerate such as we have marked. Do we not daily meet persons who have passed not months but years in Italy, and who still are constantly discovering the most astounding mare's-nests in Italian life and character? Alongside of the average *forestiere*, Mr. Paton appears of an almost meticulous accuracy. We could, however, wish that, besides such knowledge of the Italian and of the Sicilian dialect as are necessary to a real understanding of the people he is trying to judge, he had also been able to enrich his book with an adequate account of the monuments of architecture that are perhaps the chief glory of the country. Viollet-le-Duc went far towards accomplishing this service for its Greek temples, but there is room for a new work on that fusion of elements that resulted in a style of singular beauty and completeness, but which, confined to a narrow territory, has left very few examples of itself.

For the true lover of Sicily no description is sufficient which does not convey a sense of the exquisite poetry in which the Sicilian landscape is steeped—partly a result of moisture and partly also of the southern sun—where the subtle transitions of English and Dutch scenery and the tender melancholy of Venice are blended with something which is of none of these, but of Sicily alone. It is in landscape what in music is the tenor of which we say that it has tears in it. It is a merit of M. Vuillier's book that it suggests this charm. Mr. Paton may, however, be congratulated, after all exceptions have been taken, on a work that has been conscientiously put together, giving a fair enough representation of many aspects of the little world of Sicily, and that is pleasant to read. The appendices on the Mafia, on brigandage and the Sicilian question are, especially the first named, worth attention. The volume is a goodly one to look upon, and the illustrations, taken from photographs, are really good. It is only to be objected to them that they are uniformly spaced at intervals of eight pages, and that, as a consequence, they rarely coincide with the text they should supplement.

Historic Ornament: Treatise on Decorative Art and Architectural Ornament. By James Ward, author of 'The Principles of Ornament.' Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897. $3.00.

This is a useful book of reference, if for its illustrations alone. Four hundred and thirty-six of them scattered over four hundred and nine pages do not leave a very great deal of text for the reader, but what text there is, is extremely intelligible; at once simple and direct. Being so brief, the text has to deal in general principles boldly asserted, and cannot give much delicate hair-splitting in the way of the statement of half-truths and the refinements of critical examinations. A general proposition, being accepted as true, has to be stated as if it were always true, and the reader is left to his belief that no exceptions exist until he consults other and more critical works.

More than one-eighth of the whole book is devoted to prehistoric art. More than one-third is devoted to Egypt, Chaldea, ancient Persia, and the like, and the subject of Romanesque architecture and ornament is not reached until the three hundred and thirtieth page. We have then, necessarily, the most hurried treatment of the great mediæval styles; and finally, and most remarkable of all, the art of the Renaissance and of all the epochs that have succeeded that epoch is inadequately gone over in forty pages crowded with cuts. Whether this proportionate length and fulness of treatment of different epochs is the result of the author's preference does not certainly appear. It may be merely the result of a lack of care in laying out the work, or in a change of plan which has caused the cutting down of a much larger book to one of the present size. However that may be, there is but little to be got from the later pages, and it is hardly worth while to read in them about the revived classic styles. On the other hand, the treatment of the Phœnician and Chaldean art is good, considering the popular character of the book and the limited nature of the materials from which the author could make his compilations.

A great deal of space, relatively speaking, has been given to the mythological legends of the peoples whose art is treated of. Thus, there are many pages devoted to an account of the Greek and Græco-Roman deities, less with regard to the quality and character of the works of art supposed to represent those deities, their attributes and actions, than as to their purely literary legend. It seems to have been thought that all the information must be given together and within the same pair of covers, and that the reader who might wish to know about the Apollo Belvidere might feel slighted if he were not told all about Apollo that could be found in a mythological dictionary. To the student who desires information about Grecian decorative art, it is certainly irritating to find so little concerning the ornaments of the great times, and so much about Jupiter and his wives and children, Apollo and his various potentialities, nymphs, graces, and heroes. These personages have little to do with the decorative art of the Greeks; indeed, one has to abandon at once the idea that the title-page is accurately descriptive of a book which like this truly undertakes to treat of all the fine art of the periods in question, except the larger and more elaborate paintings, where such exist. As to the Greek and Græco-Roman gods, it is most uncritical, most inaccurate, to state, as it is stated here, that they are one and the same, and that Zeus may be treated indifferently under that name or as Jupiter. The existence in early Latin legend of gods of truly Italian origin, some of which were identified afterwards with Greek divinities, but others not so confused, is never suggested.

On the whole, however, the bold state-

ments of general truths may be accepted as truthful enough, in the main; but that these general statements are treated as if they were universal in their application, is unfortunate and misleading. Thus, it is true that the Byzantine builders of the fifth century, and subsequent centuries, did wonderful things with the cupola or dome, and roofed many buildings in part by the use of that kind of vault; but to say (page 295) that "the timber-roofed and vaulted style of architecture now gave place to the dome," is to make a totally false statement. So the assumption that, in the earliest Christian buildings, paintings were used instead of sculpture, because of the religious objection to sculpture, which latter art was considered as identified with heathen worship, is wholly to ignore the use of paintings in heathen worship, and also to ignore the complete decay of the art of sculpture in Europe during the years just preceding the triumph of Latin Christianity. Such rash assertions might be culled from these pages by scores, but it would be to do injustice to the book, which is far more remarkable for the general accuracy of its statements, however hastily made, than for the erroneous boldness of a comparatively small proportion. The conclusion would seem to be that the author has used the best authorities in an intelligent way, but that the determination to make the book serve for easy reference, and for the use of hurried people consulting country libraries, has caused him to state as always true that which strikes him as true in the main. The moral is that the statement of these general truths is unsafe, except by a writer of real and profound knowledge of the subjects treated.

A certain carelessness of diction, as where Lazarus is said to be "represented as a mummy," and as where the statue of Zeus at Olympia is said to have been "made of, or probably covered over with, plates of ivory and gold (Chryselephantine); the ivory plates covered the exposed parts of the flesh," may be noted. There are many such instances, but in the second of the two above given, there is reached, perhaps, the culmination of careless wording. The uninstructed reader might ask in vain what is meant by the word Chryselephantine, enclosed in the parenthesis and floating in the sentence to which it cannot be made to belong, and he would wonder what kind of protection or clothing the ivory plates might be to the "exposed part of the flesh." The fact that the word Chryselephantine is an adjective, and the fact that the modern archæologists infer that the nude parts of the statue were made of ivory, and the clothed, or draped, parts, of gold, with or without enamelling, needs, of course, to be stated; but it is not stated in the above or in other sentences of this description.

Different passages in the text point to the appearance of a second volume, and a star on the back indicates that another volume will appear with two stars. Moreover, a sentence in the preface says that in the succeeding volume "the various divisions of the industrial arts and crafts will be treated in their historical developments." Final conclusions as to the value of the work should, therefore, be deferred until the appearance of the second volume.

Christina Rossetti: A Biographical and Critical Study. By Mackenzie Bell. With six portraits and facsimiles. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1898.

It is easy to imagine that another writer would have done much better with Mr. Bell's materials than he has done with them; but, at the same time, it is evident that his materials were not of the kind that lend themselves heartily to the making of a good biography. We may trust an admiration so great as his for Miss Rossetti to have left no stone unturned which might conceal some item of importance to her memory and fame; but his utmost care and patience have made late discovery of few precious things. Her life was hardly less recluse than that of her sister Francesca, who entered an Anglican religious house. Its events were her poems, and of these Mr. Bell has not written with any critical perception of their quality. It is true that she had two offers of marriage, but these have been treated with a reserve that could not have been more delicate if Miss Rossetti had herself dictated the words. Her own piety tended so strongly to the Roman Catholic type that it is strange to find her refusing her first suitor, a painter, because he was a Roman Catholic. This was in 1849, when she was in her nineteenth year, and in 1866 a second offer was rejected because her lover was "either not a Christian at all, or else was a Christian of undefined and heterodox views." While her sister Maria Francesca was an Anglican nun, her brother Dante Gabriel was a free-thinker. But for her devotion to her mother and other members of her family, she would probably have followed her sister into the nunnery. She was, says Dante Gabriel, "an outer sister," and in one respect she was less Puritan and more Romanist than Francesca, who would not look at William Blake's illustrations of the Book of Job for fear of breaking the second commandment, while Christina's mysticism, which was intense and all-pervading, must have made her sympathetic with the whole range of Roman Catholic art, however frank its representations of the Deity.

Her difference from Dante Gabriel was a very interesting one. His liberal use of mediæval pieties in his paintings and poems was altogether sentimental and æsthetic. He believed nothing of the Roman Catholic doctrine or legend. But Christina pounced upon nothing in this field that was not her own as a sincere and vital part of her religious life. It was the opinion of her brother William that she wrote nothing as a poet which she did not believe as a saint. She served a long apprenticeship, and, while her poetical self-consciousness was developed at an early age, it was not until 1862 that her first volume of poems was fairly published. We say "fairly published" because in 1847 her maternal grandfather, G. Polidori, privately printed a volume of her 'Verses.' Between this time and the publication of her first and most significant volume in 1862, many of the poems collected in that volume appeared in various magazines, a large proportion of the many in *Macmillan's Magazine*. Mr. Bell has given us an elaborate bibliography both of her separate publications and her works. The former is somewhat confusing, because it is not chronological; one magazine is reported on and then another. Until 1890 her income from her writings was never more than £45 a year, and often less; after that it rapidly increased. It did so, we infer, less because of a growing appreciation of her poetry than because of her manuals of piety, 'Time Flies' and 'The Face of the Deep,' the latter "A Devotional Commentary on the Apocalypse." There were several others of the same kind, and all of them together secured her an extensive following of such pious souls as dote on Keble's 'Christian Year,' though it is interesting that she herself thought nothing of Keble's poetry, or rather of Keble as a poet. The favor which she met with as a religious writer did much for her reputation as a poet in Anglican Church circles, and possibly something to injure it among those who think that "beauty is its own excuse for being." She became more and more the poet of a special cult, of those "readers who," as her brother William aptly wrote, "drawing the deepest delight from such poetry as specially appeals to them, never read any other, and have but small knowledge of poetry as a fine art."

She suffered much from ill health, and the effect of this upon her verse was not agreeable to those who cared more for her poetry than for her piety. Mr. Bell has concluded the story of her life in five chapters, after which he takes up her work, under its different aspects, in four more, ending with a "Critical Survey." Several of the pictures of her face are interesting, and one of those by her brother Dante is very lovely, but she warns us not to credit her with all its beauty. So many of her admirers have thought of her as "an unbodied joy" that they will be surprised and shocked to read of her increasing "portliness." Her habits of composition were eminently spontaneous. One friend writes that she seldom revised her work, but William Rossetti writes that, after the impulsive production of her poems, "she took whatever pains she deemed requisite for keeping them right in form and expression." Mrs. Meynell writes that Christina always approached her subjects from the poetic side. William Rossetti says, No; from the religious. It cannot be said that either her least or most religious poems are the most beautiful. The most beautiful are those in which the religious spirit is interfused through poems not specifically religious.

Mr. Bell's "Critical Survey" is made up for the most part of quotations from other writers, some of them of the rarest competency in such matters. Dante Rossetti found in some of his sister's poems the "falsetto muscularity of the Barrett-Browning style," but Mr. Bell thinks the impeachment has no warrant. There have been many comparisons between the Italianized English-woman and the Anglicized Italian. There were both virtues and faults in Miss Rossetti's verses which had the color of her Italian blood. Mrs. Browning was much the more human of the two, and Mr. Bell's criticism, that some of her poems "owe their success, not to their qualities as poems, but to their vividness and insight in depicting the conditions they describe," is a peculiar one, as if such vividness and insight did not have much to do with the making of true poems. It is interesting to imagine what the comparative fame of Mrs. Browning would have been if she had written for high churchmen instead of for the low and broad—her special paradox, to which few have since attained, while the commingling of High-Church ritualism with Broad Church criticism has come to be a commonplace affair. It is interesting, on the other hand, to imagine what poems Miss Rossetti would have given us if she had had Mrs. Browning's experience of full and satisfying love.

None of her poems has so keen a personal note as Mrs. Browning's "Portuguese Sonnets"; and yet it is her sonnets which approach the region of their personal sentiment that are Miss Rossetti's most memorable and perfect things.

Manuel de l'Histoire de la Littérature française. Par Ferdinand Brunetière, de l'Académie française. Paris: Ch. Delagrave.

A new book by M. Brunetière must of necessity command attention; and when it turns out to be a bcok in form and purpose differing from those which have already appeared under his name, the interest of curiosity is increased. It is not, however, strictly accurate to say that the purpose of the present Manual is different from that which the writer has hitherto set before himself. M. Brunetière has always sought to make French literature known better and in a more intelligent way. So far, then, the Manual carries out the same idea. It is distinct in this, that criticism such as we are accustomed to connect with the author's name does not occupy the most prominent place or fill up the greater part of the book. There is plenty of criticism in it, of the right kind, coming at the right time, but the chief object is to give the reader a clear and vivid view of French literature through the ages. In this M. Brunetière has succeeded beyond expectation, and his book is one of the most useful additions to the student's stock in trade and to the teacher's resources which have been published in many years. Indeed, it would be difficult to point to any other history or manual or primer of French literature which does for us just what this one accomplishes. There are plenty of excellent works in which one may find catalogues of writers and their works, with dates of everything relating to them, and with the stock estimate of their rank in history. There are others in which dates and accuracy are scarce, but in which the anecdote replaces them to the perfect satisfaction of a certain class of teachers and students. Others, again, like Faguet's 'Études,' are admirable studies of the prominent writers of an epoch, but do not profess to do more than to study those particular writers and that particular age. M. Brunetière's 'Manuel' is better than all of its class in this, that it gives us a "vue d'ensemble" of the whole literary movement in France from the origins to the present day. For this alone we should be greatly beholden to it, and for this alone we should be grateful to the author, for he has done in a brilliant and philosophical way what no other author has done so well or so thoroughly. When, in addition, the work provides us with a satisfactory substitute for the catalogue style of history, and a substitute which, like the synthetical view of the movement of thought, is full of suggestions and ideas, it is hard to say what more the teacher or student can ask for.

Here is another peculiarity of the 'Manuel': it is at once a broad and comprehensive review and a mine of information. The result has been obtained by separating the two parts, including in the former the history of thought and its expression, in the latter the abundant details concerning the life and works of the chief authors recognized as classical and important. This latter portion is perhaps the more fruitful in suggestions of subjects for inquiry and research, as may be seen at a glance by referring to the articles on Molière, La Fontaine, Voltaire, and others—men about whom it might have been supposed that "tout est dit," but about whom or whose works M. Brunetière has the art of finding or suggesting something new.

The style of the book has a charm of its own. It may as well be owned that not always has M. Brunetière written in a style which, without losing any of the power and authority which mark him, has at the same time grace and vivacity. To this we are not accustomed in his writings. The book reads trippingly; the arguments are clear and usually cogent; the reasons stated luminously, and the conclusions set forth in such fashion that blind indeed must he be who does not know the author's opinion, and strong indeed he who is not made to share it in part if not in whole.

The Wound-Dresser: A Series of Letters Written from the Hospitals in Washington during the War of the Rebellion by Walt Whitman. Edited by Richard Maurice Bucke, M.D., one of Whitman's Literary Executors. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 1898.

The title of Dr. Bucke's present collection of Whitman's letters is, possibly, intended as a tribute to that bad taste of the poet which was one of the most conspicuous aspects of his mind. Two letters written by Whitman in February and March, 1863, to the New York *Times* and the Brooklyn *Eagle* give his general conception of the condition of affairs in the Washington hospitals to which the letters following furnish many special illustrations. It is easy to understand, from both the public and the private letters, why he was not always *persona grata* to the officers, physicians, and nurses having the hospital in charge. His comments tend to adverse criticism with a persistent gravitation, notwithstanding his general recognition of the efficient fidelity of the army surgeons. His conception of his own function is expressed when he writes, "There is something in personal love, caresses, and the magnetic flood of sympathy and friendship, that does, in its way, more good than all the medicine in the world. . . . I believe that even the moving around among the men, or through the ward, of a hearty, healthy, clean, strong, generous-souled person, man or woman, full of humanity and love, sending out invisible, constant currents thereof, does immense good to the sick and wounded." The author of "Calamus" speaks audibly in these phrases. At the same time it must be said that Whitman does not seem to have spared himself any disagreeable duty, or, rather, anything that would have been disagreeable but for his poetic doctrine that there is nothing common or unclean. The test for the reality of his doctrine must have been a severe one, and it would be interesting to know if he was satisfied with the result. His sympathy with the sufferings of the soldiers and their homesick yearnings brightens every page. The letters in their continuity give a more graphic picture of hospital life and death than we have seen elsewhere, and we have here a human document that may be particularly commended to those who differ from Prof. Drummond as to "The Greatest Thing in the World," confident that that is not love but war.

These letters are instructive not only with regard to Whitman's hospital service, but with regard to his devotion to his mother and other members of his family. Writing to his mother, there is hardly a sentence that does not begin "Mother." If the word is omitted at the beginning of the sentence, it is put in further on. If this form smacks of affectation, it is impossible to doubt the reality and warmth of the affection which permitted itself an artificial trait. Possibly it was a concession to the mother's simple heart, and the appearance of illiteracy here and there may have the same excuse. The heliotype picture of the mother is that of a most comfortable soul, deserving of all filial loyalty. How much of a dandy Whitman was in his personal attire has here fresh illustration. The highest collar could not delight the wearer more than his opposite extreme. He trampled on the pride of dandyism, but with greater pride.

Southern Soldier Stories. By George Cary Eggleston. With illustrations by R. F. Zogbaum. The Macmillan Co. 12mo, pp. 251.

Mr. Eggleston has already proved his gift at telling the experiences and incidents of the civil war. This series of short stories of the Confederate camp is full of the spirit of camp life, with its quick alternations of grave and gay. The stories are very short ones, generally—many of them only three or four pages long; but the writer comes to the point at once, and wastes no time in preliminaries or in moralizing afterward. The thread on which they are strung is the service of a Confederate soldier, in Stuart's cavalry at the beginning of the war, and then in the artillery. Chronology is openly disregarded, the scene shifting from Beaufort Harbor, on the South Carolina coast, to the front of Washington in 1861, or to the Wilderness campaign in 1864, the lines of Petersburg, or back to the Carolinas. The veteran is supposed to be telling his tales as they happen to occur to him, whether from his own experience or that of his comrades; the first person, as he says, meaning no more than that he gives them as he got them, illustrative of the Southern soldier's life, whether his own or another's. A few turn on the heroic devotion of mothers and maidens to the cause for which the boys were fighting, and some have touching bits of sentimental romance, more or less probable. The best work is done in very realistic scenes, like the "Rather Bad Night" at Bluffton, where the officer visits the artillery outpost fronting Hilton Head, while the Union gunboats were feeling their way up the inlet in a night "dark as a pocket."

The book is a very taking one to pick up at odd minutes, the brisk stories being rattled off so quickly that we get a lively sensation to carry away with us at a glance, as it were. There is no question of the verisimilitude of the situations. The author speaks from the fulness of genuine soldierly experience, and his genial comradeship and freedom from bitterness will make his tales as pleasing to the Union soldier as to his fellow-artillerists in Lambkin's Battery.

Trail and Camp-fire: The Book of the Boone and Crockett Club. Editors, George B. Grinnell, Theodore Roosevelt. New York: *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.

The lover of books on hunting learns with

sorrow that the Boone and Crockett Club proposes to issue one every two years; for, as is stated in the excellent chapter in this volume on the literature of big game, there are multitudes of books on the subject and most of them are bad. This adjective does not apply to 'Trail and Camp-fire,' the marked inequality of whose contents nevertheless forcibly suggests such applicability to its successors, should time rather than material become the basis of publication. Furthermore, the reader feels that a skilful compiler, with full authority to reject and condense, could produce from this book and its two predecessors, 'American Big-Game Hunting' and 'Hunting in Many Lands,' a single volume that would without hesitation be pronounced good.

The five objects of the Club, to promote sport with the rifle, travel and exploration, preservation of large game, observation of their habits, and interchange of opinions on these subjects, are well illustrated in the dozen articles that form a small octavo of 350 pages, neither printed nor bound in a manner commensurate with its price. Two articles set forth the successful efforts of certain members of the Club to establish a zoölogical garden in New York city, and to protect the deer of the Adirondack forest. Two others give detailed accounts of hunting trips in East Africa and in Newfoundland. A fifth, the description of a Canadian lake, is reprinted from the *Atlantic Monthly*. The remainder of the book is alike the more instructive and the more entertaining half. It contains a concise but admirable summary, by A. P. Low of the Canadian Geological Survey, of recent exploration in what has been the least known portion of North America, the interior of the Labrador peninsula. The student of American geography will appreciate his explanation of the wondrous reports of an inland sea, second only to Lake Superior, and of a mighty cataract, the rival of Niagara—reports which are reflected in the maps of the United States Land Office and in the latest editions of popular encyclopædias.

Two papers on the nature and habits of the wolf and of the bear, contributed by the editors, compete in interest with the character sketch, by Lewis S. Thompson, of the Guide Cherry, whose "failing was the careless manner in which he handled the truth." Once Cherry found himself in a narrow trail on the side of a precipice, unarmed, between two grizzlies, one following and the other approaching. His resourcefulness was equal to the occasion. Throwing his clothes over the cliff, he advanced on all fours, and, thanks to the unusual amount of hair on his body, personated with such success his foe's fellow-bear that, after a complimentary growl, each went his way in peace.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Dictionary of the Bible. Vol. I. A—Feasts. Scribners.
Baldwin, James. School Reading by Grades. 6 vols. American Book Co.
Banks, Rev. L. A. Heroic Personalities. Eaton & Mains. $1.
Billroth, Dr. Th. The Care of the Sick. 4th ed. London: Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Bloundelle-Burton, John. Across the Salt Seas. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Bremen Lectures on Great Religious Questions of To-Day. New ed. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society.
Bryant, W. M. Life, Death, and Immortality. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.75.
Cadet, Félix. Port-Royal Education. Scribners. $1.50.
Cheiro's Language of the Hand. 7th ed. F. T. Neely.
Clarke, M. Story of Æneas. American Book Co. 40c.
Conrad, Joseph. The Children of the Sea. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Conrad, Joseph. Tales of Unrest. Scribners. $1.25.
Cooper, T. V. The New Equality. Philadelphia: Fireside Publishing Co. 10c.
Crowell, J. F. The Logical Process of Social Development. Henry Holt & Co. $1.75.
Davis, D. W. 'Weh Down Souf, and Other Poems. Cleveland, O.: Helman-Taylor Co. $1.
Dearmer, Rev. Percy. Religious Pamphlets. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.75.
Dix, Rev. Morgan. Blessing and Ban from the Cross of Christ. James Pott & Co. $1.
Donaldson, Thomas. The House in which Jefferson Wrote the Declaration of Independence. Philadelphia: Avil Printing Co.
Doran, James. In the Depths of the First Degree. A Romance of Bull Run. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co. $1.50.
D'Orléans, Prince Henry. From Tonkin to India. January, '95—January, '96. Dodd, Mead & Co. $5.
Dryden, John. Palamon and Arcite. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 24c.
Encyclopædia of Sport. Parts XII. and XIII. Putnams. Each $1.
Essays of Schopenhauer. Translated by Mrs. Rudolf Dircks. London: Walter Scott; New York: A. Lovell & Co. 40c.
Flint, Grover. Marching with Gomez. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.50.
Gissing, George. Charles Dickens. A Critical Study. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Gleason, C. W. The Cyropædia of Xenophon. Abridged for Schools. American Book Co. $1.25.
Goss, C. F. The Philopolist; or, City Lover. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co.
Gould, S. Baring. Bladys Stewponey. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Halévy, L. Autumn Manœuvres: Stories and Sketches. G. H. Richmond & Son.
Harrison, Mrs. Belle R. Poems. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.25.
Hutcheson, Rev. J. T. A View of the Atonement. James Pott & Co. $1.
Julleville, Prof. L. Petit de. Histoire de la Langue et de la Littérature Française. Tome V. Dix-septième siècle (1661-1700). Paris: Colin & Cie.
Le Gallienne, Richard. The Romance of Zion Chapel. John Lane. $1.50.
Maclay, E. S. Reminiscences of the Old Navy. Putnams. $2.50.
Mason, Caroline A. A Minister of the World. Doubleday & McClure Co. 50c.
Nicholls, Sir George. A History of the English Poor Law. 2 vols. Putnams. $10.
Pearl Necklace of Thoughts of Women. From the French by Henri Pène du Bois. Meyer Bros. & Co.
Phillips, Melville. The Senator's Wife. F. T. Neely.
Pugh, Edwin. King Circumstance. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Robert, Gustave. La Musique à Paris, 1896-1897. Paris: Delagrave.
Robertson, Morgan. Spun-Yarn; Sea Stories. Harpers. $1.25.
Robertson, T. S. The Progress of Art in English Church Architecture. London: Gay & Bird.
Russell, H. B. International Monetary Conferences. Harpers. $2.50.
Samelson, Moses. How to Right a Wrong. F. T. Neely.
Seaton, R. C. Sir Hudson Lowe and Napoleon. London: David Nutt.
Sheldon, C. M. Malcolm Kirk. Chicago: The Church Press. 50c.
Steevens, G. W. With the Conquering Turk: Confessions of a Bashi-Bazouk. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Strong, Rev. Josiah. The Twentieth Century City. Baker & Taylor Co. 50c.
Tarbet, W. G. Fighting for Favor. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Thanksgivings After the Communion. New York: R. H. Russell.
The Living Age. Jan.-March, 1898. Boston: Living Age Co.
The Spectator. Vols III., IV., and V. Scribners. Each $1.50.
Webster, Daniel. Representative Speeches. [Little Masterpieces.] Doubleday & McClure Co. 30c.
Weir, Dr. James, jr. The Psychical Correlation of Religious Emotion and Sexual Desire. 2d ed. Louisville, Ky.: Courier-Journal Printing Co.
Wells, J. Oxford and its Colleges. 2d ed. London: Methuen & Co.
Whitman, Walt. Complete Prose Works. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $2.
Wood, Joanna E. Judith Moore; or, Fashioning a Pipe. Toronto: Ontario Publishing Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 14, 1898.

The Week.

Under the circumstances, the joint note of the Powers presented on Thursday to the United States and to Spain amounted only to the last desperate appeals of the friends of two men bent on a duel. It expressed the hope that "further negotiations" would lead to peace. But Mr. McKinley, in his reply, brushed negotiations aside, and spoke only of the intention of this Government to end the insufferable situation in Cuba. The Spanish Minister of Foreign Affairs also repelled the intimation that further concessions could be made by Spain. The Powers appealed to the "feelings of humanity and moderation of the President and the American people," but learned that it was precisely to "fulfil a duty to humanity" that we were going to war. This may have surprised the Ambassadors, but if so they diplomatically concealed it.

In the President's message, so anxiously and so long expected, a large portion of space is taken up in the beginning with a calm if not always consecutive historical narrative of the negotiations as far as they have gone—yet without specifying the grounds of the negotiations hitherto carried on with Spain. As to these, the public is still left in the dark. The President concedes the Spanish compliance with our demands for the cessation of the Weyler style of warfare, and argues, with some assistance from President Jackson in the case of Texas (which, *absit omen!* ended in annexation), against recognition of the insurgents as belligerents. He shows the burdens and inconvenience which any such recognition would entail. He is also opposed to the recognition of the independence of the so-called Cuban Republic. He maintains, however, that we are justified in forcible intervention, not for the purpose of according rights to either party, but for the purpose of putting an end to the disturbance to our peace and the injury to our commerce caused by the continuance of the contest, to say nothing of its outrages on humanity. He therefore recommends that he be empowered to use the army and navy of the United States to secure

> "a full and final termination of hostilities between the government of Spain and the people of Cuba, and to secure in the island the establishment of a stable government capable of maintaining order and observing its international obligations, insuring peace and tranquillity and the security of its citizens, as well as our own."

He insists that Spain's failure in Cuba has been complete, and that "the war must stop." His closing paragraph gives a blow between the eyes to the Jingoes by saying, apropos of the Queen's armistice proclaimed by Gen. Blanco on Monday:

> "If this measure attains a successful result, then our aspirations as a Christian, peace-loving people will be realized. If it fails, it will be only another justification for our contemplated action."

The last ditch of the Jingoes is their demand for war "to avenge the destruction of the *Maine*." They propose that we shall assume that the vessel was destroyed by the complicity of the Spanish authorities, in the face of the verdict of our own board of inquiry, that "no evidence has been obtainable fixing the responsibility for the destruction of the *Maine* upon any person or persons"; and that we shall go to war, not in hot blood and without a moment's reflection, as a quick-tempered man hits somebody whom he suspects of having hurt him, but after eight weeks of deliberation, during which we ourselves admit that we have been unable to find out who was to blame. Merely to state such a proposition is to expose its gross absurdity. The President, while *ex officio* adopting the theory of his board that the explosion was external, and doubtless finding it a welcome make-weight in his interference platform, nevertheless leaves the way open for acceptance of the proper and reasonable suggestion of the Spanish Government that "the facts be ascertained by an impartial investigation by experts, whose decision Spain accepts in advance."

One of the most troublesome aspects of the Cuban question, as Mr. McKinley has had to confront it, is that it was a legacy to him from the preceding Administration. He had not a clean slate to begin with. Mr. Cleveland had kept his hands off Cuban interference, but ha had plainly told Congress and told Spain that interference would soon come unless there should be a great change for the better in Cuba. He had thus committed this Government to a policy with which Mr. McKinley could not absolutely break. It was necessary for the new President to take up the negotiations where he found them, and do the best he could with the situation as it had been made for him. We thus see Mr. Cleveland handing on a most dangerous gift to Mr. McKinley, just as Mr. Harrison had transmitted to Mr. Cleveland the acutest embarrassments which the latter had to meet during his term of office. The McKinley deficit-making tariff and the Sherman silver-purchase law were the things that wrecked Mr. Cleveland politically; and the cruel dilemma in which the Republican party now finds itself arises in like manner from conditions for which it had no direct party responsibility. Call it poetic justice, repaying fatal legacy with fatal legacy, or what you will, the parallel is suggestive.

It is one of the historical presumptions of American politics that the second year after a Presidential election will bring out majorities against the party in power. This has been long feared by the Republican party. They have thought it not improbable that they would lose the House *on existing issues*. The recent elections have done much to justify this anxiety. Now here is the remedy. Mr. Grosvenor, the President's right-hand man, asked in the House on March 31: "Do you think that this great party in power to-day is going to be unfaithful to a trust which, as the gentleman from Texas intimates, will, if properly discharged, bring glory to the Administration? Will the Administration now in power run away from the most brilliant opportunity that any administration since the days of Abraham Lincoln has had to establish itself and its party in the praise and honor and glory of a mighty people?" The same mouthpiece a week later declared: "This war will be fought under the banner of the Republican administration of this Government, or it will never be fought at all." We see it is to be a Republican war, if there is to be a war at all. Suffering Cuba is to be saved by good Republicans, if she is to be saved at all. It would never do to let her be relieved by Democrats, and it must be admitted the Democrats are ready to do it, by a good war if necessary. Congress is not going to be "euchred" again, as it was by Mr. Cleveland, who got ahead of it so splendidly in 1895. He discovered "a good thing" in the Venezuelan forests, and he soon had them all "standing behind" him, sheepish-looking, but mute.

During the past eight weeks Congress has been fuming like a volcano just ready to spout lava and overwhelm villages and corn fields. The subject of its fumes has been war—war with Spain—yet when the military committee of the House, after long cogitation, brought in the results of its labor in the form of a bill to put us on a war footing of equality with Spain, the bill was rejected by a vote of 155 to 61—that is, by more than a two-thirds majority. So our situation to-day as regards the army is just what it was before the fuming began. Although our regular army is small, it is commonly supposed that we have a great force of militia ready to be called into

action in an emergency. This force is usually called the National Guard, although that term is not found in any law of the United States. There is a law in reference to the militia. It is found under title xvi. of the Revised Statutes. The public is not aware, and it is doubtful if Congress is, that the militia cannot be called into active service except for two specific objects, viz., to repel invasion or to suppress rebellion, and even then for only nine months' service. So it appears that the militia could not be called into service to invade Cuba or Spain, but only to repel the invasion of some foreign Power. It may be supposed that Congress can change the law on this subject, and authorize the President to call out the militia for aggressive purposes. Nothing of the kind. The Constitution forbids it. Article 1, sec. 8, clause 14, gives Congress power "to provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions." No authority here to send the militia outside of the United States. *Expressio unius, exclusio alterius.* So it appears that for the purpose of a foreign war we have 26,010 soldiers and no more, and no lawful way of obtaining more.

A very important war consideration was called attention to by the *Tribune* on Thursday, when, in noting the facts that "enlistments in the navy are very slow and desertions are getting frequent," it said:

> "Within the last day or two it has been reported that as much as $250 has been paid civil officers for the apprehension of deserters in a single day at a Southern port. It has been found necessary, according to this report, to detail officers from war vessels in port to be in attendance each morning at the police courts and station-houses to return intending deserters to their ships. Taken in conjunction, these two circumstances would seem to indicate, first, that the dearth of men in the navy is not being filled as rapidly as it should be in a time like this, and, second, that an unusual proportion of those now in the service are anxious to escape from it."

The reason for this condition of affairs is obvious. Nobody wants to fight Spain in Cuba or its adjacent waters, but in some other place, like New York, or Nebraska, or South Dakota, or some entirely healthy region. The *Tribune* suggests that "some of the newspapers which have been howling for war with Spain and making war upon the President, should let up briefly in those two directions, and begin to vociferate upon the crying need of recruits for the navy." A better suggestion is that the editors themselves enlist, or, if they refuse to do so, be conscripted. So far as our observation goes, none of the advocates of war at any price expects to do any fighting himself. He expects somebody else to do that—who, he does not exactly know, but if you press him he will say that negroes will do better than anybody else, since the Cuban climate is not so deadly to them. This self-sacrificing idea has found advocates even in the clerical profession. It far surpasses the noble self-sacrifice of Artemus Ward's offer of all his wife's relations.

Astonishing disclosures as to the difficulty of securing recruits for the army were made by the Philadelphia *Ledger* on Monday. Stations have been opened in that city, and on Saturday 100 applicants were examined. Only four of the 100 could pass the test and were accepted. Thousands of men have offered to enlist in Philadelphia since the war excitement began, but only about 125 have been accepted, all the rest having been turned away on account of mental or physical disability, principally the latter, since the mental requirements include nothing harder than simple mathematics, and previous experience is not essential as in the case of the navy. The *Ledger* thinks that such figures indicate a degree of physical stamina among the applicants so low that it should engage the attention of scientific students. The only consolation it can offer is that "it is not improbable that many of the applicants were of the sort that have failed to meet the physical requirements of ordinary trades and industries."

The condition of our friends the reconcentrados in Cuba in the event of war must be terrible. All of their supplies come from the United States. The sending of supplies has already stopped because the Ward Line steamers are no longer running. As these can get no mercantile freight, they cannot carry the contributions of the benevolent societies and individuals to the starving people whom we have set out to relieve. So their last estate will be worse than their first. In the meantime the insurgents are burning cane fields wherever they can apply the torch. A letter from Santiago de Cuba to the *Herald* says that the insurgents had given orders to the planters not to grind their crop. Not to grind is equivalent to losing it altogether. Not to grind is to throw out of employment all the laborers usually employed in that work, and leave them to starve also. The temptation to grind is so strong that it is likely in many cases to lead to disobedience of the order of the insurgents. So they are burning the cane in the fields. Thousands of acres have been consumed, and the work of destruction goes on daily. "Possibly," says the *Herald* correspondent, "the insurgent leaders have not fully considered all the effects resulting from a persistence in the line of policy which they have adopted, and it might be as well if they reflected upon the question of whether Cuba was not paying too dear a price in suffering humanity for the slight injury inflicted upon the Spanish treasury." If any such appeal were addressed to them, they would probably say, "War is hell"—an appropriate answer at all events.

Nothing is heard nowadays about the annexation of Hawaii, and the promoters of that scheme have evidently concluded that there is no use in pushing it at present. The probability of war with Spain has made so plain the impolicy of our being forced to defend Hawaii that everybody recognizes the good fortune of the nation in having escaped that necessity. The probability of war with Spain has been brought forward by those who advocate annexing the Danish islands as a reason for rushing through that project without the slightest delay, and a fortnight ago they seemed hopeful that they might succeed before the public realized what they were about. But happily the opponents of the project in the Senate were not stampeded, and they stood so firm that its friends have felt constrained to abandon their attempt.

Now that the necessity of more revenue is admitted even by Mr. Dingley, the idea of raising $30,000,000 to $40,000,000 a year by the simple and reasonable device of doubling the tax on beer is again suggested. But the mere suggestion is sufficient to arouse organized opposition, and a delegation representing the United States Brewers' Association has already appeared before the House ways and means committee to protest against any such increase. There is every reason to fear that the protest will prove effectual. The reason was frankly stated by Senator Hoar of Massachusetts in a speech last December, when he pointed out that the brewing industry could easily stand an additional tax of a dollar a barrel on beer, but confessed that "we do not dare to compel that industry to pay a reasonable and proper tax, because we are afraid of the political power the brewers will exert, determining the political power in this country between different political parties."

Despite the excitement over the Cuban situation, Mr. Wanamaker continues to draw large audiences in his campaign against the perpetuation of Quay rule in Pennsylvania, and he makes some fresh revelation of the ring's rascality in every speech. At Williamsport his new exposure was of the wholesale swindling by the State printer, W. Stanley Ray, a Quay lieutenant, who was formerly clerk in the headquarters of the Republican State committee. He began his work July 1, 1897, and early in September filed an account of three months' work, amounting, it is alleged, to between $11,000 and $12,000. By direction of Gov. Hastings, the State Su-

perintendent of Printing submitted this bill to the Attorney-General's Department before approving it. The Deputy Attorney-General went over the bill carefully, found that Ray had overcharged the State to an amount said to exceed $7,000, filed an opinion to this effect December 28, and the finding was approved by the Attorney-General and Governor. Mr. Wanamaker said that he had been informed that in one item alone the State printer overcharged the State $6,420, on another bill $743, on another $277, and on still another $186. Altogether, over 60 per cent. of the charges were unwarranted.

At Royersford and at Pottstown, Mr. Wanamaker went still further into details as to the corruption of Quay rule in Pennsylvania. On Friday night he drew up an indictment with ten counts, beginning with the assertion that "this State for nearly forty years has been under the control of the Camerons, father and son, and their successors, M. S. Quay and W. H. Andrews." He proceeded to charge that during this period "the expenses of the State and the taxes have steadily increased"; that "the prices of property and the means of making a living have been decreased right along"; and that "the methods of legislation at Harrisburg have, year after year, gone from worse to worse, until the name Pennsylvania Legislature is a hissing and reproach all over the United States." On Saturday night Mr. Wanamaker "showed up" the methods of legislation at Harrisburg, particularly in the Senate, of whose Republican members he declared that "at least thirty-five of the forty-four were controlled absolutely by W. H. Andrews and Senator Quay." Describing the upper branch as "an incubator to hatch the legislation that has alarmed the taxpayers and made the name of the last Legislature a reproach," he specified some of the things which the Quay organization did, and, in reference to the Bliss beer bill, declared that on the Saturday and Sunday preceding the change made in the bill in the Senate, by which many important Pennsylvania industries would have been crippled or destroyed, two car-loads of brewers from western Pennsylvania held a consultation with W. H. Andrews and other members of the Legislature at a Philadelphia hotel; that the fact of their visit was suppressed by the newspapers, their special cars were carefully guarded, and strict orders were given to the car porters that no one should know who the occupants of the cars were, or what was the nature of their business; and that within forty-eight hours after their departure the beer bill was changed to the mercantile-tax bill.

If we avoid a war with Spain, we may have a war with Tammany on our hands, the object being full possession of all the municipal offices in spite of law. The gravity of the situation was increased on Friday by a notice which Mr. McAneny of the Civil-Service Reform Association sent to the Comptroller, warning him not to pay salaries to men who had been appointed under the new rules of the City Civil-Service Commissioners until these rules had been approved, as the law requires, by the State Civil-Service Commissioners. Mr. McAneny also called the Comptroller's attention to a perfectly devilish provision of the city charter which requires that the "incumbents of positions abolished or made unnecessary by this act shall be preferred for appointment to positions demanding their services," and directs the City Civil-Service Commissioners "to place the names of such persons on the proper eligible lists, and to give them on such lists the preference after veterans." No wonder Tammany feels like declaring war upon such a fiendish law as that. Tammany officials have been abolishing places in order to get rid of their incumbents, and then recreating them in order to fill them with Tammany men. Not only is this process illegal, but even if it were not, what is the good of it if the abolished officials must be given preference in the filling of all vacancies?

If our war-craze had not made us oblivious of everything else, the steady preparations of the English Government to establish the gold standard in India would have attracted much notice in our press. It is really an event of capital economic importance. India has been the chief bulwark of our silverites, lo, these many years. It was through India that we were to find the means of bringing England to her knees on the silver question. India was, in fact, the one country of the world wherein it appeared most difficult to give up the silver standard. By long habit and by the customs of trade, silver seemed too firmly entrenched in Indian finance ever to be dislodged. But the inexorable drift of exchange and the growing consensus of civilized nations made the change necessary; and it is now confessed that the closing of the Indian mints to silver was only a preliminary to the frank going over to the gold standard. Lord George Hamilton, Secretary for India, said as much in the Commons the other day, and the bimetallic Balfour did not rise to crush him.

Mr. Balfour's speech in the House of Commons touching the acquisition of Wei-Hai-Wei by Great Britain conveys more information in reference to the Chinese situation than everything that has gone before. It may be summed up in a few words. Great Britain recognizes the fact that the Chinese empire is falling asunder. Nothing can hold it together, and the only question is who shall get the pieces. She has decided wisely to take one of them instead of fighting to make the other Powers relinquish what they have grabbed. She has made some other gains, namely, that the region of the Yang-tse-Kiang shall not be alienated to any foreign Power, that the successor of Sir Robert Hart as Director of the Chinese Imperial Maritime Customs is to be an Englishman, and that access to the inland waters is to be had by ships of all nations. A fourth concession is the opening of three new treaty ports—Funing, Yochau, and Chin-Wang. All these gains accrue equally to the advantage of the United States if we choose to avail ourselves of them—as we shall. On the face of things they depend for their validity and permanence on the ability of China to make them good. In fact, however, they depend upon England's ability to enforce them, and this is the reason why she has secured the port of Wei-Hai-Wei. This was done after negotiations with Russia, in which it was sought to dissuade her from taking Port Arthur. When this effort failed, Great Britain notified Russia that she should hold herself free to take steps to safeguard her own interests in that quarter, and, accordingly, negotiated for and obtained the lease of Wei-Hai-Wei on the same terms as those by which Russia obtained Port Arthur. Whatever the terms of the leases may be, the fact is that the two Powers will hold what they have got with the strong hand. There is no necessary conflict between them, but, as they are brought pretty near each other in the Gulf of Pe-Chi-Li, the chances of collision are somewhat increased.

The battle the other day in the Sudan, in which the Mahdi's fortified camp was "rushed" by the British force, gave one an idea how different the history of the world might have been had Rome had that superiority over her assailants which science has given us over our modern barbarians. It ought, too, to fill us with admiration for the finally worn-out Titan, which subdued and civilized so many states with no other weapon than the pilum and the sword. Every modern nation is filled with admiration of a bayonet charge, and boasts greatly when its own men make one, even after the enemy has been demoralized, as last week in the Sudan, by an hour's bombardment by the artillery. But if this be great, what are we to say of the legions who for seven hundred years met all the existing barbarians of the earth and brought about finally the great "Roman peace" in hand-to-hand encounters, in which they had no advantage except training and discipline? Speaking of one of the most critical days in Gaul, Cæsar says that his soldiers "did the business with their swords."

LIGHT FROM THE JUNTA.

There has been a great deal of honest ignorance in this country about the kind of people the insurgent Cubans are. The stump-speech, political-platform, able-editor view of them has made them out a little lower than the angels—patriots fighting for all that mankind holds dearest. As we came nearer to the verge of war in their behalf, the more superhuman they seemed to be. But just as we were about, or thought we were, to take the fatal plunge, the official representatives in this country of the Cuban insurgents came out with such a clear and authentic description of their character, aims, and methods that ignorance any longer will be of that invincible kind which can expect no mercy. The Junta evidently made the greatest mistake of its life in so doing. Its true rôle was secrecy and the issuing of patriotic bulletins. In fact, there is something necessarily dark and mysterious about the very term Junta. Its personnel has to remain obscure in order that its name and acts may strike terror, its victories on paper obtain credence, and its bonds find gullible purchasers. The moment its members come out into the daylight, it is all up with them. The magic Junta vanishes like an exhalation, and in its room we see a set of patriots very like those mythical Cuban "majors," filled with bullets, whom Buffalo Bill exhibits at his show. It is generally believed that the mere sight of them in Washington has made the recognition of Cuban independence impossible.

The Junta has had a varied activity in this country for the past three years, but it does seem as if its mounting frenzy led it last week to commit suicide. Its angry official statement that it would turn its arms against the United States if we intervened to give them peace without recognition of their independence, has opened many blind eyes. The ridiculous heroics in which the Junta indulged were too much even for the battle-scarred reporters. "We will fight on, against American bayonets," said Mr. Palma, "sadly but determined." "We would resist with force of arms as bitterly and tenaciously as we have fought the armies of Spain," said Mr. Rubens—an American lawyer, speaking for hire, whose bitter and tenacious fighting has all been done in New York city. He appears to have been since convinced that he abused the privilege of counsel in order to hang himself and his clients, pleads that he was misunderstood, and that he made his statement on certain "indications" which had proved to be ill founded. But the mischief was done, and a powerful searchlight has been turned on the whole Cuban intrigue, its management and its purposes.

We do not in the least blame these Cuban agitators for clinging to their well-laid plans in desperation; we only blame those too-credulous Americans who have taken them for demigods. For thirty years these Cubans have been working and praying for Cuban "independence"—that is, a government, or a simulacrum of government, in Cuba with themselves at the head of it. Latterly, they have been in full sight of the promised land, and were trembling with eager anticipation of the good time they soon would have helping themselves to the milk and honey. They had their resolutions recognizing independence all safely drawn and ready to be reported from the foreign-affairs committees of both House and Senate. Suddenly, to their affrighted ears came the news that the President was against recognition of Cuban independence, now as he was last December, and that he was going to intervene simply to give them peace and a stable government. This was too much for their self-control, and in their first transports of rage they uttered those wild threats against Americans which astounded the whole country, and sent a cold chill down the back of every man with a Cuban bond in his pocket.

The right to issue bonds, in fact, appears to be the only attribute of "independence" which the Junta cares to have the United States recognize. Peace and a settled government are the barrenest idealities in comparison. We have no doubt that the able jurists of the Junta have pondered long and deeply on that prime attribute of sovereignty—the right to borrow money. They have very carefully considered also the opinion of our Supreme Court that a sovereign may put out unlimited quantities of paper money. By way of anticipation of these delightful fruits of "independence," they have already issued a fine variety of Cuban bonds. There are the "green bonds" of 1869 (color nicely adapted to the dupes who bought them), and the "red" and "blue" bonds of 1872. These are all said by the *Herald* to be bought and sold every day in Wall Street. The latest bonds are of 1896. How many of them have been issued it is hard to find out. The "Treasurer" says only $150,000, but the "Secretary of Legation" at Washington confesses to $1,000,000 rather vaguely disposed of. But this is nothing to the discrepancies which would arise if the Cuban republic once got well established in Havana, with the printing-presses in good running order. The point is, however, that the Junta must have bonds to issue and to "quote," or it will fight. Peace, relief of the starving, the revival of industry and agriculture in Cuba under a settled government—these are secondary and trifling considerations.

The London *Standard* hopes that "the humor of the American people" will be stirred to good effect by the preposterous statement of the Junta. We hope for something from the indignation of the American people. It has been imposed upon shamelessly by a set of masqueraders, who were betrayed last week into unmasking for a moment. We caught a glimpse of the truth. Instead of humane, self-sacrificing patriots, willing to do anything to free their native land from cruelty and suffering, we saw selfish plotters driven by the lust of power and wealth. That illusion is for ever dispelled.

DURATION OF THE WAR.

In case we have a war with Spain, an important question will be, How long will it last? It is generally assumed that, since such a war would be begun on account of Cuba, the taking of that island by us would be the end of it. But that does not follow. Spain might be willing to drop Cuba, provided she could be rid of it without dishonor. She might not be sorry to have it wrested from her by superior force, since in that case she would be delivered of a woful expenditure of blood and treasure, to which at present she sees no end. If she could be rid of that burden involuntarily, so that her people could not reproach either the Government or themselves, she would certainly be a gainer. She has lost 100,000 men or more in vain attempts to put down the rebellion. She has spent $200,000,000, and her present expenses there are at the rate of $8,000,000 per month. Why should she not welcome any chance, which should appear honorable in her own eyes and in those of the world, to abandon the task?

Instead of being weaker after losing Cuba and, perhaps, Porto Rico, Spain would be stronger than before and in much better condition to fight. The war would then be prosecuted on the ocean, wherever any American or Spanish ships are to be found—war-ships and other. Spanish commerce would be swept from the ocean, and ours also. We have more to lose than Spain has, but, whether little or much, it would all go. It would not be necessary that any of our merchant ships be actually captured. The rates of marine insurance would be prohibitory, and that would settle the whole question. Our ships would not leave our own ports. Our goods would either be carried in foreign bottoms, both coastwise and otherwise, or not be carried at all. British commerce would be the principal gainer. The German, French, Norwegian, and Italian ship-owners would gain in proportion to their available tonnage. They would divide the spoils of both Spanish and American commerce among themselves, and rightly so. That would be one of the punishments that both combatants would suffer. It would be in proportion to the amount of their shipping and to the duration of the war.

Is there any reason why such a war should ever end? Other Powers might interfere, but we can see no reason why it should end at our option. Spain is so

far distant that we could not invade her even if we had an army; but we have no army, and it appears that Congress is not in favor of having one. Congress, we are told, wants a war, but wants it without soldiers, or at all events without trained officers. During the last administration it wanted to have its bills paid without money. It wants to have war-ships without steel plates. That is the reason why we are buying ships abroad now. Other nations go to war on the gold basis, and take great pains to have the gold in readiness. We should probably go about it on the silver basis, or reach it soon. The Democrats, or a majority of them, would perhaps favor war for that reason. Many droll conceptions find lodgment in the national capital, but the drollest of all is the conception that the war would naturally end with our taking Cuba.

In fact, it would only begin there. We should then stand in Spain's shoes so far as pacifying the island goes. The insurgents say that they will fight us, just as they have fought Spain, if we do not recognize their independence. That means that immediately after taking Cuba we should evacuate it. Undoubtedly that would be the best and cheapest thing for us to do, but we should feel rather sheepish, perhaps, when we came to cast up the account of profit and loss. Spain, as we have said, is too far distant to be invaded by us, even if we had an army. What else can we do to her? How can we compel her to stop fighting after we take Cuba? What form of coercion can we put upon her? She can send out "commerce-destroyers" till the crack of doom. Privateers are commerce-destroyers, and these go without being sent. It is with them a private speculation. They cost the Government nothing. Is it supposed that we can chase them off the ocean? One *Alabama* was sufficient to drive our mercantile flag from the high seas, in spite of all our war-ships. But Spain has a navy of her own. She is not in the plight that the Confederates were during the civil war. She has a recognized standing among nations, as the Confederates had not. She has ports. She has dry-docks, and that is more than we can boast of. She has nearly as many ships to begin with as we have, and she can build more according to her need—not as many as we can, perhaps, but enough to prolong the war indefinitely, since one cruiser afloat will annihilate more commerce than ten can protect. Have not our Jingoes been telling us for many years what havoc they could make with British commerce by means of half-a-dozen fast cruisers? And cannot Spain perform the same office for us, not to mention her volunteer fleet of privateers?

It may be said that we can blockade Spain, but nobody really believes that. We cannot blockade her any more than she can blockade us. We have no coaling stations in the Mediterranean, and we shall get scant help in that way from any of the Powers of Europe if we show ourselves the disturbers of the world's peace by beginning the war. Spain has shown her prudence by withdrawing her war-ships from Havana, in order, perhaps, to let us fire the first gun. If we attack Havana while her ships are absent, there can never be any question as to how hostilities began. The Franco-Prussian war of 1870 demonstrated that the world's sympathy is a great factor in wars at the present day. Even when not accompanied by active help, it encourages one side and depresses the other. "Thrice is he armed that hath his quarrel just."

There is no means to localize the strife or confine it to West Indian waters. Modern wars between maritime nations rage over the four quarters of the globe, and they may rage as long as the combatants can keep anything afloat. We can imagine some surprise on the part of our Jingoes, after "clearing Spain out of Cuba," if the war should be found to be still active in the Pacific and Indian and other oceans, but we could hardly expect Spain to discontinue the fight because she had lost the first round. She would then have the $8,000,000 per month which she is now spending in Cuba to spend on us, and she would be likely, judging by her temper, to use it in that way as long as she could procure it. In short, it rests with us to begin the war, but it does not rest with us to end it, and we should be very foolish to ask Spain to oblige us by stopping it merely because we had taken Cuba from her.

It may be supposed that the other Powers would not allow such a war to be prolonged indefinitely, since it would involve the stopping of ships by the belligerents on the high seas to determine the true character of vessels and cargoes. In many cases there would be doubts, which could be settled only by prize courts. That is what prize courts exist for. The commercial world would get tired eventually of such disturbances, disputes, and delays, and would take measures to end them, but in doing so it would be compelled to look at the original cause of the war, in the light of international law. In such a tribunal the verdict would almost certainly be against the nation that first broke the peace.

WAR AND FOREIGN TRADE.

M. Brunetière has come to the aid of the generals who tried Dreyfus and the judges who tried Zola, with an article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* which will not add to his reputation as a literary man, and will certainly injure it as a publicist. He accounts for Anti-Semitism partly by the neglect of Frenchmen to occupy the fields in which the Jews have become too prominent, and partly by the too great pretensions of the Jews themselves. He is, moreover, full of scorn for the "intellectuals," meaning the scientific and literary men who have considered Dreyfus's trial a failure of justice, and Zola's a farce. He thinks they cannot know as much about public affairs as the "generals"—an odd opinion to come from a littérateur and philosopher who gives tongue so freely himself on the whole situation.

With these things, however, we do not propose to concern ourselves to-day. What is of most importance to foreigners is his view of the value of a great army as a means of expanding trade in foreign parts. He is very positive about the truth of the old adage that "trade follows the flag," and that the merchant follows close behind the soldier. His main illustration is Germany. She was, before the great victories of 1870 and the establishment of the empire, a collection of poor and feeble states, occupied mainly with philosophy and literature, without manufactures to speak of, and but little foreign commerce. Since then she has become a Power, with a huge and apparently unconquerable army, and, consequently, M. Brunetière intimates, a great manufacturing and trading nation, which has to search the world over for markets; that is, her commercial triumphs are the results of her military triumphs.

There is a certain amount of truth in this, but so blended with error as to be quite deceptive. There is no denying that Germany owes it to the army that she is to-day a great nation, and that she occupies a position in the world to which she could make no pretence half a century ago. We cannot deny either that the education her young men receive through compulsory military service is useful for industrial purposes. Respect for knowledge, experience and authority, accuracy and persistence are undoubtedly learned in the army, and they follow the youth to the counting-house and the factory with admirable results. But the notion that the military power of a nation is what enables it to sell its goods is one of those fallacies in which Jingoes delight and is one of their main reliances. They constantly preach here in America that, with a larger navy to show in foreign ports, we should stimulate the sale of American products, and that when Chinamen and South Americans hear of our resources, in money, men, and ships, they will at once withdraw their custom from weaker Powers. This is part and parcel of the sophistry which in protectionist documents and speeches makes custom-house tables returns of the commercial transactions of the nation, and not of individuals. The importations of silk are large; the nation is, therefore, spending too much on silks. It is drink-

ing too much champagne, as any one may see by looking at the figures. Its dealings ought to support its foreign policy; therefore, it should buy of the big Powers and sell to the weak ones, and the weak ones will be only too glad to deal with such a wealthy and warlike customer, especially if it is a republic.

The greatest fact of trade is that it is carried on by individuals for individual profit. The Government rarely does anything for it except hinder it by taxation and record its figures. Buyers, wherever found, are not influenced by the fleets and armies, but, at the present day, by cheapness and goodness. They do not buy because a thing is French, or English, or American, or because it comes from a republic or a monarchy, but because it answers their needs. Of all the rubbish which the human mind has turned out in its day, the politics of trade is the greatest. German trade and manufacture have undoubtedly received a great stimulus from the foundation of the empire, but could not last a day if the buyers did not find the products either better or cheaper than those of other countries. The movement of Germany in China is a search for other markets, but the Chinamen will not buy because she has a larger army than England, but because other nations' commodities are not so good. The English trade is by far the largest in the world everywhere, but England has the smallest European army, and does not use her navy to help trade at all. Any nation may trade where she does. She has large colonies, not because she has won battles, but because her people emigrate. All the armies in the world will not make either French or German colonies good markets unless they can get Frenchmen and Germans to settle in them.

It is character, and not institutions, which make nations great, as M. Le Bon said to us the other day. The mistake of M. Brunetière and his confrères is in supposing that nations can be made great by contrivance, by enlarging the army and navy, or by changing the *scrutin de liste* for the *scrutin d'arrondissement*. They are made great by qualities, and qualities come from education and training in youth. Armies, as we have said, are excellent training-schools, if we could have them as training-schools and not as instruments for the destruction of life and property in quarrels of which the soldiers rarely know the cause. This ruins them for moral purposes. The young soldier acquires a great many traits which are very valuable for the citizen, but it is rare that any reference is made to this. He is never allowed to forget that killing is the chief end of his education; that what he is paid for and drilled for, is that he may be an effective instrument of force in the hands of other men, who may or may not be unscrupulous, ignorant, vengeful, and corrupt. Thurston and Gallinger and Mason, for instance, have as much to say as to the uses to which an American soldier and sailor may be put as three of the most upright, conscientious, and cultivated men in the country. There is nothing for which the human conscience is more necessary than war; nothing which has less to do with war.

DUFFY'S MEMOIRS.

DUBLIN, March 29, 1898.

Sir Charles G. Duffy is the doyen of those who are or have been prominently engaged in Irish politics. Twenty years ago, when past sixty, and after a successful career in Australia, he, to a friend at home, declared himself "weary of new countries" and longing "for the green pastures where we wandered of old." He believed that in Ireland, politically, "all is as barren from Dan to Isaac [Daniel O'Connell to Isaac Butt] as from Dan to Beersheba," and he thought, "When Goethe, during the French Revolution, shut his ears to clamorous current politics, and wrote books that would live, he set a grand example, which humble people in their humble way may properly imitate." On returning to Europe, and settling down in the south of France, he has certainly followed Goethe's example—so far as quantity is concerned. His books are not likely to live like those of the great German; nor are they likely to have much influence on affairs. They, however, bring back vividly to the remembrance of us of the elder generation the events of stirring times through which we have lived, and they cannot but claim the attention of all interested in Ireland.

Besides 'Conversations with Carlyle' and minor works, we have had his 'Young Ireland,' his 'Four Years of Irish History,' his 'League of the North and South.' Many of less robust mind would have shrunk from thus having had to dwell upon such records of failure. We now have 'My Life in Two Hemispheres,' just published in two volumes by Macmillan. There is much that is new relating to himself, much that he has gone over with us already relating to his country. Half of the second volume is devoted to details of Australian politics likely to be passed over rapidly by readers who have not lived under the Southern Cross. These volumes are more worthy of a permanent place on library shelves than most of the author's previous works, for his general interests were wider than those of most Irish politicians, and he had intimate relations with a large number of the men of his time. Laceration of feeling isolates and withers up the life of many a disappointed patriot. With Duffy, success in a new country healed the wounds that rankled in the old—unless in so far as they disabled him from appreciating the devotion and sacrifices of others who in the old land had, impelled by like ideas, but upon different lines, taken up the work from which he felt himself driven. He continued on terms of the closest intimacy with old associates who had risen to place and title under the government he and they had once striven to subvert. He enjoyed the society of literary men and politicians, many of whom were opposed to the policy he still, in theory at least, considered best for his country. His position as ex-Premier of a great colony and ex-Speaker of a Parliament opened up to him the best society in Europe.

These volumes may often be turned to by searchers for biographical material concerning men of the last half of the century. Apart from Irish names, we find references to John Bright, Browning, Carlyle, Disraeli, John Forster, Gladstone, Mrs. Jameson, Frederick Lucas, Macaulay, Mill, Cardinal Newman, Sir Henry Parkes, Peel, and many other well-known names. It carries us far back, indeed, to read of the author's having been disturbed at editorial labors in Dublin by "a little, middle-aged man, with pleasant smile and lively eyes, but of a countenance far from comely, and so elaborately dressed that the primrose gloves which he wore did not seem out of harmony with the splendor of his attire." This was Thomas Moore. Strange incidents of strange times we are given in plenty. Imprisonment for political offences was, in those days of 1848, far different from what it has been made since and is now. We read of soirées given by convicted patriots in Richmond Bridewell. Smith O'Brien and his friends, sentenced to be hanged, drawn, and quartered, refused commutation of sentence to transportation; and to enable the change to be made without their consent, a special act of Parliament had to be passed.

Charles Gavan Duffy was born in Monaghan, of well-to-do Catholic parents, in 1816. We are given a vivid impression of the Orange prejudice and ascendancy rampant during his youth in the north of Ireland. He had from the first strong leanings towards literature. Interest in national politics was aroused by intercourse with surviving members—many of them Presbyterians—of the United Irish organization. The bitter wrongs of the land system, not effectually reformed for fifty years later, were brought home to him. Some of his father's property was confiscated because Charles, a lad, had taken part in an election against the landlord. When but twenty we find him sub-editor of a newspaper in Dublin. Five years later he was in full charge of one. He read for the bar. In 1842 he was mainly instrumental in establishing the Dublin *Nation*, which had so much to do in swelling the fierce current of agitation upon which he and so many others were borne to disaster in 1848. He alone of the prominent Young Irelanders who stuck to their guns escaped exile. After nine months' imprisonment and the failure of the Government to convict, he was set at liberty. For six years more, in and out of Parliament, he attempted to rally the scattered forces of his countrymen—if not with the hope of obtaining repeal, at least in the expectation of mitigating the wrongs of the land system. He found it impossible to make way against discouragement engendered by famine, depopulation, and failure of high hopes. At the 106th page of the second volume we find him in despair. "I determined to quit Ireland. . . . I could no longer promise the suffering people relief; and to witness injustice without curb, and wrong without remedy, would render life too painful. An Ireland where Mr. Keogh typified patriotism and Dr. [Archbishop] Cullen the church, was an Ireland in which I could not live." (He is generally credited with the expression of the belief at this period that "Ireland is as dead as a corpse upon a dissecting-table.") Upon Mr. Duffy's career in Australia it is not my

purpose here to dwell. It is fully set out in the volumes before us. He rose to be Prime Minister of Victoria and later Speaker of its Parliament. A knighthood was conferred upon him for services to the British Crown in materially advancing the fortunes of an integral portion of the empire.

His tendency is too much to trumpet his own services and criticise those of others. O'Connell is his peculiar aversion. It is impossible to explain away the evidences he lays before us of the great Tribune's readiness to make unworthy terms with the Government of the day and accept offices for his followers. Duffy does not appreciate the high qualities that led to O'Connell's consistent denunciations of American slavery. Ireland has already suffered to excess from a tendency on the part of her sons to expect sympathy from outsiders while they hold coldly aloof from sympathy with causes in which their own interests, or prejudices, do not appear to be concerned. His own leanings are widely liberal. As a good Catholic he is not able to see the Italian side of the Roman question; but, at least, he sympathized with Italian aspirations outside Papal territory, and he condemned John Mitchel's pro-slavery fanaticism. He appears unable to appreciate the generations of agitators that took his place on the Irish stage. As to the possibilities, there was little to choose between the chances of success of armed revolution in 1848 and in 1868. There were among the Fenians, the Home-Rulers, and the Land-Leaguers men of as pure intention and high character as there were among Duffy's political associates. These later generations have shown more endurance, more independence. He and his were in the main tried by the stress of but six or seven years. After that, they were, with one or two honorable exceptions, broken down or gathered into the Government fold. There are Home-Rulers struggling on now who enlisted nearly thirty years ago. The active Land League movement, up to the period of the Parnell split, lasted twelve years. Many have died, many have fallen back into private life, many, alas, are engaged in combating each other. Not one, that I am aware of, has taken place or pay. The Young Ireland movement left behind it a literature, poetry, oratory, and memories that will long endure. Later developments have produced little higher than "Murty Hynes," or, at the best, Kickham's "Irish Peasant Girl." The Young Irelanders effected nothing. It raises the saddest thoughts concerning the relations of England and Ireland that the appeals, the writings, and the sacrifices of this gallant band of educated gentlemen and noblemen, largely Protestant, neither induced nor moved the British public to effective reform of Irish affairs. The present quietude and crimelessness and undoubted rising prosperity of Ireland are due to two great changes brought about by the clear-sightedness of the great statesman who is now stricken down at Hawarden—the disestablishment of the Irish Protestant Church, the Land Act of 1882. The one was forced upon his attention by the state of feeling in Ireland revealed through the Fenian agitation, the other compelled through the Land League. The healing effect of Catholic emancipation in 1829 was as nothing compared to that of these measures.

Sir Charles brings his narrative to within but twenty years of our time. It would be interesting to have his views on the present state of feeling in Ireland. To most readers his memoirs will be valued chiefly as enabling us to compare the past with the present. Each generation of Irish Nationalists since the Union has cherished the hope that each great subsidiary reform accomplished would rally more to their standard. The contrary appears to have been the case. Each wave of agitation has engaged fewer and fewer of the upper, the educated, the wealthy classes. (From appearances we might have judged differently ten years ago.) Thirty years back the Protestants appeared on the point of alienation on account of Disestablishment. They were never more united in their preference of Westminster to Dublin rule than at present. The Catholic Church has been conciliated. It finds itself, under British rule, freer to expand, less fearful of change from within, than anywhere upon the Continent. The farmers do not appear to believe that they can gain much more through legal changes. Trades-unionism, naturally in a minority in an agricultural country, depends more and more upon the support of British trades-unionism, naturally so strong. A powerful interest, that of the liquor-dealers, likewise finds itself safer in reliance upon its British friends. They realize that it has been easier to trammel the trade by appeals to Irish than to British feeling. The institutions of Ireland are mainly under Government control. The civil service of the United Kingdom is now open to all through competitive examination, and the young blood of the country, that was mainly relied upon for the furtherance of national aspirations, is pressing into it. The best spirit, the most conscientious, that which it would have been most desirable to hand on, is being more and more called into the service of religion and devoted to celibacy in the great conventual institutions that are being established in such numbers all over Ireland. Much of the capital, too, that, in a Protestant community so situated, would go to advance industry and commerce and supply the sinews of war for a great national movement, is being devoted to (materially) non-productive ecclesiastical purposes. Home rule, which appeared imminent some years ago, remains what it was, a conception by some of the best minds of what would be best for Ireland and for England. Ireland has now, what she had not fifty years ago, the proffered support of an English party in the accomplishment of a national ideal. She has education and wealth such as she had not in Sir Charles Gavan Duffy's time. If she were really in earnest, if the Irish people at the bottom of their hearts really desired home rule, as they show themselves eager in the support of their Church and the pursuit of amusements, no differences or shortcomings on the part of rival leaders would stand in their way.

Much energy will naturally be absorbed in the establishment and first workings of local-government institutions about to be conferred. When county councils are fully under way, when the period has passed that has usually supervened between the flood-tides of Irish unrest, we shall know what Irish desires really are. We shall know whether Sir Charles G. Duffy's writings have been a guide to liberty, or whether they have but helped to "point a moral and adorn a tale." D. B.

Correspondence.

SPAIN AND THE UNITED STATES IN 1813-14.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following copies of hitherto unpublished letters in my possession, written to Anthony Morris by President Madison and Mr. Monroe, his Secretary of State, may possibly be of interest to your readers, at the present time. The copies are exact, showing interlineations and corrections as they appear in the originals. Anthony Morris was a member of the Philadelphia bar, and a personal friend of Mr. Madison's. His father, Samuel Morris, served as Captain of the First City Troop of Philadelphia Light Horse under General Washington.

Yours truly, Effingham B. Morris.

Philadelphia, April 11, 1898.

[For typographical reasons, we have bracketed the interlineations and corrections in a self-explanatory way. For the Chevalier Onis, see Prof. Hart's communication in the *Nation* of March 10.—Ed. Nation.]

Dear Sir

The decision of Adm'r Warren shuts the door to the [object] destination which my proposal to you had in view. I regret it the more, as the other Stations are provided for, and would besides be ineligible probably to yourself. Would a *confidential* service for a time at Cadiz, in an informal character, be acceptable to you? The service is of an important nature and enjoins a respectable though unaccredited & in some respects unavowed agent. The allowance will be [at the rate of] upwards of $3,000. It will be agreeable to know your determination as soon as convenient; and proper that this communication should rest with yourself for the present. Should the service in question be accepted, a trip hither will be necessary & the earlier the better, as will be your departure for Cadiz.

Accept my friendly respects

(Signed) James Madison

May 5, 1813.

A. Morris, Esq'r.

Department of State, June 9, 1813.

Sir

The President having confided to you an agency of delicacy and importance at Cadiz, it it desired that you should repair there, without delay, to commence the discharge of its duties. To enable you to do this with advantage to the United States, you will receive a copy of all the documents relating to Spain which have any connection with the interesting questions now depending with her government.

The United States have been invariably desirous of preserving peace and promoting friendship with that power whatever might be the result of the present contest for the Spanish monarchy. Friendship however between nations as well as individuals must be founded on the basis of justice. Where a sense of injury exists there may be peace but there can be no friendship. A retrospect of the conduct of the two nations towards each other, will shew that the United States have received many injuries from Spain, without retorting them; that they have on the contrary manifested great forbearance under a strong sense of injury, in the hope of producing a different disposition and policy on the part of the Spanish Government towards the United States.

The injuries remaining unredressed are those proceeding from the spoliations of the last war and the suppression of the deposit at New Orleans in 1802. The former of these was intended to be provided for by a convention, which was concluded and signed by the minis-

ters of the two powers at Madrid on the 11th day of Aug't., 1802 but which was afterwards rejected by the Government of Spain.

To the latter injury the sensibility was diminished by the cession made of Louisiana by France in the following year. But in that transaction Spain had no merit, nor has she made any reparation for the injury proceeding from herself and which preceded the cession.

Since that event the Spanish Government has manifested a continuation of the same unfriendly disposition towards this country. By the treaty of Saint Ildefonso (October 1st, 1800) Louisianna was receded to France in terms which evidently comprized West Florida, and by the treaty of 1803 France ceded to the U. S. in the same extent in which they had received it. It is distinctly understood had France retained the province that she would have claimed as being within its limits the whole territory between Perdido on the east and the river Bravo on the west, and that Spain would have acquiesced in those limits. Against the U. S. however her government has set up very different pretensions. It has insisted that west Florida on the Eastern and a vast extent of territory on the western side of the Mississippi Eastward of the Rio Bravo formed no part of the province as ceded to the United States.

Anxious to adjust all these differences amicably, this Government has set on foot several negociations in which the most liberal conditions have been offered to Spain. In a compromise of their respective claims to territory, an offer was made in 1805 to the Spanish Government, in consideration of a cession to be made by it of the territory belonging to Spain Eastward of the Mississippi, to cede a large tract of country west of that [country] river, and to make such an estimate of the relative value of the territory so ceded by each party, as that the United States should be bound to pay, for a like sum acknowledged to be due by them to Spain, the sum which on a fair liquidation should appear to be due by her, to citizens of the United States. This proposition was rejected in every part the Spanish Government refusing to make any indemnity for injuries or to admit any boundary, which it did not dictate.

Prior to the negociation of 1805, the United States had just cause of war against Spain but after its failure their abstaining from it could only be imputed to a sensibility to the situation of the Spanish Monarchy. Other powers would probably have seized the opportunity not simply to assert their rights and secure an indemnity for their wrongs, but availing themselves of the defenceless situation of the Spanish Provinces and disregarding the limit of a just redress, have taken possession of those most contiguous and expelled the authorities of Spain from the rest. The United States have pursued a very different policy towards Spain. It was not until very lately that they took possession of West Florida to the Perdido which belonged to them and as yet they have taken no step whatever on the principle of indemnity.

The connection which was formed some years past between the Spanish Cortes & the British Government, with its bearing on the United States, did not escape their attention. The hostility of the former was well known, and that of the latter more than suspected. There was much cause to apprehend that the British Government would under the pretext of aiding Spain take possession of East Florida and endeavour to retain it. To guard against such a disaster proceeding from any foreign power, a law was passed in 1805, authorizing the President in case there should be evident danger of such an event to take possession of the Province by the troops of the United States. The danger of British encroachments on that quarter were increased by the war, and the pernicious effects which would result from them great and certain. With the insurrection which took place in West Florida and the causes which finally induced the United States to take possession of it you are already acquainted as you are with those occurrences relating to East Florida which is still retained by the Spanish authorities. Referring to the documents which illustrate fully all these transactions, I have thought it sufficient to present to your view the permanent features of them only.

The Special object of your agency to Cadiz, will be to impress the Regency with a just idea of the friendly policy which has been invariably pursued by the government of the United States towards Spain, under circumstances that were calculated to produce a different result and of their disposition to persevere in that policy; if the Regency by maintaining as it has hitherto done, the unjust system of the former government, does not prevent it. The question in regard to West Florida is settled. There can be no further discussion on that point nor can the U. S. suffer East Florida to pass into the possession of Great Britain or of any other power, as it would give to such power especially to Great Britain the means of annoying them thro' the war in their most vital interests. It would be difficult for the United States to preserve peace with any power, however well disposed, holding that province for any length of time, from the important relation it bears to the commerce & welfare of so many states. The United States have therefore been desirous of acquiring it by amicable arrangement and have still the same desire. Possessing it at a fair equivalent satisfying at the same time the just claims of our citizens, all cause of future controversy would be removed. Whatever may be the future relation of Spain to her [colonies] Provinces in America the friendship between the United States and Spain might be preserved.

It is presumed that it is eminently the interest of Spain to cultivate the friendship of the United States. The policy of her former government furnishes an instructive lesson to the present one. The right of the United States to the free Navigation of the Mississippi, was denied by it and resisted until they were prepared and resolved to take it by force. To avert this danger the Spanish Gov't. recognized the right and regulated its use by a treaty bearing date in 1795. That arrangement tho' far from being liberal preserved (notwithstanding the spoliations on our commerce) a good intelligence between the parties until it was violated in 1802 by the suppression of the deposit at New Orleans. In the interval the U. S. did no injury to Spain nor did they give her any cause of offense. These facts show how highly sensible they are to the manifestation of an amicable policy in any other power. Had the former government of Spain [in 1795] declined the treaty of 1795 and continued to resist the right of the United States to the free navigation of the Mississippi can any one doubt that the consequences of such resistance would have produced war or what the consequences of that war would have been? Can any one doubt should the Regency at Cadiz continue to resist the just claims of the United States, what will be the result of such a policy? Possessing so many and such vast provinces to the South, as Spain does, all of which it is in the power of the United States to separate from her, is it for her interest to expose herself to that danger by persevering in injustice? The President indulges the hope that you will be able, by your communications to convey to the Regency, a just view of the conduct of the United States, in all their transactions relating to Spain, since the treaty of 1795, and of their present friendly policy, and induce that body to adopt a similar policy towards them.

In the contest which has existed several years for the Spanish Monarchy, the United States have taken no part, nor will they do it nor in any other manner compromit themselves. In their intercourse with Spain and her Provinces they have [they have] managed their concerns with the persons in power in each part, without enquiring from whom they derived their authority. The Spanish provinces in America adhere to and acknowledge the Regency. With the Regency therefore the United States are disposed in what concerns their welfare to communicate informally and to promote a good understanding. From it the President is willing to accept the Territory claimed by Spain & held by the Regency Eastward of the Mississippi, in discharge of the claims of the United States to indemnity or he will receive possession of & hold it in trust subject to future negociation & adjustment. The effect of such an informal arrangement would be the same as if it were done by treaty. Peace would be preserved between the two countries on conditions satisfactory to both. The United States being thus secured against an imminent danger against which they cannot otherwise be secured pending the war, would cultivate that relation by all the acts belonging to a friendly policy. It will be easy to execute this arrangement. On receiving from the Regency an order to the Spanish Governor at St Augustine to deliver East Florida to the United States you may give assurances that it will be received either in discharge of the claims to indemnity or in trust as above stated as the case may be, which will be repeated in writing to the Governor on the delivery of the Province.

It is expected that you will soon be able to ascertain whether this arrangement will be entered into by the Regency, & in consequence what its real policy is towards the United States. Information has been received from authority deserving attention that the Regency has sold the Floridas to Great Britain for two million sterling. If this is true it will leave little doubt of its policy or of the obligation imposed by it on the United States. It is important to know the truth of the report and of the disposition of the Regency towards this country.

Many facts have been disclosed relative to the improper conduct of the Chevalier Onis. Of his hostility to the United States and endeavours to embarrass their affairs the evidence is conclusive. Indeed in one instance it is of a nature essentially to compromit him, and serious notice would have been taken of it, had it not been prevented by a sensibility to the situation of Spain. I send you a copy of the document that you may know the precise nature of his offense. Other examples might be enumerated. The following deserves particular attention. Tho' not recognized by this government as a minister because the United States would not recognise either of the parties contending for the Spanish Monarchy pending the contest he has nevertheless assumed that character by issuing papers and granting documents which would have been very improper in a minister. Under these circumstances the moderation of this government towards him has been signally evinced yet it has not produced its merited effect. It is understood that in his communications to the Regency he has with a hostile spirit, misrepresented all the acts of the United States relating to Spain. It is proper that his government should be apprized of these [points] facts that it may ascribe to the true cause any steps that it may be necessary to take hereafter in regard to him.

It is advisable that your communications with the Regency should be oral and not written as far as may be practicable, & when written you will keep in mind that they cannot be official on your part. I enclose you a letter addressed to yourself which you may shew as the ground of your authority to communicate with that body.

As your agency is intended to promote a good understanding with the Regency by giving explanations where they may be necessary relative to the conduct and views of the United States, in the mode and for the purposes above stated, it will be temporary and it is hoped that it may not be of long continuance. Your own observations will enable you to communicate to this department useful information on the point. Your compensation will be at the rate of three thousand five hundred dollars per annum to commence on the day you left home

for this city to cease when you may leave Cadiz on your return. The expense of your voyage [there] will be defrayed out of your salary; for your return, after the ceasing of your salary, you will be allowed one-fourth of the above mentioned sum.

I have the honor to be
Respectfully, Sir,
Your obedient servant
(Signed) JAS. MONROE.

To ANTHONY MORRIS, Esq.,
&c.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE.
October 11, 1814.

SIR

Mr. Erving having been appointed Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States to Spain, it is no longer necessary for you to remain in that country.

You will be pleased to repair to Madrid, if this letter should not find you there, and deliver to him the papers in your possession, connected with the public business committed to you, including, as well, copies of your communications to this Department, as the papers which you received from it. In doing this, I am sure you will take pleasure in giving him any information you may have collected relative to the state of affairs in Spain.

It gives me much pleasure to inform you, that your conduct has been entirely satisfactory to the President, who authorizes me to state, that in addition to your salary while employed in the public service, you will be allowed three months salary as an equivalent for your expenses in returning home.

I have the honor to be,
Sir,
Your most ob't serv't.
(Signed) JAS. MONROE.
ANTHONY MORRIS, Esq.

Notes.

In October next the Macmillan Co. will begin publication of four quarterly volumes of an 'Encyclopædia Biblica,' edited by the Rev. T. K, Cheyne and J. Sutherland Black, assisted by seventy of the leading living Biblical critics and scholars. Other and earlier publications by this firm will be new editions of 'Alice in Wonderland' and 'Alice through the Looking-glass,' with new prefaces by the late author; 'The Development of the Child,' by Nathan Oppenheim, M.D.; 'A Text-book of Botany,' from the German of Dr. E. Strasburger and others, by Dr. H. C. Porter of the University of Pennsylvania; and 'The General Manager's Story,' by Herbert E. Hamblen.

The light and airy tone of the preface to 'Chambers's Biographical Dictionary,' edited by David Patrick, LL.D., and Francis Hindes Groome (Philadelphia: Lippincott), is hardly becoming to so grave a work, which has, nevertheless, been executed seriously and carefully, with a due sense of proportion. Errors we have noticed, and omissions which might be contrasted with admissions, in the same grade of distinction; but not to an extent that should impair our welcome to this close-packed volume. Its pretensions to being up to date are well justified, and most of the younger reputations in belles-lettres will be found here, from Stevenson to Kipling, from Du Maurier to "Ian Maclaren," from Sienkiewicz to Alice Meynell, from Linley Sambourne to Aubrey Beardsley and Joseph Pennell. Ibsen and Sudermann lack the companionship of Hauptmann. Napoleon alone surpasses Gladstone in allotted space. The American field is fairly covered. The bibliographical directions are an excellent feature, and so is the pronunciation of the more difficult names. Finally, a list of pseudonyms and of works for which the author might be sought is, if by no means exhaustive, useful as far as it goes. There are a thousand pages in double columns.

Students of language may be glad to know that the Holland professor Uhlenbeck of Amsterdam has rendered his serviceable Dutch treatise on Sanskrit philology more easily accessible to scholars by giving out an English translation of it, under the title, 'A Manual of Sanskrit Phonology, in comparison with the Indogermanic Mother-Language, for Students of Germanic and Classical Philology.' The manual makes a handy volume of a hundred or more pages; it is published by the enterprising young firm of Luzac & Co., London, and it is welcome.

Nearly all the modern works on Japan lack depth and perspective. It is refreshing to find a work which treats with competency and clearness of the archipelago, its people, and their neighbors from the stone age until near that of the Murata rifle and torpedo-boats. Such a work is 'Nippon: Archiv zur Beschreibung von Japan,' by Philipp Franz von Siebold and, in continuation, by his sons (Wurzburg and Leipzig: Leo Woerl). Students of Japan are familiar with the bulky and costly 'Archiv' which has been accessible in libraries for nearly half a century. These two volumes in German, finely illustrated, form an excellent condensation of the 'Archiv,' and show the steady evolution of Japanese civilization, and the enormous debt of the islanders to both their Oriental neighbors and to Europe, especially the Netherlands. A biographical sketch of Siebold, his travels from Batavia and in Japan, in 1826, during the Shogunate, is added.

'Le Bilan Littéraire du Dix-neuvième Siècle,' by Georges Meunier (Paris: Charpentier), is an attempt to estimate the value of the literature of the epoch now closing. In a measure it recalls Pellissier's excellent work on 'The Literary Movement in France in the Nineteenth Century,' without coming up to it in value or weight. There are interesting pages in the book and some judicious appreciation of individual authors, but nothing strikingly original in the judgments of schools or in the views of the causes at work during the century. Perhaps the most attractive part is that devoted to the study of Naturalism and its effects. According to M. Meunier, this is the doctrine which will color the literature of the coming years; science being destined to enter more and more largely into letters, greatly to their advantage.

'Rachel et Samson' (Paris: Paul Ollendorff) is a somewhat disappointing book, though it does contain much interesting information concerning the great actress and her relations with the equally great teacher who discerned so clearly her wonderful histrionic gifts. That Rachel owed her success to Samson is known; that she behaved ungratefully towards him is known also, but that she could not have attained later to success without being constantly guided by him is not to be easily believed. Yet this is what Mme. Samson would have us think. She is more readily credited when she lays the blame for the quarrel upon the mercenary father of Rachel.

In a pamphlet, 'Der Universitätsunterricht und die Erfordernisse der Gegenwart' (Berlin: Calvary & Co.), Dr. Ernst Bernheim, Professor of History in the University of Greifswald, presents some of the good and bad features of German academic instruction in a clear and forcible manner. The organization and development of the German university on traditional lines inadequately provide for the recent enormous growth of special knowledge, so unfavorable to the broad and general culture which it was the original aim of such an institution to impart; but the remedies proposed for this defect involve the danger of dissolving the university into a set of professional schools designed solely to promote "education for practical life." Prof. Bernheim protests against this pseudo-reform, and thinks the difficulty can be met without such a radical change. Owing to the marvellous progress of technical instruction during the past forty years in the fatherland of philosophies and phenomenologies, Germany has entered into earnest commercial and industrial competition with other nations in the marts of the world, so that the export of metaphysical systems "made in Germany" is now being rapidly superseded by manufactures bearing the same label. *Lernfreiheit* offers as great advantages to students as *Lehrfreiheit* does to professors, but presupposes a lively sense of duty, love of learning, maturity of judgment, and a certain force of character in the young men who are to enjoy and profit by it. The one thing needful is less passive receptivity and more active individual investigation. Very suggestive are the remarks on private lectures, seminaries, and other forms of academical instruction. The report of Prof. Conrad Halle on American universities and the superiority of their courses of study in some respects is cited.

The second publication of the Nantucket Historical Association consists of the Timothy White Papers (1725-1755), edited by the Rev. Myron Samuel Dudley. The Rev. Timothy White was a Harvard graduate of the class of 1720, a native of Haverhill, Mass., and connected by marriage with the Gardner family of Nantucket, where his pastorate covered the period bracketed above. His editor sets forth what is known of previous efforts to evangelize the Indians of the island, as well as to furnish religious teaching to the white settlers. Mr. White's journal and account-books as school-teacher and trader give this pamphlet a genealogical value. A few letters are appended, and there is a photographic frontispiece showing the Old North vestry. The Papers may be had of Miss Susan E. Brock, Nantucket, or of Littlefield, Boston.

Popular errors die hard, especially when they are picturesque. *Literature* (March 19, p. 304) can still speak, in a paragraph on New England Puritanism, of "that blasted fatal bough that bore the hanged Quaker *and burnt the witch*"; and again, "The folk of Miss Wilkins still possess *the faggot for the witch*, but the faggot serves to cook hot biscuit." But *Literature* would be unable to tell when and where in New England either the bough or the faggot burnt the witch.

The *National Geographic Magazine* for March contains illustrated accounts of dwellings of the saga-time in Iceland, Greenland, and Vineland, by Miss C. Horsford, and of a voyage up the Kuskokwim in Alaska by two Moravian missionaries in 1885. The frontispiece is a portrait of the new President of the National Geographic Society, Prof. Alex. Graham Bell.

The *Annales de Géographie* for March opens with a suggestive article by the edi-

tor, M. Vidal de la Blache, on political geography, with special reference to the works of Prof. F. Ratzel. There are also articles on the geological structure of the lands bordering on the Ægean, and on the climate of the Australian desert; and a comparative view, with charts, of the density of population in France in the years 1801, 1846, and 1896.

The principal contents of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, No. 2, are articles upon the geology of Java and upon the native races of Formosa and the Loochoo Islands. One may read, besides, of an exploration of the Capim River in Pará. A description of the Bay of Kiao-chau is accompanied by a reproduction of a Japanese map of the peninsula, showing both the territory leased to Germany and that under German influence. A useful survey of the progress of railway construction in all parts of "savage" Africa is to be found in the monthly report.

On the 28th of January, 1892, on the occasion of the combined celebration of the anniversaries of the birth of Frederick II. and of William II., Du Bois-Reymond delivered before the Royal Academy of Sciences an address on Maupertuis (published in the then current *Rundschau*). At that date the correspondence between the philosopher and Frederick, appended to La Beaumelle's 'Vie de Maupertuis,' had for good reasons to be set down as untrustworthy. Since then, however, the original and authentic letters, which La Beaumelle had copied and falsified, have been transferred from the private collection of Feuillet de Conches to the Prussian archives, whose director, Dr. Reinhard Koser, is at present engaged in preparing them for publication. The correspondence begins in 1738 with a letter from Frederick, then living as Crown Prince at Rheinsberg, and covers the whole period to Maupertuis's death in 1759. It consists of 176 letters, about half of which are from the King. Extracts from these letters are interspersed in the address on "Maupertuis and Frederick the Great" delivered by the present secretary of the Berlin Academy, Prof. Hermann Diels, on January 27 last, at the same place and on the same occasion as Du Bois-Reymond's six years ago. These fragments, few and brief as they are, leave no doubt of the extraordinary interest attaching to the letters, which, one readily believes, "will add to the character of the great King many brilliant and noble traits." Prof. Diels is a classical scholar and philologian, but this does not prevent him from giving in his address (see the *Rundschau* for March) an interesting and sympathetic account of the early successes and subsequent disappointments of the ambitious French mathematician and philosopher, and of the affectionate relations between him and his master, the heroic and sentimental King.

The tenth report of Mr. Robert T. Swan, Massachusetts Commissioner of Public Records, shows a gratifying progress in legislation favorable to his steady application on behalf of these long neglected documents. To this legislation general attention may be directed, as also to a new and efficient "Act relative to the registry and return of births, marriages, and deaths." Many old records have, by general advertisement, been recovered. Some towns and cities are printing their earliest. The bulk of the report consists of a noteworthy list, with historical data, of churches, parishes, precincts, and religious societies, present and past, in Massachusetts, arranged geographically. The Baptist, Congregational, Methodist Episcopal, Protestant Episcopal, Unitarian, and Universalist alone are considered. The Roman Catholics "have no form of organization necessary for the business transactions which are a part of the life of other denominations." Mr. Swan is sure that a very large percentage of so-called church organizations "would find it impossible to take action in business matters that could not be set aside for irregularity or illegality." Apropos of the famous Dedham case, in 1820, which led to the succession of Unitarian to Congregational church rights, Mr. Swan notices a suit now pending in Lowell between two churches of these denominations for possession of a meeting-house by legal succession. The Commissioner invites corrections and additions to his very valuable list, compiled out of chaos.

"Hawaiian Skulls" is the subject of the last memoir contributed by the lamented Dr. Harrison Allen to the Transactions of the Wagner Free Institute of Science of Philadelphia. The distinction between the social classes of the ancient Hawaiians seems to have extended to their methods of burial. The remains of chiefs and nobles were interred in lava-caves and subterranean caverns, while those of common people were placed in superficial graves near the coast. The cave skulls are, as a rule, free from disease, but commonly show defective nutrition. The coast skulls are of a lower structural type, and show a greater variety of diseased action. The author believed that "the differences between the crania are not due to race but to methods of living, and in some degree to differences of mental strength in individuals." Dr. D. G. Brinton, in a prefatory note, calls attention to the novel graphic method devised by Dr. Allen (called by him the "terrace" method), which is published for the first time in this memoir.

The Maryland Geological Survey has published the first volume of its Reports under the direction of Prof. William Bullock Clark, State Geologist. This introductory volume contains a preliminary account of the physiography, geology, and natural resources of the State. To this are appended a bibliography and a cartography of Maryland, by Dr. E. B. Mathews, and a report upon magnetic work, by Dr. L. A. Bauer. The book is attractive in appearance, and is furnished with excellent illustrations and maps. Volume two of these reports, which will contain a description of the building and decorative stones of the State, is in preparation.

In saying last week that the "Psychological Index" just issued took up the entire March issue of the *Psychological Review*, we overlooked the fact that the index is a supplement, and that the regular March number of the *Review* was issued as usual besides. It contains the notable address, on "The Psychology of Invention," delivered at the Ithaca meeting of the Psychological Association last December by Professor Royce; the detailed proceedings of the same meeting, an interesting discussion of "Physical and Mental Tests," by Professors Jastrow, Baldwin, and Cattell, together with the usual quota of signed book-reviews and notices. The editors of the *Review* are also publishing a series of longer "Monograph Supplements," of which Nos. 5 and 6 have appeared in the last three months—"Problems in the Psychology of Reading," by J. O. Quantz, and "The Fluctuation of Attention," by J. P. Hylan.

A short article in a recent number of the *Berlingske Tidende* of Copenhagen, by the well-known Danish specialist, Dr. E. Ehlers, gives an interesting account of the work on the new lepers' hospital for Iceland. As was announced earlier in these columns, the building has been constructed in Norway, whence it was to have been shipped last month. The hospital will be opened July 24, although the whole amount necessary to meet the expenses (some $35,000) has not yet been raised. In view of the fact that, without isolation, the present annual increase of lepers in Iceland is about twenty, the committee feel that further delay would be little short of criminal. Dr. Ehlers states that in the Norwegian asylums the average time of treatment, before death comes to the relief of the sufferer, is 4.2 years. If this rate obtain in the Icelandic hospital (and there is no reason to suppose that it will vary greatly), there will be an entirely new set of patients about four years after the opening, and, with the present accommodation of seventy, it will, under the present conditions, take only about twenty years to root out the disease entirely.

The American Association for the Advancement of Science will celebrate in Boston, on August 22-27, its fiftieth anniversary. The Boston local committee has Gov. Wolcott for its honorary president. A great simultaneous gathering in Boston of the American Forestry Association, the American Geological Society, the American Chemical Society, the American Mathematical Society, the Society of Economic Entomologists, the Society for the Promotion of Agricultural Science, the Society for Promoting Engineering Education, and others, will give éclat to the occasion. The sessions will be held at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, which is the address of Prof. H. W. Tyler, the local secretary for all correspondence. The Association will be the guest of Harvard College for a day, of the Essex Institute at Salem for another; and sundry other excursions — to the White Mountains, to Cape Cod—are contemplated. A large increase in membership is desired and anticipated.

The centenary celebration in honor of Amerigo Vespucci and of Toscanelli, the astronomer, cartographer, and correspondent of Columbus, will be inaugurated at Florence on April 28 by the unveiling of two commemorative statues of these famous Florentines by the King of Italy. There will also be an exhibition of valuable unpublished documents relating to their services in connection with the discovery of America.

—The Rev. E. E. Hale has often displayed his indifference to historical accuracy, but has seldom surpassed it as exhibited in the anecdotic biography of the poet Lowell which is appearing in the *Outlook*. The chapter published in the April number gives a readable account of the literary conditions in 1842-43, with a glance at the later career of the persons named, but the writer's errors are more amusing than his facts. For Dr. George B. Loring he invents a military career, remarking of him that he was "distinguished as a general in the war," and afterwards speaking of him as "General" Loring. Of his own brother Nathan he writes that "he made a negotiation with Duyckinck and 'Harry Franco' . . . by which their short-lived ma-

gazine [*Arcturus*] was transferred to him." Franco (C. F. Briggs) had nothing to do with this periodical; Mr. Hale means Cornelius Mathews. As an excuse for the fashion plates in the Boston *Miscellany*, we read that "there was no class of readers who could sustain creditably a purely literary magazine. The rate at which the poor *Knickerbocker* was [in 1842] expiring was evidence of this." As the *Knickerbocker* was published without interruption till 1865, the duration of its death-agony "beats the record." Of Hawthorne we are told that "his stories in the *Democratic Review* of this time are attributed to Monsieur d'Aubépine." Some of Hawthorne's tales in the *Token* were so signed, but not those in the *Review*. Mr. Hale also remembers what "glee there was in the counting-room [of his brother's magazine] when it was announced that a thousand copies . . . had been sold in Lowell." Small wonder that such an incident made an impression which has lasted fifty years; such a sale in such a place might well cause amazement. So successful an editor would have been worth his weight in gold, yet we have before us a letter from the publisher, written June 13, 1842, in which the editorship is offered to another littérateur: "We are decidedly of the opinion," says the writer, "that a change of editor is nessessary for the permanent suxcess of the work." Of bibliographical interest is the statement concerning Lowell's 'Old [English] Poets' that "forty-eight editions have since been published" —interesting because the author never permitted its republication after 1846, and the only edition now before the public is an unauthorized one. The *Liberty Bell* Mr. Hale describes as "an anti-slavery journal," though it was published as a bound volume and but once a year, and not regularly at that.

—Conspicuous by its absence is the word *campus* in the Oxford Dictionary (volume 2, 1893). The word, meaning 'college grounds,' occurs in Webster and the Century of 1889 or 1890. The Oxford Dictionary, however, admits the word *campo*, "Obs. school slang," with this citation: "1612. Brinsley, *Lud. Lil.* 299. Without running out to the campo (as they terme it) at schoole times. *Ibid.* There is no day but they will all looke for so much time at the Campo." The omission of Campus in Dr. Murray's vocabulary, which is twice as extensive as Webster's, is a strong proof that the existing usage is an Americanism pure and simple. Indeed, the Century defines it as descriptive of the grounds of American colleges. So far as we can ascertain, Campus was a word unknown in all dictionaries prior to the Century and the last revision of Webster, and yet was current long before in American educational institutions. You will not discover it in Worcester of 1890 nor in any previous issue. It is natural to ask how long it has been in vogue, and when and where the usage originated. The only citation in any dictionary to prove the existence of the word is in the Standard Dictionary (1894-5), and consists in a sentence from the *Cosmopolitan* of April, 1890. The earliest appearance in the West of Campus as noted by the present writer was in the Racine (Wis.) *Mercury* of August 5, 1868. Its words were: "The college Campus has been mowed." An advent of the term in the East some ten years earlier is said to be shown in a class poem printed among Harvard songs, and commencing,

"When we first came on this Campus
We were freshmen green as grass."

Both these instances prove that Campus was then no stranger either East or West, but had already been so long hospitably received as to be adopted among household words.

—That story of the man who applied for a pension on the ground of having read all the war articles in the *Century*, proves that now and then a reader of wholesale propensity lingers among us. On the whole, the tendency is towards epitome, and we are therefore not shocked to find that Motley's 'Dutch Republic' is now considered too long. Mr. W. E. Griffis has abridged the three volumes (Harper & Bros.) into enough less than one to permit of a supplemental sketch which covers, in above 200 pages, the years 1584-1897. Motley took great pains with the collection of his data, but a vivacious style gave him his audience. We do not mean altogether to condemn Mr. Griffis's piece of work when we say that Motley would never have made his reputation by a history executed in the present wise. Assuming that he used proper proportions, a considerable reduction of scale destroys the artistic character of the whole, and turns what was once literature into a book of reference. Still, the 'Dutch Republic' contains material for a good compendium, and Mr. Griffis has taken all the space required to contain the important facts. In cheapness, clearness of print, and quality of illustration his abstract is worthy of praise. While we should have preferred to the portrait of Margaret of Parma, which he gives, that by Sanchez Coello, we discern in his selection a familiarity with pictures and prints and a personal knowledge of Holland. We have examined his own sequel to Motley with more care than we have paid to his synopsis. It is a sketch marked by signs of conscientious inquiry and yet bearing traces of the amateur in historical composition. Else why should he say, p. 766, "The old formula of mediæval Europe, *ejus regio cujus religio*, was still observed"? Gardner for Gardiner, and Netsu for Metsu, are probably misprints, but we can less easily forgive the statement that Paul Potter was "the painter of one of the four great world's pictures." In citing French words Mr. Griffis goes a little astray, both as to the accents and spelling. Moreover, his account of operations conducted by the National Convention against Holland is so concise that one would imagine Dumouriez and Pichegru to have been engaged in the same winter campaign of 1794-'95. In strictly Dutch affairs, however, Mr. Griffis is well grounded, and his outline of events since the death of William the Silent fits into its context very serviceably.

—Pennsylvania derives her entire revenue from other sources than the taxation of real estate, leaving this source of income to local communities exclusively. In addition to the ordinary expenses of the State Government, she distributes $5,500,000 to the local communities for public schools. We have already referred to a work explaining how she obtains income, by Frank M. Eastman, of the Auditor-General's staff, entitled 'Taxation for State Purposes in Pennsylvania' (Philadelphia: Kay & Brother). The arrangement of the matter is systematic. The legislative history of each existing tax, license, or other source of revenue, is given, the method of administering it is described, and the rulings of the courts upon it, if any, are summarized and the volumes referred to. Experience derived from the letters of inquiry received by the Auditor-General has taught Mr. Eastman what things the public want to know about, and he has aimed to supply all such information. The only thing that we miss which we should like to have is a tabular statement of the amount derived from each tax in an average year, or in the latest fiscal year. A chapter on local taxation, *i. e.*, taxation in counties, cities, boroughs, and townships, is added, giving an outline of the principles followed, not aiming, however, to deal with that subject thoroughly. Defects in the present laws of the State as revealed in practical administration form the concluding chapter. The book seems to us to be an admirable guide to legislatures in other States which are seeking to assimilate their own systems to that of Pennsylvania, and a valuable assistance to students of the science of taxation in general.

—Of great interest is the latest issue of the English Historical MSS. Commission, containing the MSS. of the Earl of Carlisle. One of that house, the fifth Earl, was on the reconciliation committee sent to America in 1778, and in his letters to his wife and friends we have a full account of the difficulties encountered in that ill-timed mission. Some of these invaluable records have been reproduced in Stevens's Facsimiles, but it is well to have them in a more accessible form. Although the Earl was only thirty years of age at the time of his visit to America, his papers are of a high quality, and his opinions, even in the face of disappointment, are balanced and moderate. Germain concealed from the commission the orders given to army and navy serving against the colonies, so that they found on arriving at Philadelphia the plan of campaign changed from an offensive to a defensive one, and such positive and repeated orders issued as must reduce to impotency the already much weakened military force. The appeals to Congress were made at a time when it was flushed by its treaty with France and the presence of a French fleet off the coast; it was useless, too, to expect success when the British army was leaving Philadelphia—a retreat. The letter to his tutor, Rev. Mr. Ekins, is a remarkable example of the Earl's ability to explain the failure of that commission. Nearly 100 pages of this volume are occupied with the letters and documents of this half-hearted effort to win the rebellious colonies by means other than arms. A record is made of the distribution of the manifesto and proclamation—ten English and five German copies going to Washington.

—On his return to England, the Earl continued for some time to receive "Intelligence" from America, but the most of it is from men firmly convinced that the war was nearly at an end, and Washington's army in its last ditch, as, indeed, it seemed to be. A recommendation to send out civil commissioners to govern the provinces as they should submit, was one of the more sanguine ideas communicated. More true were the predictions of disaster from the paper money, which now scarcely passed at all, being received only at twenty for one and rapidly falling in value. Naturally the quarrel in Congress over Deane, and the dif-

ferences between Arnold and the Executive Council of Pennsylvania, were made much of, but the news was too strongly colored to be of real service. Yet the intelligencers were William Smith, Chief Justice of the Province, and Andrew Elliott, who wished to be the civil Governor of New York, men of more than average ability. Of secondary interest are the several hundred letters from George Selwyn, which do not bear out his reputation as a wit, and are for the most part dreary reading. Of politics he says almost nothing, but of personal matter he is overflowing—the society reporter of the day. As a picture of the social habits and customs, his record will stand high, but he will never enjoy even a small part of the popularity that "Horry" Walpole holds. The descriptions of Charles Fox and the rage for Pharoah (faro) should be read—Fox running a bank at one end of the street and the bailiffs levying an execution on his belongings at the other. The flavor of Selwyn's political interest may be judged by this extract: "I went from dinner yesterday to the House of Commons, and came just in time enough to be in a division upon some American question, God knows what." That was written in 1781.

THE GREEK TRAGIC DRAMA.

The Tragic Drama of the Greeks. By A. E. Haigh, M.A. With illustrations. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1897.

Mr. Haigh's treatise is a natural sequel to his 'Attic Theatre,' which opportunely filled a niche in English classical scholarship and archæology that had stood waiting for many years. The general impression produced by it is that of good judgment and adequate information. Amid the bewildering richness of theories, he keeps a well-balanced and independent judgment; he rides no hobbies, and he avails himself with discretion of the excursions made by other people's hobbies. His work does not address itself to specialists alone; it is so framed that the very full citations from the Greek and the occasional technical discussions are relegated entirely to the footnotes. At the same time, both text and footnotes evince a comprehensive acquaintance with the enormous mass of research and speculation which has accumulated since the days of K. O. Müller and Donaldson and Patin.

It is now well understood that much of our modern drama—possibly even the Sanskrit—harks back to the Greek. The Greeks were practically the inventors of this literary form. They did not attain to it all at once—they built it, doubtless, on the ruins of many failures: but they brought it to perfection in a surprisingly short space of time, in the course of about fifty years from the early essays in Attica. If any one fancies this was a slight achievement on the part of those three Athenian playwrights who "knew to build the lofty rhyme," some reflection and study will change his opinion. It was, in fact, to be classed with the first scientific history, or with the earliest working-model of a democracy, both of which essays fell within the same fruitful period. Of all the wonders which resourceful man has devised, and which Sophocles names in his great ode in the "Antigone," not the least might be the superb contrivance and imagination of the drama which enshrines that meditative hymn in praise of civilization.

There is a strong temptation to compare a Greek play to the modern opera, and in some respects the comparison will hold; but the differences are as striking as the analogies. The scenic effect of a Greek play resembled in some respects that of an opera: there was music, there were costumes and the semblance of a ballet. But in the opera the music is a primary aim, an end in itself; in the Greek tragedy it is quite secondary and ancillary. The music is, in fact, the humble servant of the poetry. The great odes of Æschylus and Sophocles, which are an integral part of the action, and which called on the highest intelligence of the auditors, must have been "syllabled" to the slender and passionate accompaniment of the flute-notes. The audience could not afford to miss a word of such song—not a word was meant to be lost. In our opera the words are blocks to be draped and hidden with the music; the opera delights in vain repetition. Precisely the same thing happened in the decadence of the Greek stage, when the musicians became virtuosos, and Euripides wrote monodies to suit this virtuosity. Then came runs and trills, repetitions and prolongations of syllables, the operatic fustian travestied by Aristophanes in his delicious gallimaufry, which invokes the powers of heaven to witness the nocturnal robbery of a hen-roost.

There was, however, a legitimate kinship between the opera and the drama to this extent: the drama grew out of the song and dance of the dithyramb and the recitation of a coryphæus. To this germ may be traced many peculiarities of structure; from this origin, as a theme or motif, expand the wonderful symphonic effects which recent research has revealed so clearly. Since the play is built and developed from the balanced antistrophes of the dithyramb, it tends to preserve this balance in the dialogue as well as in the lyric songs. In rapid and heated discussion the speakers bandy line for line; in longer argument, they exchange discourses of nearly equal length. Did this balancing go further? Was there an exact mathematical responsion between the larger divisions or members of the play? Mr. Haigh, like Bergk and other cautious scholars, decides in the negative. It cannot be proved, it could not have been perceived by the theatre; and indeed we should be sorry to learn that the great masters condemned themselves to the fetters of such fantastic slavery. Such chains as they carried were golden and loosely worn as graceful ornaments.

More than this, the lyric and musical origin of the drama to which it was possible and natural always to revert, gave the poet certain privileges which Shakspere, if he did not miss, might at least occasionally have used with propriety and advantage. At any moment of passion, the ancient dialogue might break into a lyric form, with its special refined propriety of metre; at intervals of the highest excitement, the lyric utterance imposed itself on the chorus. The slightest varying shades of emotion found there their appropriate means of expression. Now there are scenes in "King Lear" and in "Romeo and Juliet" which, by common consent, are lyric rather than dramatic. These passages, in the hands of Sophocles or Euripides, would infallibly, according to the canons of the ancient drama, have found their rapturous or lofty expression in lyric songs. Nay, Shakspere himself betrays the necessity for such a relief in the snatches sung by the jester or by *Ophelia*.

In one respect at least, the ancient tragedians were freer than our playwrights. The breaks between the dialogue caused by the choral ode were the origin of our five-act division. But this particular number was an afterthought; in the beginning, neither the number nor the length of the "episodes" was fixed. The number varied from four to six, till with Euripides it tended towards five. The length varied according to the fancy or the will of the poet; he was under no compulsion to pad out the dialogue so as to attain a procrustean measure. As to "the unities of time and place," they really imposed on the playwright no such iron yoke as Horace and Boileau would have us believe. More recent and careful studies show this conclusively. The scene was occasionally changed, or a new scene was practically introduced by the device of a messenger to narrate distant occurrences. The shifting of time is sometimes masked by the interlude of a choral ode, as in the "Agamemnon"; for the same purpose, the interludes of Euripides are, says Croiset, "capable de tout."

One of the resources of the highest order of English poetry has always been its diction and vocabulary. In spite of the theories of Wordsworth—theories not borne out even in his own practice—the rarer geniuses have always sought words that are strange or rare or old, fraught with some far-brought expressiveness of association, to embroider or color the fabric of their poetic diction. French poetry has suffered from the lack of this; the verse of Pope and Dryden which lacks it most, is most pedestrian in tone and sentiment. This color and tone the Greek poets deliberately sought by the systematic creation of an appropriate vocabulary. The epic and the lyric poets at a very early day developed their diverse and conventional medium of expression; the dramatists, too, devised their own special language characterized by its due inheritance of associations and delicate proprieties. In their dialogue, it was a language slightly removed from the current form and syntax of the ordinary speech, redolent with some flavors of dignified archaism and slightly set apart, as the diction of King James's Bible is distinguished from that of our own day. But the noticeable point is that it hovered close to the purest and most elegant Attic speech of the day, on which it was based, and from which it continually drew freshness and grace and vigor. The dramatists did not forget that their personages were *talking;* they did not forget the conversation of the thoughtful and witty Athenian whose ease and good breeding and urbanity are not flattered out of all likeness by the opening scenes of the 'Phaedrus' and the 'Republic.' Toward this conversational tone and diction, their style tended steadily till it reached the inimitable charm and simplicity of Euripides. In Aristophanes and Menander, it has attained to the lively dialogue or the level tone of polite society. In this process, the tragedians gained what the French verse of the seventeenth century possessed—the merits of a spoken style. They gained this, but they preserved also, by virtue of an exquisite taste and a splendid poetic tradition, what Corneille and Racine never attained, what we, the fortunate inheritors of Spenser and Shakspere and Milton, can

prize at its full value—the color, the richness, the poignant suggestiveness of a special poetic vocabulary.

In the Attic theatre there was a natural action and reaction. Poet and audience were *en rapport*. The poet taught his lesson or said his say; but never did playwright address himself to a keener-witted, juster set of listeners and critics. If we needed any proof of the quality of the "pit" at Athens, we have only to note the "Frogs" of Aristophanes, for the "Frogs" not only enshrines the wayward criticism of a master of his craft; it presupposes and postulates an audience competent to understand and enjoy literature and literary criticism. And this fact lets us into the secret of the *milieu* in which both tragedy and comedy sprang and flourished. "At Athens, as in France," says M. Brunetière in a recent article, "literature was in some sort a social institution"; the public and the literary workman were in the closest touch and partnership. No academy could have frowned more effectually on whims and oddities and individual eccentricity or affectation than that keen and impressionable public.

But they liked preaching from their tragedians. In their minds, the saying which Aristophanes puts in the mouth of Æschylus was not far from the truth: "Tragedy is a school of life for the older generation." In a later century they learned, too, to tolerate "art for art's sake." That kind of poetry came in the time of Theocritus and of Herodas. But the drama of the Periclean period is, in a high sense, like the plays of Shakspere, a school of morals, because it is "a criticism of life." It deals in a lofty way with all the problems of life, of destiny, and of religion. When it ventured across the limits of a plain moral purpose, when it brought a *Camille* upon the stage, and Euripides painted his *Phædra* with more fidelity to the symptoms of her passion than its consequences, Aristophanes (who sticks at nothing in his comedy) grows squeamish, and cries out that the proprieties of tragedy have been invaded: "Away with your courtesans and your realism," he cries to Euripides; "baseness and sensuality exist, but they ought to be kept in the background; the dramatist is the teacher of high ideals to grown-up men and women." However mixed the motives of so singular a censor of morals, the theatre, in this instance at least, supported him with its verdict, and Euripides wrote his recantation in a revised study of his "Phædra." But in his general indictment of the art of Euripides, the comedian failed so ludicrously, so egregiously, that it might have tickled his own sense of humor could he have foreseen the fiasco. The whole Hellenistic and Roman world went against him, in passionate admiration of the great innovator.

Between Æschylus and Euripides the drama had moved rapidly in an inevitable course. One of the results of modern study of this development, intelligently set forth by Mr. Haigh, is a much clearer understanding of the position and merits of the last of the great tragedians, of the inevitable tendencies which he represented, of the limits and disadvantages under which he worked, and which marred the artistic quality of his work. Custom and convention obliged him to bring the heroes and heroines of Homeric or earlier legend upon the stage, while his own genius and the tendencies in the air impelled him, under the masks of these familiar names, to reveal the flesh and blood, the men and women, he met with every day. At times they moved awkwardly trammelled by the costumes and the padding of an outgrown tradition. Hence that realism which, in spite of incongruities, was a stroke of genius and an inspired anticipation of the ideas of the modern world. Euripides was an observer, and had the insight to discover material for his tragedy and melodrama in his own democratic fellow-countrymen. His personages were no longer the royal or aristocratic type of heroic legend, but the actual figures of the middle class of Athens—its politicians, its commonplace women, with their pettiness and vulgarity, its nurses and gossips, its peasants, and even its slaves. They go about their ordinary tasks, they busy themselves with "pots and pans," with sweeping and washing; his princess *Electra* marries a laborer and lives in a cottage. He held the mirror up to this democratic society; and his townsmen, the "plain people," were delighted to see in it the reflection of themselves. He first condescended to explore the heart of woman and to sympathize with her lot. He committed a greater crime, in the eyes of Aristophanes: "He first dared to bring on the stage a woman in love." Worse than this, in his "Andromeda," he actually conceived the enormity of representing a young man and maiden in love with one another; and, strange to say, the people liked this risky experiment and found its unheard-of motif interesting. The play was pronounced beautiful, and was a favorite with Alexander the Great.

The women that the poet knew at Athens had the pettiness, the frailties, and the faults that were bred in this life of harem-like seclusion; and he touched these with the surgeon's knife. Yet he did not invent from the imagination solely his *Alcestis* and *Macaria*, or the enchanting prattle and the highbred heroism of his *Iphigenia*. We see no reason to concede to M. Decharme that such winning pictures are purely ideal creations of the poet, any more than his *Ion* and *Hippolytus*. His mind dwelt with delight amid such gracious images of purity and youth. If he painted the darker passions of jealousy and illegitimate love, yet his *Medea* and his *Phædra* have some saving graces, relentings, and qualms, and self-reproaches, which redeem them from the sordid types of a Herodas or a Zola.

In his humane thoughts for the slave and the oppressed, in his condemnation of war, in his large anticipation of a possible brotherhood of man, Euripides stood, if not alone, too nearly alone in his generation. In his rationalism he was a representative of the epoch of Thucydides and of the wave of Ionian thought, when most of the higher minds were sceptical, and of the lower were superstitious. The faith which could make high morality consist with the pagan pantheon—the faith of Pindar and Æschylus and Sophocles—was no longer possible to thinkers, though in truth these poets themselves had not scrupled to criticise, and to square traditions with their own notions of morality. Aristophanes, posing as a high-priest of orthodoxy and *laudator temporis acti*, could make his cry of atheist stick, could libel Socrates, and throw dust in the eyes of his theatre, as he managed to blind the judgment of scholars and critics down to Schlegel. But, as Mr. Haigh well remarks, he never blinded the poets—a Milton, a Goethe, or a Browning. It is a lesson in the history of thought to reflect that the scepticism of Euripides became orthodoxy with the Christian fathers; his plays became a storehouse of ethical sentiment and a model for the Christus Patiens. This means of course that he shared in the revolt of reasoned ethics against the blind conservatism of religious traditions, wherein he only carried to greater length a movement that was begun before. It does not mean that he utterly renounced and condemned the national religion. He was a reformer; but we have no sufficient evidence that his plays were dedicated to a secret crusade,—to sapping and mining so sly and Machiavellian that it has been hid from all the world except Dr. Verrall, that ingenious discoverer of "bird's milk" and kindred classical rarities. In this, as in many other matters, Mr. Haigh's judgment keeps a golden mean which commends itself to good sense and adheres strictly to facts.

To the originality and ingenuity of Euripides we moderns owe the earliest specimens of the complicated plot, the "peripetias" or surprises, the stage recognitions that are now so hackneyed but were then absolutely novel, or only faintly hinted at in the art of his predecessors. With his intimate knowledge of the stage, its "properties" and machinery, he sought "sensations," spectacular effects, and *coups de théâtre*. He pleased his audience with the display of deities *ex machina*, as he tickled their fancies with his ingenious and sophistical rhetorical duels. These encounters, which in Sophocles were subordinated to the ends of art, became on his stage an exhibition of rhetorical skill as attractive to the audience as the apparition of his deities. But the tendency of all these devices is towards degeneracy.

Mr. Haigh closes with a curious sketch of the consequences of this degeneracy, of the closing days of the drama when "it flickered down to brainless pantomime,

> 'And those gilt gauds men-children swarm to see.' "

Euripides still held the stage, as numerous inscriptions and anecdotes attest, till the third century of our era. He was not then banished by the Church or the Christian fathers. He gave way to more sensuous entertainments, the ballet, the harlequinade, and the pantomime. When we read that, for actresses in these, "little else was required but beauty and audacity," we seem to be rehearsing the history of our own stage and of its ebb-tide in the nineteenth century.

As to the Greek practice of excluding from its stage "the actual commission of atrocities," Mr. Haigh repeats the ordinary opinion (drawn first, perhaps, from Horace) that this avoidance was due to "a refinement of sentiment which regarded actual bodily violence as a sight too terrible for the feelings of the audience." They could look on *Agave* carrying the gory head of her son on a pike, or on *Clytæmnestra* brandishing her sword over her murdered husband, and "rejoicing in the gush of the blood as the cornland joys in the dew"; but their feelings would not endure the actual sight of the stroke. They could bear the prolonged spectacle of horrors when the deed was done, but they winced from the sight of murder in the doing. Now this very statement is enough to show that Mr. Haigh's explanation does not explain. Without any morbid thirst for horrors and "sensations," a Greek audience could certainly tolerate them when they

formed a legitimate part of the action. Perhaps the most satisfactory explanation of this puzzling inconsistency is that the avoidance of representing the actual murder arose first from a religious scruple against defiling the sanctuary (for a theatre was a sanctuary of Dionysus) with mimicry of the deed. There are only two exceptions to this rule in extant dramas.

BLUNDERING IN THE INDEX.

The Comprehensive Subject-Index to Universal Prose Fiction. Compiled and arranged by Zella Allen Dixson, A.M., Associate Librarian of the University of Chicago. Dodd, Mead & Company. 1897. 12mo, 421 pp.

No reference book is free from errors, but we think this will take the lead for carelessness and ignorance. To say that there are blunders on every page is to state the case inadequately, and that these are often due to negligence is proved by the fact that the incorrectness of the classification in a given case is often shown by some other title on the same page. As regards common blunders, it appears, from several entries, that 'St. Leon' was written not by William (but by Caleb Williams) Godwin (pp. 36, 57, 181, etc.); that the author of the 'Partisan Leader' was plain Beverley—not Beverley Tucker (p. 366); that the English writer for boys is not Stables but Stabbles (p. 7); that an American writer of the same sort of books is Mary Bunce (p. 15) instead of Mary Brush, as the name is generally written; that a popular Austrian novelist is named Sachermasoch (p. 33); that the early German writer is named Grummelshausen (p. 120), and that 'John Inglesant' is by the notorious J. H. Ingraham (p. 48). Various books concerning Shakspere are credited to Folk (instead of Folkstone) Williams (pp. 89, 98, 106, 119, 356-7); Gutzkow is spelled Gutzhow (p. 140), and Jensen Jessen (p. 178), while the pseudonym of a third is given as George Samaron (for Gregor Samarow, p. 188). On page 122 two books with the same title are entered, one by "W. Alexsis" and the other by H. Haering, but the reader is not warned that the books are the same—Alexis being Haering's pseudonym. Lady Gordon is given as the author of a book by Wailly (pp. 220, 222); and to Mrs. Phelps Ward are credited her mother's 'Sunnyside' and 'Peep at No. 5.' We learn, also, that a novel called 'Trilby,' the history of which is fairly well known, is a translation (pp. 208, 293), as is also a book by one J. H. Mancur, a New York writer of fifty years back.

When we examine the classification the results are equally surprising: Thackeray's 'Four Georges' (pp. 107, 130, etc.), Daudet's 'Trente Ans,' and Miss O'Meara's account of Mme. Mohl and her friends (pp. 170, 279), it seems, are all novels. So, also, is "Edmond Alton's" book about government (p. 303). The 'Jungle Book' is entered under Allegories. Under Abbey, real and imaginary abbeys are entered in the same alphabet, as "*Melrose:* Monastery [by] Sir Walter Scott; *Nightmare:* Nightmare Abbey [by] Thomas Love Peacock." The same method is followed under Castle, the titles being divided into "General and Imaginary" on the one hand, and such real structures as "Castle Daly" on the other. There are no references under Greek Church, but we find Potapenko's 'Russian Priest' under Catholicism. Dumas's 'Black Tulip' (Holland) is found under France; while Ebers's story of the siege of Leyden is entered under Germany. Werner's 'Hermann,' a tale of contemporary life, is put under Legends and Hermann, called by the Romans Arminius. 'The Hoosier Schoolmaster' is, despite its local title, found under Illinois, instead of Indiana, which loses also Eggleston's 'Roxy,' so that it has only two titles to thirteen for Illinois. Kipling's 'Light that Failed,' of which the scene is wholly in London, is entered under India. 'The Last Athenian,' according to Mrs. Dixson (p. 226), was an inhabitant of Italy in the seventh century, instead of Athens in the fourth, as the author would have us believe. Miss Yonge's 'Caged Lion,' who died 1437, is put under James I., "1603-'25." Cooper's "Pathfinder," our compiler thinks, was Paul Jones, who, it may be remembered, was a salt-water hero, while Leather-Stocking in this book resolutely declines to go near that element. Thomas Didymus, otherwise one of the twelve apostles, is classed (p. 244) as an English hero. 'Gaut Gurley; or, The Trappers of *Umbagog*' is put under Massachusetts, to make up for which Dr. Holmes's novels are omitted. They are also wanting in the New England list. The time of a book relating to the storming of the Alamo (1836) is said (p. 400) to be the eighteenth century, and the book itself (p. 268) to be concerned with "early Catholic missions in Florida"; on page 263 it is classed with novels on the Mexican war, "1845." Miss Pool's 'Dike Shanty,' a clever description of life on the low lands at Marshfield, Mass., is placed under North Carolina, and 'Guenn' under Paris, as well as under Paris Student Life, where is not the most famous of such books, Mürger's 'Vie de Bohême.' Under Pennsylvania we do not find Bayard Taylor's excellent 'Story of Kennett,' but encounter 'In the [Mohawk] Valley,' which belongs under New York. 'The Cloister and the Hearth' figures under Reformation, England; 'Redgauntlet' under Rebellion of 1745. Under Revolution, 1775-"89," we find 'The Bow of Orange Ribbon' (time 1756), 'The Cabin Book' (1846-'47), 'The Choir Invisible' (1795), 'The Conspirator' and 'The Rivals' (1806), 'Inez, a Tale of the Alamo' (1836), and De Forest's 'Overland' (1850). Some works of little merit, and not generally known, like Cooper's 'Pilot,' are missing. Under Salem we find 'Spectre of the Forest; or, Annals of the Housatonic,' but not 'House of the Seven Gables.'

Mrs. Dixson's reconstruction of biography and geography is equally radical. Thus, the heading Napoleon I. is accompanied by the descriptive note "Reigned 1799-1814." The father is naturally followed by the son, and we learn that "Napoleon II. Reigned 1848-51," though other authorities say he died in 1832. The great civil war of Great Britain, we are told on p. 64, began in 1625, our "French and Indian" wars in 1756, and the Mexican war in 1845. A book dealing with Kett's insurrection in 1549 is here entered (p. 216) as "Ker. 1708." Three novels whose scene is Austrian Poland are put under Spain (pp. 172, 380), as is also Hauff's 'Lichtenstein.' We learn, p. 201, that Henry IV. of France married Bertha of Susa, though the lady antedated him by five centuries. To balance this, Mrs. Dixson takes from him the damsel who, according to Zschokke, was his first love, and puts her under Henry IV. of England. The "Battle of Dorking" is treated as a real event of the war of 1870 (pp. 149, 167). Hadrian flourished in the second century *before* Christ (p. 21), Arius and Catiline in the first, St. Sebastian in the fifth, century after, according to the chronology of this volume. 'Lorna Doone' is called 'A Romance of Exmore'; the date of 'Kenilworth' is given as 1265, and Henry James's story of fashionable life called 'The Siege of London' is assigned to the year 994, when the kings of Denmark and Norway are recorded to have devastated Southern England. But while titles are slavishly followed in some cases, in others the information conveyed in them is ignored, as in the 'Blockade: An Episode of the Fall of the First Empire,' which is set down under 1870, and in the 'Maid of Stralsund: A Tale of the Thirty Years' War,' found under 1715. The compiler has evidently heard that Quebec was besieged in 1759, and therefore puts under this date Ingraham's 'Burton,' though the siege there described is that of 1775. Mrs. Child's 'Rebels' is credited to the seventeenth century.

We have referred to a few of the omissions, but these are so numerous that columns would be needed to do them justice. We find no mention of 'Don Quixote' or 'Gil Blas,' under Adventures, or Spain, or elsewhere. 'Wilhelm Meister' is likewise absent, though one would expect to find it under both Germany and Theatrical Life. A. Trollope's admirable Barchester Series is not under England, or Politics (English), or Ministers (to which there is no cross-reference from Clergy); Mrs. Oliphant's long list is likewise conspicuous only by its absence; and neither England nor English History shelters 'John Halifax, Gentleman.' Books familiar to so many thousands of schoolgirls as 'Picciola' and 'Corinne' are nowhere named. 'Consuelo' is not under Italy or Venice, but a book called 'Vittoria coronna' is supposed to give useful information concerning the history of the nineteenth century. One would have thought that Auerbach's novels were sufficiently known to merit inclusion under Germany. Cooper's 'Spy' is not mentioned under Washington, but his 'Lionel Lincoln,' in which the General does not figure, is. Under Agnosticism we miss 'We Two' and Mallock's amusing 'New Republic,' and, in connection with Altruism, 'Ideala.' In Ancient History is not to be found 'Salammbô,' or 'Marius the Epicurean,' or 'Fabiola,' or Tolstoi's 'Work While Ye Have the Light.' Under Connecticut are only four titles—all third-rate books—while the novels of Mrs. Stowe, D. G. Mitchell, and Mrs. Rose Terry Cooke are excluded. Under Dogmas one discovers neither 'John Ward' nor 'Robert Elsmere,' but that profound religious thinker "L. Mühlbach" is represented, as well as various writers we never heard of. Under England (manners, etc.) are none of the novels of Thackeray, Dickens, Meredith, Miss Austen, Reade, or the Brontës; nor is 'Villette' under Belgium (which is not deemed worthy of a heading) or Netherlands. There is no rubric for Communities, in default of which we looked (in vain) under Socialism for 'The Blithedale Romance.' Nor is there any caption such as Christian Life or Religious Life for books like 'Joshua Davidson' and 'A Singular Life'; and, failing a department for the Literary Life or Profession, there is no specific place for 'Pendennis' or 'The Literary Shop.' Under France (manners, etc.) is nothing by Balzac, George Sand, Theuriet, or Daudet; and only one of their novels under Paris. Under Napoleon III. are two of Zola's, but none of Daudet's. From Ger-

many are excluded the novels of "Marlitt" and "Werner," as well as 'The Initials,' 'Greifenstein,' 'Dr. Claudius,' 'Prince Otto,' and 'The First Violin.' Equally noticeable are the omissions under Italy and Russia. Neither of Tolstoi's books based on this subject is given under Marriage, nor under Pennsylvania do we see any of Mrs. Deland's books. Under Relations of the Sexes or Social Purity we particularly miss 'Elective Affinities,' 'Hedged in,' and 'Griffith Gaunt.'

The misprints, as might be expected, are innumerable. In speaking of Percy Russell's 'Guide to English and American Novels' (London, 1894) we said that it was "difficult to prove the hopeless incapacity of the writer without giving the absurd volume more space than it deserves." But a work entitled '*The* Comprehensive Subject-Index . . . ,' and of which the "associate" librarian of the University of Chicago is the "author," is entitled to more attention.

Verdi: Man and Musician. By Frederick J. Crowest. Scribners. Pp. 306.

What Is Good Music? By W. J. Henderson. Scribners. Pp. 205.

Music: How It Came to Be What It Is. By Hannah Smith. Scribners. Pp. 254.

Wonder Tales from Wagner. By Anna Alice Chapin. Harper & Bros. Pp. 189.

Verdi's latest biographer complains that this composer is disposed of by Ritter, in his 'History of Music,' in eleven short lines; that of Naumann's 1,300 pages only two are devoted to him; while Parry, in his 'Studies of the Great Composers,' omits him altogether. This is the more to be regretted as the Verdi literature is rather meagre; Mr. Crowest gives a bibliography of it which is of value *per se*, and also helps to justify his writing another book on the life and works of Italy's greatest operatic composer. He has not produced a work of original research or acute criticism, but it is a useful compilation of facts regarding Verdi and his operas which will most interest the general public. He makes clear the difference in the three styles of the maestro, describing the plots and music of the principal operas belonging to each style. An entertaining account is given of Verdi's home life at Sant' Agata, and the key to his longevity is found in his habit of rising early, working in the garden, and living chiefly on cheese and eggs. Verdi, it seems, cares little for music at home, and seldom visits the opera save for business purposes. To the critic Filippi he once wrote: "At St. Agata we neither make nor talk about music; you will run the risk of finding a piano not only out of tune, but very likely without strings." He hates to "talk shop" or to be asked musical questions. Cards and billiards are his chief indoor amusements, and in the evening he reads chiefly poetry and philosophy.

It is somewhat difficult to conjecture for what class of readers Mr. Henderson's book was written. While not obscure to one who knows at least as much as he does, it is in many places altogether too technical and pedantic to be of any use to an amateur who needs to be told what good music is. He tells us, for instance, that "the listener to a fugue should identify the Subject and watch for the Answer. He should note whether it is direct or inverted, or whether it has been augmented or diminished. At the same time he should hear the Countersubject and bear it in mind." Such remarks are intelligible only to students of harmony, and for them they are superfluous. Mr. Henderson labors under the delusion—which mars his whole book—that "the person who desires to cultivate a taste in music ought to be acquainted first of all with musical form and the history of music." You might as well say that a person who wishes to cultivate a taste in poetry must first of all learn the rules and subtleties of poetic construction. Not one reader of poetry in a thousand knows them, nor does he need to know them unless he intends to write poetry himself.

In a lucid moment Mr. Henderson himself admits that "more than ninety-nine out of every hundred critics err in judgment of a thing wholly new in music, because the majority of them base their judgments almost entirely on form and style." Precisely so. The general public, ignorant of the rules of musical form, knew "what is good music" when it heard Wagner and Liszt long before the critics and other experts in form did. Seriously to attribute to Liszt the remark (p. 156), "Three things are necessary to make a great pianist—First, technic; second, *technic;* and third, TECHNIC," is to show an amazing misconception of Liszt's genius and character. As a matter of fact, he seldom paid any attention whatever to the technique of his pupils, taking that for granted, and bestowing all his attention on interpretation, style, and expression. Mr. Henderson has a good deal to say about Paderewski and his art, yet can write (p. 171) that "Bach, Beethoven, and Schumann are better tests of a player's ability than the astonishing works of Liszt." This shows a startling lacuna in our author's knowledge of "what is good music."

'How Music Came to Be What It Is' is somewhat similar in scope to Mr. Henderson's book (having chapters on the piano, orchestra, oratorio, etc.), but it is more useful because it is intelligible throughout to beginners. It is simply a compilation of facts regarding acoustics, the history of music, the evolution of instruments, the "schools" of various countries, etc.; but the facts are so judiciously selected and so clearly grouped that the book can be highly commended. It is freely illustrated with examples in musical type, and pictures of obsolete forms of instruments. In view of the fact that the late Anton Seidl was often criticised by pedants for daring to infuse dramatic life into Beethoven's works, it is interesting to find (p. 191) the following citation from what Beethoven's friend Schindler wrote regarding that great composer; he laid the greatest stress on musical declamation, "for," said he, "although the poet in his monologue or dialogue follows a regular and definite rhythm, yet as the actor or reciter, to insure a perfect comprehension of the meaning of the poem, makes rests and pauses even where the poet would not venture to indicate them, so must a player employ his art of declamation in his performance of the music." "Almost any mature work of Beethoven," justly adds Miss Smith, "reveals this dramatic element"; and it was that element which Anton Seidl always emphasized, in accordance with Beethoven's intentions.

Less than a year ago a girl of seventeen wrote a book on Wagner's "Ring of the Nibelung" under the title of 'The Story of Rheingold,' which was cordially commended in this journal. The Harpers have now added a companion volume by the same author, with the title 'Wonder Tales from Wagner,' which is dedicated "to the children who may hear Richard Wagner's operas, in the hope of aiding them to understand those masterpieces." It tells the stories of five operas—"The Flying Dutchman," "Tannhäuser," "Lohengrin," "Tristan and Isolde," and "Die Meistersinger." There is also a short preface discussing the sources of Wagner's legendary material. While this book is primarily intended for young folks, adults will find it most interesting. Miss Chapin has a remarkable talent for converting a drama into a story and telling it logically and fascinatingly. In some places great ingenuity is shown in overcoming perplexing details. It would not be strange if Miss Chapin should some day make her mark as an original story-teller.

Through Finland in Carts. By Mrs. Alec Tweedie. The Macmillan Co.

The reader of this very entertaining travel narrative need not despair if he seems to be rather long in coming to the carts which figure in the title. As a matter of fact, only two hundred miles of the journey were covered in that manner, while the other means of locomotion ranged from ordinary steamers to phenomenally slow Finnish railway trains, and even a tar-boat down dangerous rapids and through hair-breadth escapes of the most exciting character. Mrs. Tweedie and her sister were provided with good introductions, and accompanied by an accomplished Finnish lady. They were thus enabled to see many things, and to obtain many privileges, which the ordinary traveller who shall accept the author's enthusiastic recommendation to spend the summer there, will sadly lack. Without similar facilities, it is doubtful whether he could reach or enjoy the happy hunting and fishing-grounds which abound in that archipelagic land of islands and lakes, as the language is, of itself, a very formidable obstacle. Every noun has sixteen cases, and the suffixes vary so much that the original nominative becomes almost unrecognizable.

While professing to write merely a sketch of a pleasant summer trip, Mrs. Tweedie has thoughtfully added much interesting information about the products, education, and general statistics of Finland, very properly taking her facts from the best available sources, and duly crediting them. Thus, she quotes the educational report prepared for the Chicago Exposition, and gives long extracts from Mr. Crawford's translation of the Finnish Epic, the 'Kalevala,' to illustrate the antiquity of contemporary customs and beliefs. One striking point lies in the identity of many customs and institutions with those of Russia, from the vapor bath up and down the scale. Had the author been aware of this resemblance, she might have utilized her opportunities to settle the question as to whether one people borrowed from the other, which, and at what date. But she is, evidently, not familiar with Russia, despite the description of a baptism and the attendant ceremonies which she witnessed in St. Petersburg. It is not apparent whether her usually keen powers of observation failed her on that occasion, or whether the errors in that description and her assertions arose from an attempt to reproduce from memory something seen on a distant former occasion. The requisite and accurate knowledge, if applied to the ques-

tion of customs and the like, might lead to interesting results.

But there is enough of interest without that: the vivid account of a visit to the Russian monastery of Vaalam, and the meeting with the young novice there; the great Musical Festival at Sordavala (corresponding to the Welsh Eisteddfod), and the Runo singers; the baths in an ingeniously diverted waterfall; the trip to Uleaborg on one of the boats used for carrying tar-barrels, to which reference has already been made; the pictures of peasant life (as well as of high life), and of the cottages and equipments. Unfortunately, there are two drawbacks to the enticing picture of sport and splendid sunsets, novelty and hospitality; and the author frankly confesses it. In high life, the almost invisibly small midges render existence a burden, and in low life, insects nameless and otherwise, but innumerable, torture and disgust the non-native. Warned by their own experiences in Finland and by the counsels of their Finnish friends, Mrs. Tweedie and her sister abandoned their intention to explore Lapland, which even Finns pronounced unapproachable in summer because of the insects.

The volume is so full of miscellaneous information concerning trees, fruits, food, and the daily needs and pleasures, that quotation is impossible. There is not a dull page in it, and the style is very well adapted to the needs of such a book, which must combine the useful with the agreeable. Mrs. Tweedie is an experienced traveller, and readily adapts herself to circumstances—which in this case mean, chiefly, remarkable and very bad beds, ranging from the unaired box-bed of the peasant to makeshifts in ruined castles or the top of an antiquated spinet. Whether other travellers will be content to run the risk of similar or worse accommodations for the sake of sunsets, air, and scenery, and overrun Finland in the summer, remains to be seen. It seems probable that, as heretofore, Hango and Helsingfors, for their baths, Imatra for its waterfall, Terioki as a diplomatic resort, and the Finnish suburbs of St. Petersburg will continue the most frequented places, despite their lack of novelty.

The Story of the Palatines: An Episode in Colonial History. By Sanford H. Cobb. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

To unravel the strands woven into that variegated fabric which we call the American people is a fascinating employment, and Mr. Cobb has selected a thread which has hitherto been generally overlooked. Prof. Baird's great work has shown how the Huguenots were driven to this country by religious intolerance, and it is largely to the same cause that the emigration of the "Pennsylvania Dutch" was due. These immigrants, Mr. Cobb contends, were chiefly from the Palatinate; they were at all events generally called here Palatines. It is not, however, the story of the Pennsylvania settlers that is told in this book. Its subject is the fortunes of that smaller band of which traces are to be found along the banks of the Hudson and Mohawk Rivers and in the region of Schoharie. Although this immigration has attracted little attention, it was at the time on a larger scale than any other, and was perhaps the most systematic attempt at colonization made by the English Government.

The merciless harrying of the Palatinate by Louis XIV. forced the inhabitants to seek other homes, and, partly through the influence of land speculators who had obtained patents in America, some of the outflow was turned in this direction. It took its course through England, induced by the strong Protestant feeling of that country and its Naturalization Act of 1708; and in the records of the Board of Trade for that year there appears the petition of the Rev. Joshua Kockerthal on behalf of himself and some other "poor Lutherans, come hither from the lower Palatinate, praying to be transferred to some of your Majesty's plantations in America; in number 41, viz.: 10 men, 10 women, and 21 children; in the utmost want, being reduced to this miserable condition by the ravages committed by the French when they lost all they had." This petition was favorably acted on, and resulted in the settlement of Kockerthal's party, somewhat enlarged, in what is now Newburgh on the Hudson. Most of this party removed presently to Pennsylvania.

In the year 1709, it is asserted, no less than 13,000 of these Palatines had arrived in England, where they were treated with great liberality by the rulers, and in the Parish of Newington, at the west of London, four buildings were erected for their shelter which are yet known as "the Palatine Houses." Some of the immigrants enlisted in the British army, some were colonized in Ireland, but the majority were transported to America at the expense of the Government. Of these, some were established in North Carolina, and their descendants are numerous at New Berne; but nearly 3,000 of them were brought to New York, under the auspices of Gov. Hunter. It is with the fortunes of this colony that Mr. Cobb is chiefly concerned. We must content ourselves with noting that, after some expensive attempts to induce them to make tar for the English marine out of a species of pine not productive of that article, they were allowed to shift for themselves. For his part in this attempt to establish a valuable industry (which cost him his fortune), Gov. Hunter receives much praise from Mr. Cobb; and in spite of the hardships of the colonists, they probably fared better than most of the immigrants of that period.

Discontented with their lot in their first locations, at what were known as the West Camp and the East Camp, near Saugerties and on the Livingston Manor, and infatuated with the notion of a mythical grant to them by an Indian chief of the country of "Scorie," many of them emigrated to that region and the Mohawk valley. After much quarrelling over land titles, some of them departed to Pennsylvania; others made terms with their landlords, and their posterity are numerous in those parts. Of this stock was the sturdy Gen. Herkimer (Erghimer), and from it, by intermarriage, the Muhlenbergs and other distinguished families have sprung. It would be interesting to recount these names, and those of the towns and villages along the Mohawk and elsewhere which were taken directly from the Palatinate, but we must refer the curious in such matters to Mr. Cobb's book. Much of it is conjectural history, and there are many points on which light remains to be thrown; but it is a meritorious essay in a field which deserves more exploration than it has received.

La France d'après les Cahiers de 1789. Par Edme Champion. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 1897.

The name of M. Edme Champion is already familiar to students of the history of the French Revolution. He is one of the scholars associated with the greatest living authority upon the period, M. F. A. Aulard, and has edited for the publications of the Society for the History of the French Revolution a useful reprint of the Abbé Sieyès's famous pamphlet, "Qu'est-ce que le tiers état?" and, in coöperation with M. Brette, a facsimile of the celebrated "Oath of the Tennis-Court." His competent knowledge of the preliminaries of the French Revolution caused him to be intrusted by MM. Lavisse and Rambaud with the composition of the first chapter in the volume upon the French Revolution in the great 'Histoire Générale,' now being issued under their direction. For this chapter M. Champion made a complete study of the *cahiers* which were drawn up in every electoral assembly at the time of the elections to the States-General in 1789. The scale of the "Histoire Générale" did not allow him to do more than indicate the results of his studies, and he has now wisely concluded to publish them in a volume.

The cahiers of 1789 form a unique mass of documentary information as to the condition of France on the eve of the Revolution, and the ideals of reform which animated the men who elected the States-General that was destined, as the Constituent Assembly, to give to France the Constitution of 1791. More than three-quarters of the cahiers are, according to M. Champion, accessible either in the seven first volumes of the 'Archives Parlementaires,' or in separate publications, but they have up to the present time been more often alluded to than read. Two opposite views have been propounded as to their value. One school of writers has pointed out that most of the cahiers were not the real expression of the complaints and wishes of the French electors, as they purported to be, but were largely copies of printed models, with a few local additions; while the opposite view regards all the cahiers as the unbiassed expression of the sentiments of the French people. Both positions are partly true. It is only necessary to read a very few of the cahiers to see a degree of sameness in their language which betrays the use of common models. But, on the other hand, some of them, especially those drawn up in the rural primary assemblies and by the guilds of the towns, bear unmistakable marks of originality. We know from other sources that many cahiers were written by individuals and accepted by the electoral assemblies, of which the most famous is the cahier of the cobblers of Arras, drawn up by Robespierre, then a young lawyer in the capital of Artois. It is difficult to allow fairly for the influence of models and individuals upon the cahiers, and M. Champion has perhaps done wisely in taking the cahiers as they stand, without investigating their origin too closely, as the basis of his work. But it must not be forgotten that this question of origin diminishes the value of any attempt to draw general conclusions, for seeming unanimity throughout the cahiers of a province or provinces may indicate nothing more than the use of a common model.

M. Champion approaches his work as a fervent admirer of the French Revolution,

as might be expected from the school of thinkers and writers to which he belongs, and he therefore naturally finds in the cahiers grounds for a sweeping condemnation of the old régime. But it must be borne in mind that an analysis of the cahiers from the point of view of an admirer of that régime could be made to bring out very different results. One special point may be alluded to, the strong provincial and local patriotism which existed in the France of the eighteenth century, and which finds such abundant illustration in the cahiers, as analyzed by M. Champion. In the face of this widespread sentiment, the student of the Revolution cannot but feel once more how great was the work done by the Constituent Assembly in breaking down the old provincial distinctions, and in creating a united France, divided only for administrative convenience into departments, in the place of the former congeries of provinces which called itself the kingdom of France.

A Handbook of European History, 476-1871. Chronologically arranged. By Arthur Hassall, M.A. Macmillan. 1897.

Of the 383 pages which make up this volume, 360 pages (about one-fourth of which space is left blank by virtue of the arrangement of the matter) are devoted to a synchronological table of European history from the fall of the Western Roman Empire to the close of the late Franco-German war. The remainder of the book consists of summaries, genealogies, and lists of sovereigns. The author offers no apology for breaking off his record with the year 1871. To truncate a structure like the one before us in this manner is materially to impair its utility, a condensed chronological view of recent events being especially a desideratum with students and readers. In addition to the tables contained in Part II., the body of the book is generously interspersed with genealogical matter, arranged in diagrams, which will serve to unravel many a knotted thread drawn through the tangled warp of mediæval and modern history. We are furnished, for example, with genealogical data regarding the Breton succession, the houses of Burgundy and Orleans, the house of Saxony, the dynasty of Wittelsbach, the Simmern line in the Palatinate, the house of Guise, and the line of Holstein-Gottorp.

The 180 double pages which the "Outlines of European History" occupy are divided each into four columns, the two inner being only half as wide as the exterior. Beginning with the middle of the ninth century, the four columns (from left to right) are respectively headed "Germany," "Eastern and Southern Europe" (to which, after the close of the sixteenth century, "Northern Europe" is added), "England," and "France." For the preceding period the fourth column bears the heading "Franks," the first is devoted to other Teutonic tribes, the second is assigned to the Eastern Empire, while the caption "England" naturally runs through the entire table. The principal space, it will be seen, is allotted to Germany and France, which occupy the wide columns. A synoptical table of political history like the present has unquestionably its uses. It serves as a matrix to hold together for the student the facts he has gathered, and supplies him at every step with a background, which enables him to view in better perspective the objects of his special study. Minuteness in such a presentation is rather a defect than a virtue, and our author, whose endeavor has been "merely to bring into prominence the leading facts in the history of the principal states," does not altogether live up to his professions, allowing many an insignificant fact to crop up in his chronicle.

Regarding this volume merely in the light of a companion in one's studies and readings, and not as a source of information, it might perhaps be unfair to hold the compiler to an ideal standard of accuracy; but the shortcomings on this score of Mr. Hassall's rather pretentious work would be too much even for the most lenient critic. To begin with the last page, we encounter such mistakes or misprints as Oct. 23 for the capitulation of Bazaine (Oct. 27), Feb. 2 for the meeting of the National Assembly at Bordeaux (Feb. 12), and Jan. 1 for the proclamation of William's imperial dignity (Jan. 18). Turning one leaf, we find the declaration of papal infallibility antedated by exactly one year. We do not mean to say, however, that the book is as faulty as this throughout. Of course, Mr. Hassall has not avoided the pitfalls which the Gregorian Calendar prepared for chronologists and encyclopædists, apparently for all time. The battles of the Boyne, La Hogue, Neerwinden, and Ramillies are entered according to the old style, and Steenkerk, Blenheim, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet according to the new. The volume teems with inadequate and infelicitous expressions. The Cuban insurrection "continues" in 1869, but no mention is made under 1868 of its having broken out. The death of Prim is entered without any hint of assassination, and the annexation of the Papal States to the kingdom of Italy is given without any mention of the dramatic *coup* of September 20. Under 1241 we read that "a Mongol invasion of Russia, Poland, and Hungary takes place." The Russians had had their share of the Asiatics before the year 1241 opened, the yoke of the Golden Horde having been fastened upon them in 1240. In spite of the generous scale on which this chronological table has been compiled, events of great importance have been overlooked, as, for example, the conquest of Rhodes by the Turks, and the battle of Mars-la-Tour. The book has the merit of considerable fulness of characterization and description, and the student who is not too particular about the style, and can stand the exasperating alternation of the historical present and the past (often in the same sentence), may spend an occasional half-hour over this attractively printed duodecimo pleasantly and not without profit.

The Life of Philip Schaff. In part autobiographical. By David S. Schaff, D.D., Professor of Church History in Lane Theological Seminary. With portraits. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897.

The bias of his filial piety has not prevented Dr. Schaff's biographer from making a good book, and one which does not exaggerate the importance of his father's work as a scholar or his personal influence. The material was such as lent itself to the uses of the biographer better than the dull round of a scholar's life generally does. Particularly interesting are Dr. Philip Schaff's reminiscences of his early education in the German universities—an education which broadened his intellectual sympathies to an eminent degree. He described himself as "a Swiss by birth, a German by education, and an American by choice." His first ambition was to be a soldier, his second to be a poet, his third and last to be a theologian; and this prefigured a remarkable success. His reminiscences of university life afford interesting glimpses of the giants of those days when Baur and Ewald and Strauss were at Tübingen, Tholuck was at Halle, and Neander and the redoubtable Hengstenberg were at Berlin. Young Schaff made trial of them all. Had he begun at Berlin with Hengstenberg and ended at Tübingen with Baur, his whole life would probably have been different. As it was, Tholuck and Neander did much to efface the impression that Baur made upon his mind. In happy contrast with the conventionally orthodox estimate of Baur, he wrote of him in 1888, "He was a great genius, a theological genius of the first order. What a stir he made in theological circles, and what a mighty impetus he gave to critical and theological investigation!" Dr. Schaff credits Baur with his first idea of theological development in Christian history. The picture of Ewald is a striking one: "He always spoke and wrote with oracular self-assurance, as if he himself had been consulted by Moses and the prophets, by the Elohist, Jahvist, Deuteronomist, and other writers of the Pentateuch, real or invented, before they composed their chapters." "He had no humor, but an unlimited amount of sarcasm." He denounced Baur as "no Christian, only a common literary Jew." It was in perfect keeping with his general character that in 1848 he wrote a public letter to the Pope, calling on him to resign his office, and that, the Pope not answering, he said, "He doesn't dare to!"

At the conclusion of his university studies, Dr. Schaff served a brief term as *privatdocent* at Berlin, having several Americans of subsequent repute among his pupils. One of these, Park of Andover, first brought Jonathan Edwards to his attention; and when, in 1854, Herzog wanted a writer on Edwards for his 'Encyclopædia,' Dr. Schaff suggested Park or Stowe; and "He chose Dr. Stowe on account of the fame of his wife's 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.'" In 1843 Dr. Schaff came to America and entered on the duties of a professorship at Mercersburg, Pa., in a theological school belonging to the German Reformed Church. He soon found himself in hot water. His inaugural address upon "The Protestant Principle" was denounced as heretical, and he was made subject to a trial for heresy, but was finally acquitted. Perhaps it was easier to regard him as a Romanizing Puseyite because he had paid Pusey a visit in England. The trouble was that he conceived the Roman Church to be a branch of the true vine, and no mere "scarlet woman" nor the Pope "a son of perdition." Dr. Schaff's heresy is now a commonplace in the German Reformed Church, though for a long time it was known as "the Mercersburg theology."

His next battle was with those who would keep the Germans German in America, and to that end enforce the habitual use of the German language in education and religion. Dr. Schaff came to America hoping to return and lead a university life in Germany, but his identification with America was finally complete. He fought a good fight for the Americanization of German Americans, though fully appreciating the sentiment of the elderly German woman who,

hearing him preach in German, as he did for a long time, said to him, "English is like cold water poured on my heart; German is like balsam." During his last years in Mercersburg, the seat of war moved into his vicinity, and the situation was sometimes critical, and sometimes the classrooms served as the wards of a hospital for wounded soldiers.

Resigning his professorship in 1863, he took up his residence in New York, but it was not until 1870 that he was made professor of church history in the Union Theological Seminary, where he would strike into the student's recitation, go on indefinitely, and then applaud the student's good success. He formally connected himself with the Presbyterians, explaining in advance his objections to the Westminster Confession, but finding the terms of subscription liberal enough to satisfy his scruples. Later he was one of the most prominent among those who contended vainly for the revision of the Confession. He never identified himself with the Presbyterian body as he had identified himself with the German Reformed, but devoted himself to the unification of the Christian Church. On this line he was the moving spirit of the Evangelical Alliance at its meeting in New York. His leadership was equally conspicuous in the revision of the English Bible. He was the chairman of the American Board of Revision, and did much to consummate its final relation with the English board on a basis of decent equality. A visit to the German universities in 1885 afforded him a good opportunity to compare the professorate of that date with that of his own youth. He wrote of Dr. Briggs as no more a heretic than himself, but lacking the *suaviter in modo*, having which he would offend no one except "old fogies who believe in the infallibility of John Calvin." Writing of Calvin and Servetus he concluded, "Heresy is an error; intolerance is a sin; persecution is a crime." It was only natural that he should be deeply interested in the Chicago Parliament of Religions. Warned by his physicians not to go, he said, "If I die, I want to die in the Parliament of Religions." But, once there, he had not strength to read his elaborate plea for Christian unity.

His theological labors were immense, and a list of the books he wrote and edited and his other publications makes an appendix of eight pages. Among these publications was a 'History of the Christian Church' in seven volumes, 'The Creeds of Christendom' in three, and other things quite as voluminous. His influence, as a whole, made definitely for breadth of scholarship and liberal religious sentiment, while the personality behind the theologian is an attractive one from first to last.

Indian Frontier Warfare. By Brevet-Major G. J. Younghusband. [The Wolseley Series.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 8vo, pp. xvi, 264, with maps.

English military operations in Northern India, Afghanistan, and Burmah are very unlike those in Europe, and have many points of resemblance to our army work in this country. A mountain country, forest-covered, with no roads, and great distances between posts, with snow blockades on the high passes, and with wild tribes, brave but irregularly organized, to contend with, are conditions that are duplicated along our Rocky Mountain ranges. The jungles of Burmah, with their malarial, fever-and-cholera-stricken climate and tropical heats, would only too closely resemble the obstacles to campaigning in Cuba, should it be the fate of our army to operate in that island.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 21, 1898.

The Week.

The Senate resolutions, as modified and then assented to by the House, implicitly take from the President not only the power of recognizing foreign nations, but of commanding the army. The first resolution declares that the people of Cuba are free and independent. The second directly addresses a demand ("hereby") to a foreign government to abandon a portion of its territory, and to send away its naval forces from a certain portion of the ocean. In other words, it takes without the least hesitation the position of the French Directory in 1793. The third resolution "directs" the President as General of the United States forces to carry this ridiculous and un-American resolution into effect, apparently without any communication to the foreign government of what is going to happen to it. After this, all discussion of the grammar of the resolutions would be ridiculous. It would be like descanting on the want of courtesy of a man who had just committed a murder. The majority of the Senate to which we owe this lawlessness is made up of the very same class of persons who caused a panic in 1893 by opposition to the silver legislation, and have since supported the Bryan movement for a silver currency and for general disorganization of the government. In short, we are now suffering most seriously for having years ago admitted to the Senate a most dangerous class as representatives of morally fictitious States. This class have for years been engaged in the use of their legislative powers for purposes of pecuniary speculation. There is very little respect felt in the community for their character, there is none at all for their minds. Their resolutions have the air of having been written either by men who hate the American Government and wish to use their power to throw it into confusion, or by foreigners who are unacquainted with our Constitution, or question the force of its provisions.

The politics in this war business becomes clearer every day. Senator Hale of Maine gave expression to the feeling which prevails among Republicans as to what their party is to get out of it when he said on Saturday that, "if war must needs come, its conduct will not be in the hands of the Democratic party; it will not be by the Democratic party that the flag of the United States will be borne; that great soldier and statesman, the President of the United States, will conduct the war and bring it to a successful end, and Senators, many of whom to-day have been free with their comments and criticisms of the President, when we are found in the situation that war is upon us, will be found opposing and impeding and obstructing *the march of the President and the Republican party* and of all good, conservative citizens in carrying on that war." Senator Platt of New York is even franker about the matter. After saying that war seemed "inevitable," and that there would be compensations for its horrors in the burial of the animosities growing out of the civil war and in the enthusiastic union of the people, he "came right down to business" in this final statement as to the great compensation for war: "It would prevent the Democratic party from going into the next Presidential campaign with 'Free Cuba' and 'Free Silver' emblazoned on its banner, and prevent the possibility of Populistic success in 1900."

On the other hand, the free-silverites see advantage for their cause in war. One of these men in the Senate is said to have served notice on the Administration men that any bond issue which may be authorized must call for payment in silver. This announcement is represented to have "somewhat staggered the Republican sound-money men," one of whom asked, "Do you mean to say that at this critical juncture you would force the President to either veto or to sign a measure that is absolutely against his every principle?" The reply, "delivered in the firmest manner," is reported to have been: "Yes, if any act is passed authorizing the issuance of bonds, it must provide for their payment in silver." Senator Teller of Colorado is quoted as saying that he does not think that the silverites would insist upon making bonds payable in silver, being content to have the word "coin" used, but that they will not consent to the issue of any bonds except in the last emergency. Before resorting to bonds, he would have the Government "coin the silver in the Treasury that secures the Treasury notes"—about $100,000,000 at its cost price—and inflate the currency by the "issue of Treasury certificates redeemable in coin at the pleasure of the Government, which would not draw interest, and the Government could float them just as easily as bonds, and get all the money it needs." Such is the inviting financial prospect in face of war that is held out before us by the element which controls the United States Senate.

Congressman Boutelle of Maine deserves the warmest commendation from all right-minded men for the fine display of good sense and courage which he made when the Cuban resolutions came before the House on Wednesday week. Mr. Boutelle regarded these resolutions as altogether too radical, and tried to get a vote on an amendment making them much milder, but was refused an opportunity, whereupon he voted against their adoption. The reasons for his course are well stated in a Washington dispatch to his newspaper, the Bangor *Whig and Courier*. Spain had conceded nearly every one of our demands, and seemed plainly disposed to full concessions in the near future. The radical Jingoes in the House and Senate had insisted on incorporating in the resolutions a demand for the entire overthrow of Spain's relations to Cuba, notwithstanding the risk that such a declaration would be regarded as a menace by all the great Powers having large colonial possessions, and might incline them to sympathy with Spain instead of with us as hitherto. "They also seem determined to render it impossible that peace and our demands shall be attained through the efforts now making by the other nations." It required a great deal of independence and courage for a Republican Congressman to take such a position, in which he was supported by only one member of his party, Representative Johnson of Indiana. But Mr. Boutelle has the honor of having been the one Representative in the House to stand out against the Jingo wave which swept over that body when President Cleveland sent in his Venezuelan message two years ago last winter.

The people who are gayly talking of war with Spain as an agreeable diversion for thirty days will do well to read the views of Gen. George W. Wingate, who has had experience in an official position in the National Guard of this State. The picture which he draws of the militia of the nation as a whole is not an attractive one, and the lack of proper equipment and discipline in the forces of many Western States accentuates the absurdity of the eagerness for war reported to prevail in that part of the country. As bearing on this same question, what Gen. Wingate says as to the feeling among the National Guard regarding an invasion of Cuba—taking it for granted that the President could constitutionally send militia out of the country—is very interesting. "It may be," he says, "that the National Guard of the South and West is anxious to constitute a part of such an invading force, but no such desire exists among the National Guard in this section. On the contrary, the feeling among them is pronounced that, while they are ready to instantly respond to a call for service any-

where in the United States, without regard to the sacrifices which they will have to make in leaving their business and families, service as a part of such an invading army, and at this unhealthy season of the year, is one which should not be asked of them." By the way, does anybody happen to know people who are anxious to enlist as volunteers and invade Cuba at the opening of the wet season and the period for the yellow-fever epidemic?

The "rights of the militia" are engaging the attention of the War Department. It is conceded that the militia, whether organized or not, cannot be called out by the President for a war which does not come under the head of insurrection, invasion, or to enforce the laws of the United States. For the purposes of a war in Cuba only such members of the militia as should volunteer could be used. If in the course of a war in or about Cuba Spain should invade us, the President could lawfully call out the militia. It has been held by the courts also that the President may call out the militia if he sees preparations for invasion; but they can be used only to repel the invasion. On the false pretence that Mexico had invaded us in 1846, President Polk authorized Gen. Taylor to call for the services of two regiments of the militia of Louisiana, expressly to repel that invasion. It has been held by the courts, also, that in a case of doubt whether the country is in danger of invasion or not, the judgment of the President is decisive. As the power to decide must be lodged somewhere, and must be exercised in a summary manner, it must necessarily be in the President. It is not conceivable, however, that it should be exercised to call out the militia to invade a country separated from us by the ocean.

Don Francisco Silvela in the *Figaro* advances some views as to Spain's course which seem to have a certain weight. Señor Silvela, we may remark, is the present head of the Conservative party of Spain, likely to be the next Prime Minister, and is a man whose opinions as to "what Spain will do" are at least worthy of mention in the same breath with wisdom about Spain derived from the American inner consciousness. Well, Silvela declares in the first place, that all parties in Spain are absolutely united in defence of Spanish sovereignty over Cuba. The Conservatives place themselves absolutely at Sagasta's disposal. They accept his plan of autonomy for Cuba, and, if they should be called to power, would consider "all that has been granted to the Cubans as a part of the Conservative policy." At any rate, the Government is certain of the heartiest support of the Conservative party in this Cuban matter, whether the result be an honorable peace or a war forced upon Spain. And if it comes to war, says Señor Silvela, it is a great mistake to say that Spain will be prevented from fighting by financial weakness. Her resources are by no means exhausted. Many a long contest has Spain sustained in the past without money, and she will do it again if necessary. Finally, Silvela's account of the "dynastic" argument is somewhat different from the accepted American version. This may prove that it is necessarily wrong, but we can at least afford to listen, with a superior smile, to what Señor Silvela has to say. Asked if a serious disaster in war would not endanger the Spanish monarchy, he replied: "Not at all. The Queen Regent has the entire confidence of the Spanish nation. . . . Besides, everybody sees that the fall of the dynasty would be the most remediless of calamities. The army, you may take my word for it, will be immovable in its loyalty."

The notion that war will bring business prosperity has been chilled by reports coming in from all quarters of the cancellation of orders for goods and of the prospective closing of mills. The first blow falls upon the producers of textile goods, because people can wear their old clothes longer than they had intended to. Each man and woman begins to economize, and finds it easier to economize in clothing than in anything else that can be classed among the necessaries of life. It is most desirable that the public mind should be rid of the crude conception that bloodshed and the destruction of property are good for trade. It took its start here during the civil war. A few speculators, contractors, and gold gamblers got rich. They kept themselves in evidence by vulgar display. They filled the public eye and gave an impression that the country was getting rich also. Meanwhile, the laboring classes were either fighting at wages of thirteen dollars per month, payable in depreciated currency, or working for less money, reckoned at gold value, than they received before. They were helped by soup kitchens more or less, but their groans were drowned by the roar of battle. When a national fallacy like the one under consideration takes root, it can be dislodged only by experience such as we are beginning to have. The fair form of prosperity which was rising out of the clouds of the past five years is, we fear, again sinking beneath them.

It has been evident, since the beginning of the present "war scare," that the mainstay of the financial situation was this country's enormous credit fund on international account, piled up as a result of our unprecedentedly heavy export trade. So long as our money market continued easy, the foreign obligations on this account were met by borrowing on the American market. When, on the other hand, our markets grew uneasy, and banks felt the need of strengthening their cash reserves against a conceivable emergency, the settlement of these foreign dues was called for—resulting in the fifty to sixty million dollars of gold importations in the last eight weeks. Since the merchandise trade account has played so prominent a part in this extraordinary operation, the Government's report of our foreign trade for March, published on Thursday, is of peculiar interest. The statement is sufficiently interesting in itself. It shows another heavy increase in our exports and another heavy decrease in our imports; both changes being of such magnitude that the month's excess of merchandise exports over imports reaches $51,310,000, against an excess of only $10,930,000 in March of 1897, and of no more than $3,225,000 in 1892, after the heavy grain crop of the previous season. For the nine completed months of the fiscal year, the export excess reaches the remarkable sum of $470,961,000, exceeding by $147,548,000 the record for the same nine months last year, which was even then unparalleled in our history.

A telegram from Jamaica says that there has been an assembling of British war-ships at Jamaica with the purpose of enforcing the neutrality of that island in the event of war between the United States and Spain. The important statement is made also that coal will not be considered contraband of war, but will be sold to any purchaser, Spanish or American, and that when war-ships of opposing belligerents are in British ports they will not be allowed to depart within twenty-four hours of each other. These rules are to remain in force in Jamaica unless specific instructions to the contrary are received from the home Government. It is important to note that coal has never been made contraband of war, either by treaty or by the consensus of nations. The general law of contraband, as stated by Woolsey, is that "nothing can be justly regarded as contraband unless so regarded by the law of nations or by express convention between certain parties, and that the definition of contraband must be clear and positive." In other words, all articles not clearly and positively defined as contraband may be freely bought and sold. As coal is not one of these articles, the Spanish cruisers may obtain supplies from either British or French islands in the West Indies, and we may do the same, subject to such regulations as their respective Governments may prescribe. As both of those Powers are strong enough to enforce such regulations as they make, it may turn out, contrary to our expectations,

that, in the event of war, Spain will have as convenient and abundant supplies of coal as ourselves.

Mr. Wayne McVeagh has raised his voice in denunciation of the corruption which rules in Pennsylvania, and in advocacy of a popular revolution against it. A reception was tendered the ex-Attorney-General by the Civil-Service-Reform Association of Philadelphia last week, and he made a speech in which he discussed the political conditions existing in the city and State, which "have reached a point where we ought all to agree, whether we support or oppose them, that they represent purely and simply in their last analysis government by bribery and corruption only." Discussing the question of a remedy, Mr. McVeagh expressed the opinion that "it is not to be found in furnishing additional evidence of the bribery and corruption admitted by everybody to exist, nor in pursuing the poorer victims of the degraded and sordid atmosphere with which we have surrounded them," and declared that "we ought not to blame them as much as ourselves," adding: "The receiver of stolen goods can hold up his head in his church, his club, his board of directors, his lawyer's office, or among his acquaintances, as the receiver of property or franchises or contracts stolen from the people by the bribery of their public servants." Summing up the whole matter, Mr. McVeagh reached "the homely conclusion that there is no remedy for wrong-doing but doing right, and the only hope of the purification of our public service in this city and State is in the growth of the public sentiment which will make it odious, uncomfortably odious, for anybody hereafter to be found in possession of property wrongfully taken from the people, or property indirectly taken by bribery and corruption."

In their deliverance on Thursday, the Pennsylvania Civil-Service-Reform Association pointed out that, while the President has done well in regard to the execution of the civil-service law, he has done ill in regard to such places as are not covered by that law. It refers to the open avowal of his intention to make appointments to Federal positions in the various States upon the recommendation of their Senators and Representatives, and traces the results of applying this principle to the heads of the Government offices in Philadelphia. "All of these have now been changed," it proceeds, "and it is perfectly fair to say that in not one instance has the old incumbent been dismissed or the new one appointed for the good of the service, or with the intention of filling the office with a more honest or more capable official than the man who was already there." Nor is this the worst that is to be said. The new postmaster is charged with "treating with little effect his obligations to the laws of his country, and trying, in defiance of those laws, to turn the office over which he presides into a machine for rewarding and punishing political friends and enemies"; and with having "practically nullified the order of President McKinley by reducing men against whom no charges had been made from high positions to lower ones, appointing to the vacant places, in some instances, men who are alleged to have been unfit for the positions." It appears that a full statement of these cases, with charges of other violations of official duty, has been made up by a committee of the National Civil Service Reform League, which came to Philadelphia in order to investigate the management of the post-office, and has been placed by that committee in the hands of the President. The Association say that "the grave crisis through which the country is now passing may well prevent Mr. McKinley from giving this matter immediate attention, but we hope that ultimately he will take such action as will at least prevent a repetition of similar malfeasance."

The voters of Pennsylvania are assured an opportunity to vote for a man worthy to be Governor of their State by the Rev. Dr. S. C. Swallow's acceptance of his nomination for Governor by "the Honest Government party." His letter reads like the message of an old Hebrew prophet. In a few sentences he draws a vivid picture of the despotism which has been established in Pennsylvania, and which has rendered the State "a very Gibraltar of corruption, compared with which the England of Charles the First was the embodiment of virtue." He declares that the only hope of the State is to end this corrupt despotism, and he accepts leadership in the contest against it as a religious duty. The single plank in his platform is "Honest Government," and his rallying cry is, "Thou shalt not steal." Dr. Swallow finds the necessity for his own candidacy in the assurance that no man will be nominated by the Republicans who is not acceptable to Quay, and no man by the Democrats who is not acceptable to a Democratic boss who is controlled by Quay, while he rightly dismisses Mr. Wanamaker as unacceptable to the friends of honest government, both because he has declared himself against independent candidacy, and because he has declared "his past endorsement, by an unscratched ballot, of the vilest boss methods his forceful language could describe."

It is very unfortunate that the first enrolment of voters under the new primary law should take place in the very crisis of the war excitement. The dates fixed for it are April 15 to April 30, inclusive. During that period any voter who was registered last year may have his name enrolled as a member of a party in his election district by signing and acknowledging before a notary public a declaration that his intention is to support generally the nominees of that party at the next election, and sending the declaration to the Bureau of Elections. His name will then be put on the lists of voters entitled to take part in the primary elections. Declaration blanks can be obtained at the five borough offices of the Bureau of Elections. We are informed that the Republican machine district leaders are sending out circulars asking for the declarations to be sent to them for filing, and we are asked to warn Republican voters against following this advice, the suspicion being that the machine leaders would fail, for reasons of their own, to file the declarations of anti-machine Republicans. There are certainly grounds for this suspicion. The conduct of these leaders in the past justifies the worst view that can be taken of the uses they might make of any power over the enrolment which shall be intrusted to them. The only safe method for Republican voters to follow is to send their declarations direct to the Bureau of Elections or to the Committee of Fifty-three.

With the increasing intensity of protectionism in France, the successive symptoms of the disease, with which we have been made painfully familiar in this country, are manifesting themselves. One of the latest of them is a sudden fury against professors of political economy. They teach free trade, the scoundrels, while the country is committed to the policy of protection. This is doubly intolerable in France, because the same state which votes protective duties, votes the salaries of the teachers who are saying that protective duties are folly. What a horrible inconsistency that is. Nay, what a public crime, cries the *Société des Agriculteurs de France*, and resolves that henceforth the public instruction in political economy shall be "in harmony with the legislation of the state." The French are famous for logic, and this is strictly logical, it must be confessed. Only it will have to be applied to many subjects besides political economy. The professors will have to read the latest election returns and resolves of Parliament before being able to decide if they are to teach that it was the Catholics or the Huguenots who were slaughtered on St. Bartholomew's Day, that alcohol is a stimulant or a narcotic, and that the earth goes round the sun or the sun round the earth. When universal suffrage and the legislation of the state get full control of the universities, we shall see some strange chairs of learning strangely filled.

WAR OR PEACE.

The die seems now to have been cast. The issues of peace or war have been remitted to the President's hands. The only possible escape from some resort to force is apparently the surrender of Spain to the American demands. This, Congress, in its wisdom, has made as difficult for the Spaniards as possible. We cannot recall any case in history in which one civilized nation has addressed another in such language as the congressional resolution before hostilities have actually commenced. We cordially endorse the Philadelphia *Press's* judgment on them. It says:

> "But the Senate resolutions, even without the recognition of the insurgent Government, are untrue, illogical, inconsistent, self-contradictory, and self-stultifying. They will not bear intelligent analysis or examination."

To the President it now belongs to decide, as commander in chief of the army, when and where the war shall commence and in what manner and by what force it shall be carried on. He has been directed to get the Spaniards out of Cuba; but it is for him to decide when he shall resort to war, for this purpose, if at all. It will not be maintained, we trust, even by the Jingoes, that if the Spaniards offer to leave peaceably he is bound to attack them en route, although a good deal of the war talk would bear that interpretation. When the Spaniards discover that no prayers can pierce us, that we are determined to have a fight with them if we can, we cannot help believing that they will see that discretion is the better part of valor and find some way of escaping hostilities.

When the fighting begins, we must only hope that it will be short, sharp, and decisive. We are still of opinion that the dispute might have been ended —nay, may still be ended—without fighting at all. We could have tried the plan of autonomy which the Spaniards have offered to concede by perfectly peaceable means. The objection which has been made to this is, that the Spaniards cannot be trusted to keep their promises; that in four or five years they will withdraw what they concede, as they have often done before. The answer is that they have never before promised the withdrawal of their troops as part of the reform, and that they would find it impossible to go back to their old ways without soldiers. Moreover, it is, as we have often said, never too late to go to war. We could fight them just as well after they had broken their promises as now, if not better. What prevents our trying the autonomy plan is, in a very large degree, the desire of some of the Jingoes for a war, as one of them has said, "just or unjust, necessary or unnecessary, right or wrong." This is a painful confession for a civilized nation to make, but it must be made. It is an inevitable inference from the proceedings in Congress and the conduct of a portion of our press. It is the conclusion which the world at large now draws and which history will draw.

Spain is a third-rate and declining Power; we are one of the mightiest in the world. We shall never be able to "point with pride" to this war as we point to the Revolutionary war, or the war of the rebellion, or the war of 1812, when we engaged in contests which the world believed to be beyond our strength or resources. But the discredit of attacking a third-rate Power, be it small or great, will come nowhere near the discredit of our manner of getting ready for the contest. When one thinks of the blowing, the blatherskite, the mendacity of the most widely read portion of our press, of the steady fire of the lowest insults kept up against an adversary with whom we meant to engage in honorable, civilized warfare, by the Legislature of the nation, one involuntarily asks, Are there no gentlemen left in American public life?

We wish we could add that, now that we are approaching the stern arbitrament of war, we believe that lying will cease or diminish. But we can hold out no such prospect. War is preëminently a state of things in which all human vices flourish or are encouraged, especially the vice of mendacity. We must be prepared for its exhibition on a greater scale than ever before witnessed by mankind, incessant, monstrous, and perfectly shameless.

THE EDUCATION OF WAR.

The influence which is being exerted on Congressmen at this crisis by their constituents may be all summed up by saying that the poor and ignorant men, who are to be the greatest sufferers by it in the end, are in favor of war, while the well-to-do and intelligent, or, in other words, the employers of labor, the men who understand the conditions of business, write or telegraph in favor of peace. Side by side with this comes the news from the recruiting offices that the sound and able-bodied are not offering themselves for enlistment. Out of one hundred men who wished to join the army, in Philadelphia, only four could pass the surgeon. The contrast this presents with 1861, when the national heart was really stirred by the impending conflict, seems to indicate that the men who have value in the labor market do not want to go to Cuba to fight, and expect better times at home if other people can be got to go. They have swallowed the stories told by some of the newspapers of the business profits of war, and their delusion on this subject is made serious by the fact that they have votes. The more unscrupulous or more ignorant Jingo papers have assured them that the brief stimulus given to trade by the Government demand for the supplies necessary for hostilities, to be used in killing people and destroying property, is good for the poor man.

This doctrine, which is a favorite one with all Jingoes, speculators, and contractors—in fact, the whole class which seeks sudden fortunes and hopes to "get out" before the crash comes—is of comparatively modern origin. Before the French Revolution, wars were undertaken for "honor," or the glory of the monarchy, or the extension of the national territory. The doctrine that war is profitable from a business point of view, is an idea which has come in with the growth of manufactures and the growing power of money. The state of feeling which leads to war, or the popular interest in some war-bringing question, generally causes depression of trade and manufactures, throws many out of employment, and loads up factories with unsalable goods. That war will probably create a demand for these goods seems plain enough. The prospect of getting rid of them through a lively Government custom, or through the tremendous destruction which war always works, naturally fires the manufacturer's imagination, and through him fires the imagination of the workers, and they all become Jingoes together. No one looks forward to what will follow the close of the war. Every one wants something good now, and only the intelligent few foresee the pay-day. It is exactly the case of the spendthrift who borrows money on notes. He is so gratified by the possession of cash that he does not trouble himself about the way the notes will be met.

The war of the rebellion cost 700,000 lives and made a debt of $2,000,000,000. It was necessary, but it would be ludicrous to speak of it as a good business enterprise for the generation which fought it. We say nothing of its effect on morals and manners. But the debt it created, in spite of the hearty popular support, has not yet been paid off. The disorder in our currency which it created has not yet been rectified, after the lapse of thirty-five years, and has filled the land with crazy notions about the nature and use of money which are clouds on our business future. The value of the labor of the 700,000 men who died can hardly be estimated, nor can the amount of property destroyed, but both were enormous. The infusion into the mind of a growing democracy of the doctrine that there is money in war would be, if successful, the most awful calamity that could befall the modern world; and hanging would be too good for the editor or business man who preached it. We shall some day be 300,000,000 strong, and we shall then wield an enormous force, such as no existing nation will come anywhere near possessing, except possibly Russia. The indications are, too, that we shall be in possession of a large fleet

and large army. Let us figure to ourselves the possibility of this force being at the disposal of a multitude easily excited by yellow journals, finding work slack, as it is apt to be when the number who want employment is great, and imbued with the idea that war would be pecuniarily profitable. We should have here a great nation turned buccaneer and using enormous armaments to fill its pockets.

It must not be forgotten that we are to-day making precedents and concocting doctrines for what is practically a new people. No one denies that the national character, partly as a result of the war and partly as a result of the influence of greatly increased facility in making money, has undergone serious modifications. The old expectation of peaceful development and the self-reliance which were the chief characteristics of American society before the war, have well-nigh disappeared. A large portion of the population is filled with a desire to employ force to gratify our own desires and ambitions, to become a great military and naval power, and to use this power to have our own way, in disregard of law and precedent. The cheap press preaches these things incessantly, and the cheap press now has an influence on the government of the nation which no one dreamed of fifty years ago. It therefore behooves every man who uses either voice or pen for purposes of persuasion, and has a conscience and loves his country, to take heed what economy or morality he recommends.

NATIONAL HYSTERIA.

The *St. James's Gazette*, a London journal that has shown unexpected friendliness to the United States during the Cuban imbroglio, says that we are now passing through a period of national hysteria. This is said apropos of the series of speeches and reports in Congress touching the disaster to the *Maine*. It has been forgotten, apparently, that our naval court of inquiry came to the conclusion that there was nothing to fix direct responsibility upon Spain or upon anybody for the loss of the ship. How much substantial evidence there is for the belief that the disaster was due to an outside explosion, we shall not now consider. If we assume that it was due to an outside explosion, it is quite as likely that it was done by Cuban insurgents in order to embroil us with Spain as that it was done by a Spaniard or Spaniards. That there are insurgents in Havana holding office under the Spanish Government, is proved by the fact that one of them stole the De Lome letter out of the Havana post-office. Moreover, it is a matter of record that the Spanish authorities did not want the *Maine* to come to Havana, but tried to keep her away. They would not have done so if they had desired to blow her up. It is evidently the opinion of Consul-General Lee that the ship was not blown up by a mine planted in the harbor beforehand. A ship moored to a buoy by a chain, in a harbor under tidal influence, swings around. It does not stay in one place. It would have been impossible for anybody on shore at nine o'clock at night to fix her position so as to determine the time for firing the mine, if there had been a mine there. The theory of an outside explosion, therefore, rests upon the hypothesis that some person or persons towed the mine or torpedo down to the ship with a small boat, exploded it, and got away unobserved. This is the view which Consul-General Lee seems to favor. This might as easily have been done by the man who stole the De Lome letter as by anybody else.

The American people are not unreasonable or cruel or cowardly, yet all of these qualities are united in the cry, "Remember the *Maine!*" It is unreasonable to assume that Spain is responsible for the disaster when our own court of inquiry says that it was not able to fix the responsibility. It is cruel to make war in order to gain what may be reached more surely and satisfactorily by peaceable means. It is cowardly, under such circumstances, to attack a weaker nation than ourselves. The attack of hysteria that swept over the Senate last week, and over a large portion of the country, is another instance of the well-known social phenomenon that a crowd will often do things which every member of the crowd would scorn to do as an individual, and that all would despise themselves for doing after a little time for reflection.

Among the manifestations of the prevailing craze is the oft-repeated statement that if the *Maine* had been a British ship, Havana would have been laid in ashes within twenty-four hours. This extravagant conceit was put forth by a yellow journalist a day or two after the disaster. It had not the slightest foundation. It was a mere random guess of a newspaper reporter, and was monstrously false, assuming that Great Britain would have bombarded a quarter of a million innocent men, women, and children without any evidence that either they or their rulers had done any wrong. Yet this wild conception has gained lodgment in the minds of an immense number of people, and it forms in their minds a justification for any cruelty they may be inclined to commit. Probably they would be reluctant to follow the example of Mr. Gladstone in the Transvaal war, when Great Britain turned back and sacrificed her prestige in order to avoid sheer blood-guiltiness.

Even our sedate contemporary, the *Financial Chronicle*, has tasted the insane root that takes the reason prisoner. Although it leans to the opinion that there was no submarine mine in the case, yet it holds that the Spanish Government has been remiss in the matter of expressions of regret. "The astounding shortsightedness of the Spanish authorities," it says, "may best be judged by supposing that the explosion of the *Maine* had been followed by formal and personal expressions of regret and sympathy from all public officers at Havana and Madrid; that the Spanish Government had instantly volunteered to send before our court of inquiry the harbor master of Havana and the pilot who brought the vessel to its moorings." A person reading this, and having no other information, would assume that Spain had given no expression of regret, and that the people of Havana had not turned out *en masse*, with every expression of sympathy, to the funeral of the dead sailors. The truth is, that the most ample expressions of regret were given by Spain and her officers at the time of the occurrence, and were repeated only one week ago by her Minister in Washington, who noted the fact that the previous expressions of the same feeling had been overlooked by the American people, saying:

> "Public opinion in this country appears to ignore the fact that the loss of the *Maine* was immediately followed by official and reiterated expressions of sympathy from her Majesty the Queen, from her Government, from her Chargé d'Affaires in Washington, and from the authorities in Havana, all of which tended to affirm the horror which this disaster has caused to arise in Spanish hearts, as also the sympathy felt for the United States Government and navy and the American people."

It appears that our esteemed contemporary has ignored this second expression as well as the first.

THE MORALS OF MUNICIPAL CORRUPTION.

Miss Jane Addams of Hull House, Chicago, makes in the *Journal of Ethics* an important contribution to our knowledge of the sources of municipal corruption. Living for eight years in a Chicago ward where one of the most corrupt politicians of the city had his stronghold, and brought into daily contact, through her charitable and reformatory work, with the classes of the population that gave the local boss his invariable triumph at the polls, Miss Addams has observed him and them with the eye of an alert woman, and has written a most instructive paper on what may be called the natural history of municipal corruption.

Her quiet study of the actual facts, and that patiently from the inside, is the needed corrective to much hasty theorizing. There is, as we all know, a sort of apocalyptic theory of rotten politics in our cities. They are Satan's seat. Their vice, their coarseness, their indifference to political purity, their hasty return to the mire after one experience of what it is to be washed—all this is but the inherent vileness of mankind, displayed on a large scale as the opportunity for displaying it is large. Un-

til the devil is chained or the world burned up, there will be no such thing as effective municipal reform. But what Miss Addams has shown, in opposition to this millenarian school, is that the bad political conditions which we all so much deplore in our cities are intimately connected with rudimentary notions of morals; that it is not pure love of evil which makes the majority of voters in a ward steadily support a proved corruptionist, but the same instinctive and undeveloped code of morality which they follow in all their life.

In fact, as Miss Addams demonstrates, the desire of the Italian and Polish and Hungarian voters in an American city to be represented by "a good man" is not a whit less strenuous than that of the best native stock. Only their idea of the good man is somewhat different. He must be good according to their highest standards of goodness. He must be a man kind to the poor—not only in a general way, but with particular and unfailing attention to their every want and misfortune. Their joys he must brighten and their sorrows he must alleviate. In emergency, in catastrophe, in misunderstandings with employers and with the law, he must be their strong tower of help. Let him in all these things fill up their ideal of the "good man," and he has their votes at his absolute disposal.

How the corrupt Alderman of the Nineteenth Ward in Chicago built up his power on the primitive virtues of his constituents—not their vices—is shown in most enlightening detail by Miss Addams. He paid the rent of poor families in a pinch and threatened with eviction. He went bail for their sons when arrested. He buried their dead, having a standing account at the undertaker's, sometimes amounting to a thousand or two a year. The funeral of his humblest constituent was provided by this big-hearted friend with its requisite "flower-piece" and its string of carriages. The chances that the money to pay for it all was stolen, will not be too narrowly discussed by the people who ride to and from the graves of their dead at his expense. At weddings and christenings a present from the Alderman was never wanting. Six tons of turkeys and four or more tons of ducks and geese were handed out last Christmas by the Alderman in person or by deputy, each fowl accompanied by hearty greetings and good wishes. Still more of an earthly providence does the Alderman appear in his capacity of securing work for his supporters. In the Nineteenth Ward it was the Alderman's proud boast that he had 2,600 people on the pay-roll of the city or of corporations operating public franchises. Here was one-third of the vote of the entire ward inalienably his to begin with.

Now, considering the moral ideas of the people who vote such a man into office, it cannot be said that they are making a deliberate choice of bad rulers. They are simply supporting the best man they know—the type of big-hearted friendliness. If any qualms ever seize them respecting the source of the money he spends so lavishly for their benefit, they have a ready and all-sufficient explanation, "Oh, he gets it from the rich." It is a sort of Robin Hood affair: the poor man and the priest are not robbed, only the fat and greasy citizen, who has plenty more; so it does not matter. This is undeveloped morality, to be sure, but it is precisely on the undeveloped morality of municipal voters that corruption flourishes. Theirs is largely the crime of ignorance, while the inexcusable criminals are the rich men and corporations who furnish the corruptionist the money with which he makes himself impregnable among his simple-minded constituents. Miss Addams sees clearly this ultimate fountain and source of our municipal corruption. How an effort to redeem the Nineteenth Ward came to grief she relates as follows:

> "During a campaign a year and a half ago, when a reform league put up a candidate against our corrupt Alderman, and when Hull House worked hard to rally the moral sentiment of the ward in favor of the new man, we encountered another and unexpected difficulty. Finding that it was hard to secure enough local speakers of the moral tone which we desired, we imported orators from other parts of the town, from the 'better element,' so to speak. Suddenly we heard it rumored on all sides that, while the money and speakers for the reform candidate were coming from the swells, the money which was backing our corrupt Alderman also came from a swell source; it was rumored that the president of a street-car combination, for whom he performed constant offices in the City Council, was ready to back him to the extent of $50,000; that he, too, was a good man, and sat in high places; that he had recently given a large sum of money to an educational institution, and was therefore as philanthrophic, not to say good and upright, as any man in town; that our Alderman had the sanction of the highest authorities, and that the lecturers who were talking against corruption and the selling and buying of franchises, were only the cranks, and not the solid business men who had developed and built up Chicago."

To this *impasse* every trail leads. If we want to identify the men who make our municipal politics a hissing, we must not look for them in the tenements and the slums. The voters there resident live up, in general, to their highest conception of morality and civic duty. No, we must go to the clubs and the churches and the avenues where are to be found the men of eminent respectability who, for the sake of making millions illegally, pay out their tens of thousands to the spoiler.

THE ELECTIONS IN JAPAN.

TOKYO, March 24, 1898.

The election which has just been held for new members of Parliament is remarkable in many respects. For the first time since the first election there were no party cries, no party platforms, and no special party excitement. In many districts there was much acrimony between candidates which in a few cases led to bloodshed, but these dissensions arose mainly from personal rivalry, and not from any excess of party spirit. Beyond the fact that the Constitution of Japan prescribes an election within a certain period after the dissolution of Parliament, and requires the sanction of Parliament for the enactment of certain measures, it is difficult to see why the late election took place.

No doubt there are reasons why this state of things should exist. The new Cabinet, since coming into power, has had no time to make either friends or enemies. It is a strong cabinet in some respects, and contains some new men who are anxious to show their calibre. They know that they are on trial in a rather critical period, and they are exerting every effort to make themselves useful in their respective departments. While the Cabinet is devoid of popularity, it has so far not marred its activity by any blunder. The parties, therefore, even of the so-called Opposition have been without a handle of attack. Besides, the Cabinet definitely declared before the election that it would make no party affiliations. In former elections the Government has been known to give its utmost assistance to the party or parties that promised support in passing certain measures. But the present Ito Cabinet refused to do more than to stand impartially between conflicting partisans, and determined that it would merely enforce the laws against election disorders. This programme, it is only fair to say, the Government strictly adhered to. So far there has been no charge from any party or coterie that the Government showed favor to one candidate at the expense of another. This attitude of indifference, while it insured a fair election, undoubtedly deprived the campaign of some picturesque characteristics.

But, more than all this, the old war cries directed against the *Satcho* have lost much vitality for the moment through the fault of the parties themselves. All the groups—the Liberals, the Progressives, and National Unionists—have at one time or another united with the Government in power on terms far short of those demanded in their political manifestoes. The result is, that the old fight between the Government and Parliament cannot be easily renewed. There must at least be a pretence to consistency and sincerity in party warfare; otherwise the public is bound to lose its interest in a political contest. When, a year ago, it was seen that the Progressive party, the last to hold out against the Government, yielded to the blandishments of the Cabinet, there was no party left to defend the old principles and measures. The recent "campaign" is the first that has shown the consequences of this abandonment of old watchwords and party cries. It is clear that the voters have for the time lost the interest which they formerly had in electoral contests.

Nevertheless, the election was not conducted by the candidates without a certain general object in view. In political warfare, distinctions may often be made without a difference, and in the present election we may note certain points as to which the various parties and groups were divided. As soon as the returns came in, the newspapers separated the successful candidates into two classes—those who were likely to support, and those who were likely to oppose, the Government. The chief parties for the Government are supposed to be the Liberals and National Unionists, the former an ally

of Marquis Ito in his previous administration. The most powerful of the opposition parties are the Progressives, who, with their leader, Count Okuma, abandoned the Matsukata Cabinet a few weeks before it fell. This separation of the two parties into two classes gives us a clue to what is the probable issue of the election. The various organizations without a watchword or principle worthy of the name can still maintain a relation of hostility towards or alliance with the Government. Their attitude will be determined entirely by the circumstances of the case. This is the secret of the efforts made in the election, especially by the Progressives. This party was aware that if it could succeed in securing a sufficient number of candidates, it could force the Government to make terms with it. For this reason it was willing to be considered an anti-Government party, though at the proper moment, under favorable conditions, it would perhaps throw in its lot with the Government. Even Count Okuma takes this view of the situation. It is known that in January, when the present Cabinet was forming, Count Okuma was solicited to enter it. He offered no objection to a union with Marquis Ito and other chiefs of the new Cabinet who had been his opponents, but stipulated certain conditions, chief of which was that his party should be liberally recognized in the official administration. The conditions were so onerous that they had to be rejected.

The returns of the election are a surprise in many ways. What calls for special notice is the heavy slaughter at the polls of some of the most experienced party men. Out of 299 members who sat in the old House, only 89 were reëlected. The greatest change took place in the Liberal ranks, in which only 26 of the old members were returned and 75 new members. The figures for the Progressives are 42 old and 62 new. The general dissatisfaction with the conduct of many of the old members in the last Parliament, especially in abandoning their party organization for the sake of official rewards, accounts to some extent for this overthrow. There can be no doubt that many candidates in this way lost influence with the voters. The general feebleness of party organization furnishes another practical explanation. In some districts there were two or even more candidates, nominally belonging to the same party, contending for a seat, and in these cases the rivalry was often quite as great as between the candidates of different parties.

Precisely what vote the Government can count upon during the next session is still a matter of uncertainty. It may be assumed that the Liberals and National Unionists will join their forces in support of the Government; but as members belonging to these two parties do not command a majority in the Lower House, the Government will need reinforcements. On the side of the Government may be reckoned 101 Liberals and 25 National Unionists, and probably the 9 votes of the Business Men's party, making a total of 135. On the other side, the Progressives control 104 votes of their own party and 22 votes of loosely affiliated parties, making a total of 126 for the possible opposition. The balance may lie in the hands of the Independents, and the Government, it is said, will secure them. If not, it will have to make concessions to the Progressives, who, as the cleverest political managers in Japan, will strain every nerve to strengthen their own ranks. Of all the parties the Progressives have lost least by the election. Their prestige, though not what it once was, is not seriously damaged, and it would require but a little more popularity for them to secure a working majority. The general feeling among the voters, now as ever, is unquestionably with the party that stands strongest for party cabinets.

The next session of Parliament is bound to be an important one, and the pressure of various measures which the Government will lay before the Lower House may help it in securing the requisite majority. The position of Japan *vis à vis* the European Powers who now threaten China is awakening the gravest anxiety, both within and without Government circles. The expansion of the army and navy calls for heavy outlays and new taxes, some of which will have to be considered in the next session. The money market in Japan is in a precarious condition. In every department of business there is a cry for more capital. It is practically impossible for the Government to float any new issues of bonds within the country at reasonable rates of interest, as the market seems to be gleaned bare of surplus funds. To foreign loans at the present moment the Government has a natural aversion, though eventually it may have recourse to them. The indemnity is not yet exhausted, but, with heavy payments for war-ships now building abroad, the net proceeds left for home purposes are by no means extraordinary. The very gravity of these issues may serve to stifle party warfare and give to the Government, which lacks the elements of strong popular support, a working majority, or even a strong backing. Whatever the faults of political parties in Japan, they cannot be charged with sacrificing their country's interest to party or personal considerations.

G. D.

THE DEPUTY KEEPER OF THE RECORDS.

LONDON, March, 1898.

Hard by the Courts of Justice, and close to Lincoln's Inn, Gray's Inn, and the Temple, in a neighborhood where lawyers most do congregate, the Public Record Office rears its beautiful structure. It stands upon land of the Rolls Estate, property belonging to the Crown. Going from Charing Cross along the Strand, after passing the Griffin which now marks the site where Temple Bar stood not so very long ago, you turn by your left into Chancery Lane, on the right-hand side of which you will, after walking about two hundred yards, find an entrance to the Record Office. This approach is one of very recent date. The other route—and formerly the only one—is by Fetter Lane, on the City side.

The building, which forms a record repository for the United Kingdom, is a modern one. The construction of the main pile was commenced only in 1851. Parliament voted a quarter of a million pounds sterling for the work. Extensions are even now going on, which are estimated to cost over fifty thousand pounds more. These will include a museum, into which the old Rolls Chapel is being converted, wherein will be set out for the inspection of sightseers various unique historical documents that are preserved in the great treasure-house of materials for the history of the British Empire and for the colonial period of the United States. But few American visitors to London seem to be aware that, even now, there is a room in the newly built annex in which are displayed for public view documents not duplicated elsewhere. Here are the two parts of Domesday Book. Here is the Pope's bull creating King Henry VIII. Defender of the Faith, and here the Treaty of the Cloth of Gold. The statutes of the Poor Knights of Windsor and the statutes of the Order of St. Michael of France are both on view. Tallies used in the Exchequer, both ancient and modern, and the famous golden seals may also be seen. Specimens of illumination and autographs of famous persons alike are open to inspection. It is not, however, as a museum, but as a mine of history that this great national institution must be regarded. The nature of the documents and their priceless value are well described by Mr. Scargill-Bird, an assistant keeper of the records, in his most useful 'Guide to the Principal Classes of Documents Preserved in the Public Record Office.' As an example of the vast bulk of the material, Mr. Scargill-Bird instances the Close Rolls of the Court of Chancery. These comprise considerably over 10,000 rolls. The Coram Rege and De Banco Rolls are also numbered by the thousands. They are frequently of huge size, a single roll of the Tudor and Stuart periods containing from 500 to 1,000 skins of parchment. The custody of these masses of records, and the direction of the department of state which is charged with preserving them and making them available for the use of the public, are, by law, vested in the Master of the Rolls, the judge who, in England, ranks after the Lord Chancellor and the Lord Chief Justice alone. The working head of the department, "the chief record keeper," is, however, the Deputy Keeper of the Records, whose apointment is vested in the Master of the Rolls, subject to the formal approval of the sovereign. The functions of both officials, in relation to the records, are defined by the public-record act (1 and 2 Vict., cap. 94).

It was in 1854 that the old State Paper Office was amalgamated with the Public Record Office, when the documents that had for centuries been accumulating were brought together at the Record repository, from the Courts of Chancery, Exchequer, Admiralty, Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, and Marshalsea. At the same time were removed thither the records theretofore deposited in the Tower of London, the Chapter House at Westminster, the Rolls Chapel, Petty Bag Office, the Queen's Remembrancer, and other Exchequer offices, the First Fruits and Tenths Office, the Office of Land Revenue Records and Enrolments, the office of the late Auditor of the Land Revenues of England and Wales, and the Records of the Pells Office of the Exchequer. To these must be added the books, papers, and documents of the several departments of state and of other offices of government. A mere outsider may well feel appalled when Mr. Scargill-Bird, a specialist in such matters, admits that it took him ten years to compile his admirable 'Guide' to the Records. Yet, enormous as are the accumulations at the Record Office, there are multitudes of state papers in existence in other places. Among these are the mansions of the noblemen and gentlemen of England, the Lambeth Library, the British Museum, and the University and college libraries of Oxford, Cambridge, and Dublin. In olden times, the high officers of state

regarded such documents as being their private property. They accordingly took them away to their homes, where many are still preserved. It was not until 1578 that the old State Paper Office was established by Queen Elizabeth, to prevent the "embezzlement" of the papers, on the frequent changes of secretaries of state, and "that a certain place should be appointed for them and a fit man chosen for registering and keeping them in order, who should be tied by oath for the secrecy and safe-keeping thereof." Even after the establishment of the State Paper Office, numbers of official records were "carried off." Hence it happens that, from time to time, the British Museum acquires, by purchase, all sorts of state papers, even including records of the Privy Council. The manuscripts known as Egerton, 2395, are a notable instance of this kind of acquisition, and include most valuable papers relating to the American and West Indian colonies in the seventeenth century, which were in the keeping of Thomas Povey, Secretary to the committee for plantations. On the other hand, the "good Earl" of Shaftesbury, in 1871, presented to the Public Record Office his family manuscripts; and the grandfather of the present Duke of Manchester "deposited" a number of his family papers at the same place. Both these interesting collections of the Ashley-Cooper and Montagu families are accessible to literary workers.

The mere preservation of these masses of records would be of but little avail to historical students and others. It is indispensable that the documents should be sorted out, arranged, listed, indexed, and calendared, and that they should be forthcoming on demand, when required by the numerous classes of inquirers who resort to the Record Office. This is the business of the Deputy Keeper of the Records. Under his direction work a staff of skilled officers, consisting of a secretary to the department, six Assistant Keepers of Records, and twenty clerks, and a number of attendants, some of whom have by long service acquired such an intimate knowledge of the details of the classification of the records as to render them most helpful to workers. The Parliamentary vote for the salaries and wages of the officers and servants of the department amounts annually to about £19,000. For the due application of this sum the Deputy Keeper is "Accounting Officer" under the rules of the Imperial Treasury. In like manner is he held responsible for the amounts expended on account of "Calendars and Historical Documents" and on account of the Historical Manuscripts Commission.

Those who have for the last quarter of a century been resorting to the Record Office justly hold in veneration the honored name of Sir Thomas Hardy, a former Deputy Keeper, who did much, under the ægis of Lord Romilly, the then Master of the Rolls, to make the treasures of the Record Office accessible to the public. Sir Thomas Hardy was succeeded by his brother, Sir William, who, in turn, was followed in 1886 by the present Deputy Keeper, Sir Henry Churchill Maxwell Lyte. It is no derogation of his predecessors to say that, under its present chief, a steady advance has been made in bringing the collections of the Record Office within easier reach of the public. On that gentleman's appointment, "the work of reducing the Records to a systematic arrangement was," says Mr. Scargill-Bird, "begun in earnest." Mr. Scargill-Bird himself supervised the work, which lasted for two years. In the result the officials were, for the first time, in a position to state definitely whether any record or records of a particular date and class did or did not exist. Moreover, huge masses of so-called Miscellanea have been examined, and found to contain a great number of documents belonging to already existing classes, and are being incorporated with these. A series of "Lists and Indexes," of and to these documents, has been begun. "Inventories" of several of the more important classes have been published. Then the system of "Calendars of State Papers" has not only been continued with those series already in progress, but has been extended. A new series has been undertaken of the Patent Rolls and Close Rolls, beginning with those of Edward I. The twelve volumes of these calendars already published form a valuable contribution to the history of England during the Middle Ages. The various series of calendars issued by the Record Office are simply invaluable to the historical student. The volumes give the pith of the contents of the records dealt with. Of departmental papers alone, about one hundred calendars are already in the hands of the public. These consist mainly of the Domestic, Foreign, and Colonial series. The last-mentioned series has a special interest for Americans, as it gives the pith of the contents of documents relating to the early years of the English colonies in America and the West Indies. The papers for this series have been arranged down to the year 1688. The calendars as yet published do not, however, include colonial papers of later date than 1680. They embrace (besides the documents at the Record Office) papers in the India Office and the British Museum. No student of the early history of the United States can be properly equipped for his work without having these calendars within his reach. No historical collection relating to American history can pretend to completeness without the volumes treating of America and the West Indies. These calendars are published by the British Government, not for gain, but as a contribution towards historical knowledge. Such of them as are not yet out of print may be had for about twenty-five dollars the lot. The following is a list of those already published:

Vol. i.—America and West Indies, 1574-1660.
Vol. ii.—East Indies, China, and Japan, 1513-1616. (Out of print.)
Vol. iii.—East Indies, China, and Japan. 1617-1621. (Out of print.)
Vol. iv.—East Indies, China, and Japan. 1622-1624.
Vol. v.—America and West Indies, 1661-1668.
Vol. vi.—East Indies, 1625-1629.
Vol. vii.—America and West Indies, 1669-1674.
Vol. viii.—East Indies and Persia, 1630-1634.
Vol. ix.—America and West Indies, 1675-1676, and Addenda, 1574-1674.
Vol. x.—America and West Indies, 1677-1680.

The bulk of these calendars was prepared by the late Mr. Noel Sainsbury, who for over fifty years was a member of the Record Office staff. To his collaboration many an American student, from the late George Bancroft downwards, has been indebted. Most of the American Ministers to the Court of St. James's at one time or another sought his assistance. He liked to speak of the impression made upon him by these diplomatists from the New World. Buchanan's manner quite charmed him. Mr. Sainsbury had some most interesting recollections of search-work in connection with his own service and that of searchers from the New World. On one occasion a lawyer came to him on behalf of a wealthy American who was anxious to establish his pedigree. There was a tradition in the family that an ancestor had gone to New York from Barbados in the seventeenth century. Proof was needed. Mr. Sainsbury referred to the Board of Trade papers of that period, and there found the name of the ancestor in question, in a list of passengers sailing from Barbados to New York. "That information," said the lawyer to Mr. Sainsbury, "is worth a thousand pounds!" He did not, however, act up to his generous impulse, as Mr. Sainsbury, with a merry laugh, assured an inquirer. A competent successor, as editor of the Colonial series of Calendars, has been found in the Hon. John Fortescue, a Devonshire man, whose interest in the history of the extension of the British Empire is hereditary. The historical labors of Mr. Fortescue are not confined to the preparation of these valuable calendars. He has made various interesting contributions to the literature of the day upon military expeditions and other matters.

Besides the calendars dealing with departmental papers, the Record Office has prepared and published hundreds of volumes that tell of the contents of documents preserved in the Record Office itself and among the archives of foreign countries. The latter include calendars of state papers preserved at Simancas and other depositories in Spain, and of state papers and manuscripts at Venice. Of the care with which these publications are edited, it is only necessary to say that the names of the editors include G. A. Bergenroth, Pascual de Gayángos, Martin Hume, and Rawdon Brown. Other calendars of British records include acts of the Privy Council of England, Treasury papers, state papers relating to Ireland, state papers relating to Scotland, and others that are very helpful in the several branches of historical research. Besides assisting students by making known the nature of documents, at home and abroad, that throw light upon the history of the United Kingdom, the authorities of the Record Office have gone afield, and caused to be printed or reprinted and edited the old Chronicles and the Memorials which are the sources of the early history. American students who may be concerned to learn the nature of the various publications emanating from the Record Office can obtain, gratis, a catalogue of them from the Queen's printers, Messrs. Eyre & Spottiswoode, East Harding Street, Fleet Street, London, E. C.

The same liberal spirit shown in the publication of the calendars and other pointers to the contents of the national records, extends to the admission of workers to the Record Office itself and to the examination of documents. The documents belonging to the great departments of state are merely "deposited" at the Record Office. They are treated as if they were still in the Government offices to which they respectively belong. The heads of those departments fix the limits within which their records may be inspected by inquirers. The Deputy Keeper merely gives effect to the general and special permissions accorded by the

departmental chiefs. At the present time the following are the dates after which such documents cannot be consulted by the public without special permission from the departments concerned:

Treasury	December 31, 1759
Foreign Office (with some exceptions),	December 31, 1802
Colonial Office (with some exceptions),	December 31, 1802
Home Office	December 31, 1772
Admiralty	December 31, 1799
Admiralty, Logs	1840
Admiralty, Muster Books	1860
Board of Trade	January 29, 1820
Audit Office	1821
War Office	June 19, 1837

To obtain permission to search after-date papers, the student must address himself, in writing, to an Under Secretary of State, giving precise information as to the particular papers he wishes to have access to, and the nature of the use he proposes to make of the contents of the documents. Such permission is given only after strict inquiry. The present Deputy Keeper has here, again, conferred a boon upon students by getting the periods of search materially extended. Take, for instance, the limit for the Records of the Colonial Office, now brought down to 1802. Only a few years ago, such documents could not be searched when of later date than 1760, excepting by special permission from the Colonial Office. Under the same progressive administration of the Record Office, the hours of work have been extended by half an hour daily, which means an additional week in each year gained by searchers.

There are three separate search-rooms for the use of the public. These are: the literary search-room, the legal search-room, and the Government search-room. In the literary search-room, which is that most frequented, every kind of record, excepting the after-date state-papers above mentioned, is open to inspection, without restriction or payment. The daily average attendance here cannot be less than twenty-five. Not seldom there is hardly room enough for those having business there. From October to April may be regarded as the busiest time. It is said that the applications for documents in this room number considerably over 30,000 a year. The use of ink is strictly forbidden, and students must manage as best they can with pencils. In the legal search-room, records are open to the public without restriction, for researches made solely for historical or literary purposes. Where documents are consulted for matters of a business nature, fees must be paid by stamps. The Government search-room is mainly reserved for those who have special permission to search after-date papers. In this room may, at times, be seen such famous historians as Dr. Rawson Gardiner and Dr. Stubbs, the Bishop of Oxford. Here also are at work Dr. Theal, on behalf of the Government of the Cape of Good Hope; Mr. Bonwick, on behalf of the Government of New South Wales; and Major Smyth, on behalf of the Government of Canada—all with their staffs of copyists, engaged in the transcription of documents relating to the early history of their respective colonies, that will hereafter be placed among the archives at Capetown, at Sydney, and at Ottawa. Does the grandeur of the Great Republic disdain to profit by the example of these colonial governments?

Each of the search-rooms has an experienced officer as its superintendent. These gentlemen are most helpful to students, and their services have from time to time been acknowledged by the leading writers of the day. The superintendents have their own special work, such as the compiling of calendars, in hand; but, interrupt them as you will, they are ever courteous and obliging. The Superintendents at the present time are: Mr. G. H. Overend, in the Legal Room; Mr. Edward Salisbury, in the Literary Room; and Mr. Hubert Hall, in the Government Room.

There is practically no restriction upon admission to the Record Office for genuine workers; unless it be the requirement that persons shall not appear there in "unseemly dress." The rules governing the use of the institution are short and plain. The hours of admission are from 10 A. M. to 4:30 P. M. on every working-day throughout the year, excepting on Saturday, when the hours are from 10 A. M. to 2 P. M. On coming into the entrance-hall of the building, the student must forthwith write his name and full address in the attendance book kept there. He must also give up to the hall porter any umbrella, stick, or bag, brought by him. He will then proceed to the room where his researches are to be carried on. Arrived there, he takes a seat, and, by placing his overcoat upon it, or setting down his note-book or his hat upon the table in front of the seat, the place will be regarded as his for the remainder of the day. If the student knows the particular document or class of documents for which he is in quest, he at once fills up a form, with the necessary particulars, and within a reasonable time an attendant will bring the manuscripts required. If the student be in doubt, he can often get all the help he needs from one of the attendants, without troubling the Superintendent. Silence is, as far as practicable, required in the search-room. Exclusion or rejection from the search-rooms is almost unheard of, but rule 21 provides for it.

Besides his own proper duties in connection with the administration of the Record Office, the Deputy Keeper is charged with an honorary duty which closely concerns the cause of historical research. He is responsible for the general superintendence of the Historical Manuscripts Commission. In this he is assisted by the Secretary to the Record Office, who is also secretary to the commission. The chairman of this most useful commission is the Master of the Rolls for the time being. When Lord Esher lately retired from that high office, a fresh commission was issued. This comprises the following persons: Sir Nathaniel Lindley, Master of the Rolls; the Marquesses of Salisbury, Lothian, and Ripon; the Earls of Crawford and Rosebery; the Viscount Esher and Lord Edmond Fitzmaurice; Dr. Stubbs, the learned Bishop of Oxford; Lords Acton and Carlingford; Sir Edward Fry and Sir H. C. Maxwell Lyte; and those front-rank historians, Mr. Lecky and Mr. Rawson Gardiner. The commission is appointed to ascertain what unpublished manuscripts are extant in the collections of private persons, corporations, and institutions, which are calculated to throw light upon subjects connected with the civil, ecclesiastical, literary, or scientific history of the country; the main object being the discovery of unknown historical and literary materials. To give effect to their commission, application is made, from time to time, to the nobles and gentlemen of England, for permission to examine their muniment-rooms; assurance being given that nothing relating to title-deeds shall be divulged, and that papers of a private character shall not be examined. The Commissioners' appeals have met with a most generous response, and their published reports are invaluable for historical purposes. Some of the examinations are made by inspectors, appointed by the Deputy Keeper, at the houses where documents are preserved. In practice, it has been found more satisfactory, with the consent of the owner, to remove the papers to the Record Office itself, for examination there. Some of the collections preserved in the stately homes of England are very extensive. Already have seven volumes been issued by the commission upon those at Hatfield, Lord Salisbury's historical home; and yet the work seems only to be begun. The historical materials which have been brought to light since the commission's first report, in 1870, are simply priceless. Many of the appendices to those reports contain interesting information relating to the colonial period of American history. The papers of Lords Townshend and Dartmouth simply abound with materials for that history.

During the twelve years that he has filled the office of Deputy Keeper of the Records, Sir Maxwell Lyte has not only vigorously administered the department, and rendered its precious stores of documents more available to the public, but he has also exercised his best influence for the enlargement of the Record Office buildings. When the contemplated extensions have been carried out, and the old buildings yet remaining have been moved away, the beautiful architecture of the Record Office will then be properly appreciated. It was Lord Esher who, when Master of the Rolls, selected Sir Maxwell for the office of Deputy Keeper. At the time, the appointment caused bewilderment to the older members of the Department, for the new chief was not a member of the staff, although he had done a good deal of work as an inspector of private muniments for the Historical Manuscripts Commission. He was, on the other hand, an Eton boy and an Oxford man, who had written histories of those two seats of learning. Then, the rule for the compulsory retirement of officials at sixty-five years of age had not yet been enforced, and there were some elderly gentlemen on the staff who no doubt felt that they had been "passed over." The new Deputy Keeper had no intention of being a mere figure-head, while the elderly gentlemen, on their part, regarded supervision as interference. In one case, a mild suggestion from the chief brought upon him the crushing denunciation, "Mr. Lyte, I was on the staff of the Record Office before you were born!" This statement was quite true, and even now the Deputy Keeper has hardly attained his fiftieth year. But the old order has given place to the new, and the Deputy Keeper, the Secretary, and the whole staff work together in general accord for the good of the public. The high traditions of the department are maintained, and the dignity of the Record Office has been enlarged under its present head. Americans on their travels in Europe will see, in the English cemetery at Nice, the grave of the Rev. H. F. Lyte, the author of "Abide with Me" and of other beautiful hymns. It is a grandson of his who now so ably fills the office of Deputy Keeper of the Records.

N. D. D.

Correspondence.

A LITERARY PARALLEL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is remarkable what a similarity there is between Paul Leicester Ford's novel, 'The Story of an Untold Love,' and M. Edmond Rostand's play, "Cyrano de Bergerac," which has set all France in a furor. M. Coquelin crowds the Porte-Saint-Martin nightly with it; Sir Henry Irving is to bring it out in London, Richard Mansfield in New York. M. Jules Lemaître declares it "le plus grand succès que j'ai vu"; and M. Émile Faguet, "le plus beau poème dramatique qui ait paru depuis un demi-siècle." The latter even claims that, like "Le Cid," like "Andromaque," like "L'École des Femmes," like "Hernani," like "La Dame aux Camélias," it will mark an epoch in French literature—"ouvre le vingtième siècle d'une manière éclatante et triomphale."

In "Cyrano de Bergerac" the stupid cadet, Christian de Neuvillette, gains the love of the *précieuse* Roxane through the intellectual mediation of Cyrano, who also loves her. Cyrano writes love-letters for the young cadet, even disguises his voice, and pleads, hidden, in passionate verse of love to Roxane, who believes she hears all from Christian at her side. She loves Christian, as she says, not for his beauty, but for his soul, his heart; this soul, this heart are those of Cyrano de Bergerac. Later she is undeceived.

In 'The Story of an Untold Love,' Whitely, the stupid millionaire editor, publishes as his own the work of the brilliant but obscure writer Rudolf Hartzman (alias Donald Maitland) in order to gain the affections of Maisie, the modern *précieuse*, whom they both love. She perceives "that no man but one of noble character and pure moral mind could write from such a standpoint," and is almost won. Later she discovers the deception, and gives her hand, of course, to Hartzman-Maitland.

Donald Maitland is cousin to Maisie, Cyrano de Bergerac to Roxane. In place of Christian, the inane peacock, Cyrano, the "perfit gentil knight," and Roxane, the sweet *précieuse* of Louis XIII. chivalry, put Mr. Whitely, the inflated Philistine, Rudolf Hartzmann (alias Maitland), the modern Sir Walter Scott, and Maisie, the rather sophisticated heroine of *fin de siècle* American literary life, and you have practically the same story. All contiguity ends here, of course, and is simply fortuitous.

EDWARD MEYER.

WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY.

FOREIGN EXPRESSAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As regards my statement that ten copies of the book in question could have been sent by mail for 90 cents, Miss Hapgood remarks that she is "not so sure about that." My assertion, however, was not a matter of conjecture, but of fact. Six copies of the book in two packages were sent by mail to the same address and reached their destination in two weeks at a cost of 52 cents for postage. It is easy to calculate that ten copies of the book sent by mail would have cost less than 90 cents. I have lived in Germany altogether more than twenty-five years, and during my residence there have received scores of books from the United States, England, France, and Italy. These books have been usually sent by mail as printed matter, and have always been promptly delivered without any extra charge. From England I have received several times a dozen or more books sent in a single package through the post for parcels. In such cases the package must pass through the custom-house. A card is then brought to the dwelling of the person to whom the package is addressed, informing him that it is in the custom-house. For this service a fee of 10 pfennigs (about 2 cents) is charged. He then goes or sends to the custom-house, where the official, on being informed that the package contains books, very rarely opens it, but marks it free and permits it to be carried off without any charge whatever.

Miss Hapgood gives her experience with parcels sent from Russia to Germany, but these packages must have been sent by express agencies or as freight. She does not seem to be aware of the fact that there is no Government package postal service between Russia and Germany. In this respect Russia is in precisely the same condition as the United States. The additional dues of which she complains were levied by the agents of the Russian express companies in Germany, just as similar dues are levied by the German agents of American express companies. Her experience, therefore, only confirms my statements concerning foreign expressage. There is no German monopoly of the kind of which she speaks, and her assertion that the German Government "permits that packet company to seize prepaid mail matter at its own sweet will" is utterly untrue. Her censure of the stamp tax on newspapers in Austria is perfectly just, but wholly irrelevant to the subject under discussion.

Repeated efforts have been made to induce the American Government to establish a package postal service with other members of the postal union; but these efforts have been constantly defeated by the American express companies. A contribution to a campaign fund is of more importance in the eyes of our politicians than the general welfare of the people. P.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co.'s first spring announcements embrace 'Outlines of the Earth's History,' illustrated, by Prof. N. S. Shaler; 'The Play of Animals,' by Prof. Karl Groos; 'The Art of Taxidermy,' illustrated, by John Rowley; 'Familiar Life in Field and Forest,' illustrated, by F. Schuyler Mathews; 'Studies of Good and Evil,' by Prof. Josiah Royce; 'Political Crime,' by Louis Proal; 'Psychologic Foundations of Education,' by Dr. William T. Harris; 'Italian Literature,' by Dr. Richard Garnett; and 'A French Volunteer in the War of Independence (The Chevalier de Pontgibaud),' translated by Robert B. Douglas.

Macmillan Co. will make a book of Mr. Frank Stockton's serial now running in *St. Nicholas*, with a slightly altered title, 'Buccaneers and Pirates of Our Coasts,' and will shortly have ready 'The Loves of the Lady Arabella,' a novel by Miss Molly Elliot Seawell.

By special arrangement with the Macmillan Co., the Crosscup & Sterling Co., No. 114 Fifth Avenue, will publish in June a new, complete, and limited edition of the Life and Works of Alfred, Lord Tennyson, in fourteen volumes, of which four will contain the Memoir by his son, and will be issued also separately to match the present large-paper editions of the Works. The number of copies will be 500.

Thomas Whittaker announces 'Faith and Doubt in the Poets of the Century,' by the Rev. R. A. Armstrong; 'Henry VIII. and the Reformation of the Church of England,' by the Rev. William Frederick Faber; 'The Construction of the Bible,' by Prof. Walter F. Adeney; and 'The Conquered World,' by the Rev. Robert F. Horton.

Fleming H. Revell Co. state that the second volume of the Rev. James S. Dennis's 'Christian Missions and Social Progress' (the first already reviewed in these columns) will not be ready till late in the autumn. It will be fortified with statistical tables.

'English Etymology,' a select glossary by Prof. Friedrich Kluge of Freiburg and Prof. Frederick Lutz of Albion College, Mich., is to be issued at once by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston. It aims to serve as an introduction to the history of the English language.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'The Ethics of Hobbes,' by Prof. E. Hershey Sneath of Yale.

L'Echo de la Semaine, Boston, has begun the publication of a new series of select short French stories, with English notes by Prof. A. N. Van Daell of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

David Nutt, 270 Strand, London, expects to publish on May 15 'The English Emersons, Emmersons, or Embersons,' by P. H. Emerson, M.B., B.A. (Cantab.). On March 12 discovery was made of the baptisms of the children of Thomas and Elizabeth Emerson, who emigrated to Ipswich, Mass., in 1638, and from whom the poet Emerson was descended. The edition will be limited as follows: 50 copies *de luxe* and 250 copies ordinary, at $16.00 and $8.00 respectively by subscription in advance.

There is a steady flow of reprints to our table, and we must report progress on some of them. From Messrs. Scribner we have volumes 3, 4, 5 of the archaic 'Spectator,' edited by G. Gregory Smith, each with its portrait frontispiece—of Steele, Pope, Budgell—and all handy to hold if not (as it seems to us) enticing typographically. The same firm (in connection with Chapman & Hall, London) have added eight imposing volumes to their Gadshill Dickens, viz.: 'David Copperfield' (2), 'Our Mutual Friend' (2), 'Dombey and Son' (2), 'Great Expectations,' and 'A Tale of Two Cities.' Mr. Lang's introductions are not devoid of signs of the weariness which such perfunctory undertakings seldom fail to engender, and they are hardly to be compared in interest with the businesslike historical prefaces of the younger Dickens. The Scribners also add a volume (fifth of the 'History of Frederick II.') to the very handsome and very inexpensive Centenary Edition of Carlyle; and 'Rhymes of Childhood' to the Complete Works of James Whitcomb Riley (Homestead Edition)—a collection not exactly described by its title; and, so far as it is, raising a question, not of the poet's cleverness, but of the desirability of filling the youth-

ful mind with (generally) dialect jingle and bad grammar. Mr. Riley's sympathy with childhood none will dispute.

A tasteful volume, in compressed but readable print, has been made by Small, Maynard & Co. of Walt Whitman's Complete Prose Works, with the early portrait for frontispiece, and with other pertinent personal illustrations, including (strange to say) the well-known physiognomy of Elias Hicks. Very much of this collection possesses an historical interest, and it is a pity that an index was not joined to it; witness the accounts of Hicks, Emerson, Father Taylor, etc., and the war experiences generally.

The admirable "Little Masterpieces" edited by Prof. Bliss Perry (Doubleday & McClure Co.) are extended with 'Benjamin Franklin'—being characteristic and famous excerpts from his Autobiography, Poor Richard, etc.; and 'Daniel Webster'—his "Adams and Jefferson" and Reply to Hayne. Both have excellent portraits.

The special feature of the thirty-fifth annual edition of 'The Statesman's Year-book' (Macmillan), a plump volume well past the limit of 1,000 pages, is the series of maps and diagrams in the forefront. The first of these is of West Africa with reference to the Niger question. The disputed Hinterland is relatively a small territory, but as it lies for some three hundred miles along the river, fronting the Royal Niger Company's domain, it to that extent affects free navigation up to the boundary of the acknowledged French "sphere," which then envelops both banks to the sources. But Germany too is at hand to profit by a division, and the whole parcelled situation finely suggests the pains the western Powers have been at to establish points of contact and friction in barbarous regions. A series of three colored maps exhibits the world viewed as the recipient of British exports. Finally, the rise and fall of imports and exports for the leading nations of the earth in the past twenty-five years is shown diagramatically in several folded plates. The general contents of this firmly established handbook need no praise.

'Port Royal Education,' by Félix Cadet, translated, with an index, by Adnah D. Jones (Scribners), contains two hundred pages of extracts from the writings of MM. de Port Royal, preceded by a treatise on these writers, their works and their activity in the short-lived but influential Jansenist schools. The book is well adapted for the many who have no access to or taste for the numerous and heavy publications emanating from the members of Port Royal, or who do not feel disposed even to tackle the voluminous histories of that famous institution.

The author of 'Dodo' has made a much more agreeable novel of 'The Vintage; A Romance of the Greek War of Independence' (Harpers). It is a pleasant book, in spite of the horrors of the scenes at the siege of Tripoli, and has sufficient historical foundation. The brave young peasant, Mitsos, as he works among the vines and "sings in his boat on the bay," is quite idyllic; and he becomes heroic in his personal sacrifices for his country. The military and political situation during the quarrel of the bishops with the army has something Eastern and mediæval, which perhaps helps to explain some of the difficulties in the way of establishing Greece in full independence. Vanity, pride, and self-seeking are fearful enemies to patriotic effort, and Mr. Benson's 'The Vintage' is but another testimony to the need of further purging for this poor nation.

The April number of the *American Historical Review* (Macmillan) offers a large proportion of interesting themes, of which two in particular are calculated for either half of the Anglo-Saxon world. Dr. Charles Gross throws a deal of light on "The Early History of the Ballot in England," concerning which much had been forgotten even by reformers from Bentham to Macaulay, and incidentally plucks from the Dutch cap another feather placed there by the late Douglas Campbell. Dr. Gross discovers secret voting in some boroughs as early as the fourteenth century. "In our age of jealous office-seekers," he remarks, "we should remember that for centuries office-holding was regarded [in England] as a burden; that the election originally determined upon whom an irksome duty was to be imposed." Prof. Jameson's paper on "The Early Political Uses of the Word *Convention*" begins on this side of the Atlantic and ends in Scotland, and is really a very learned gloss on the rubric *Convention* in the Oxford Dictionary, albeit not obviously dependent on this authority. Notable, among the book reviews, are an anonymous criticism of Bache's 'Life of General Meade' and Prof. Macvane's survey of the Report of the Venezuela Commission, which, he finds, in spite of anti-British bias, "casts a curious light on the extravagant statements once current here as to 'English expansion' of claims beyond those made by the Dutch." Of great interest is the announcement that the third report of the Historical Manuscripts Commission will present a first instalment of the correspondence of John C. Calhoun.

According to a compilation made by the *Schlesische Zeitung*, covering the period from the close of the Summer semester of 1896 to the beginning of 1898, the twenty-one German universities bestowed the doctor's degree on 2,371 candidates. The largest number is credited to Erlangen, namely 332, while Berlin follows with nearly one hundred less, namely, 237. Munich reports 220, Würzburg, 181; Leipzig, 177; Greifswald, 133; Heidelberg, 116; Freiburg, 107; Göttingen, 103; Halle, 92; Bonn, 89; Rostock, 83; Kiel, 81; Marburg, 72; Jena, 70; Breslau, 64; Strassburg, 60; Tübingen, 58; Königsberg, 48; Giessen, 38; and the Catholic Academy at Münster, with only two faculties, 9. These figures are not at all in proportion to the attendance. In this respect Berlin, Munich, and Leipzig far outdistance all other competitors and form a group by themselves. Rather singularly, the three Bavarian universities, Munich, Erlangen, and Würzburg, furnish a contingency of 733 new doctors, while the nine Prussian universities, together with Münster as the tenth, reported only 928 promotions. About one-half of these promotions were in the medical department, namely, 1,187, followed by the philosophical faculties with a total of 829, the law, with 339, and the theological, with 20. The last mentioned figures are about the average for the theological faculties, which grant a D.D. only *honoris causa* and no longer in course. A doctor of divinity is as rare in Germany as he is frequent in America. This is, on the face of matters, noteworthy, since Germany is the chief factor and force in the theological ups and downs of our day.

The relief map of New Jersey emanating from the State Geological Survey has been provided with a very desirable and convenient overlay on transparent paper, bearing the geographical names of the leading towns, mountains, lakes, and other localities. This overlay is in three sheets, readily applied to the mount for the purpose of orientation.

—The Committee of Seven appointed by the American Historical Association at its meeting at Christmas, 1896, to consider the question of the teaching of history in the secondary schools of the country, held an important meeting at the University of Michigan on April 8 and 9. At this session the committee carefully investigated the general subject of college and university entrance requirements in history, with special reference to the kind and amount of history to be accepted as units in the so-called optional system of entrance examinations, as well as to what should be included under a rigid system of entrance requirements. The question of the lines of division between periods of history, and the content and emphasis within periods, were again discussed with a view of determining what periods and branches should be recommended for one, two, three, or four-year history courses in secondary schools. Although certain extremely important conclusions were arrived at, they have not as yet been finally formulated, but it is hoped and expected that at the next meeting of the American Historical Association, to be held in New Haven in December, the work of the committee will be so far advanced that a full report of its deliberations and recommendations may be presented to the Association, and, if approved, through it to secondary educators throughout the country. It has seemed at once unadvisable and impossible to present, as had been hoped, either a full or partial report before the opening of the next school year. The final report will not by any means be merely a study of college entrance requirements in history, but a study of history teaching in secondary schools generally, as regards courses, methods, equipment, and bibliography. It will embody the results of conferences with teachers in secondary schools, circulars, study of problems abroad by specialists and in this country by communication and personal consultation with teachers' associations everywhere. A bibliography of the entire field of history as a pedagogical subject is now being prepared by a student of the Library School at Albany, N. Y. So far as English titles go, it will be nearly exhaustive, and a full (through not a complete) bibliography of titles in modern European languages will be added. Besides this, shorter bibliographies of special value to teachers will be issued as soon as may be. Further, the committee hopes to present in its report several general methods of teaching history, numerous and flexible enough to be adapted to most contingencies and personalities in history instruction.

—Besides offering one European and one American fellowship each year, the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ has undertaken the task of recommending women who wish to study at foreign universities. It occasionally happens, among women as among men, that some one who is thoroughly unfitted to profit by the difficult lectures given at the German universities, wishes, for some freakish reason or other, to listen to them. Such persons are very apt to conduct themselves in all sorts of queer ways, and to cast dis-

credit upon the students who come for the purpose of serious study and who have had the right sort of preparation. A committee has therefore been formed by the Association which has added to itself distinguished professors of different American colleges, and which has put itself in communication with the principal universities of Germany. It will give an official letter of introduction to any young woman who applies to it and who can show that she has had an adequate amount of previous training. The idea has been received with much favor by the German university professors, who are often not in a position to know the difference between (say) Walla Walla University and a university of a more recognized standing. As an illustration of the good work which women are now doing in the higher ranks of the profession of teaching, it may be mentioned that one of the applicants this year for a letter of recommendation is already a professor in full charge of the department of mathematics in one of the agricultural colleges of New England, with several assistants under her who are men. The president of the college writes concerning her: "Miss —— is an excellent teacher, and has performed all her duties to the full and entire satisfaction of the president and corporation of the institution. The corporation has now given her a leave of absence for a year and a half. She has served on the committees for our courses of study, has been secretary of the faculty, and chairman of the board of examiners. In all these positions she has dispatched the work that presented itself with more than ordinary ability and cheerfulness of disposition." It is not every professor of the opposite sex who can show so good a record as this last.

—Mr. Edward Dana Durand's 'Finances of New York City' (Macmillan) is in part a compilation and in part a critical history of the subject. The statistical information given is valuable, and the author's history presents a good view of the whole subject. As a whole, the researches of the author tend to confirm the popular view that the trend of municipal forces in New York is towards a highly centralized management in the hands of a representative board. He says, indeed (p. 281), that "a large part of the people" have at last come to believe that the city legislature would become an improvable body (capable of financial control) if it only had more power; but his own review shows that the old legislature was deprived of its power because of the corrupt use made of it. He admits that the new Municipal Assembly is only the simulacrum of a legislature, and that the real control of the finances remains in the hands of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, except so far as the Legislature usurps it and the courts limit it. The great American contribution to municipal economics is really the discovery that the judiciary may be used to curb the wastefulness of debt-contracting bodies, through a constitutional limit. Were it not for the 10 per cent. limit on expenditure introduced into our Constitution some years since, we should be now on the high road to a new Tweed Ring. Mr. Durand does not seem to be in sympathy with the theory that a city is a business corporation which those who have something at stake ought to govern. His objection is that a city is a place of residence, where thousands of citizens who cannot accumulate property are compelled to live, and that the poor do actually pay taxes through rent or prices of commodities (p. 283). We do not perceive what bearing this has on the question, which is whether people should be allowed to raise money out of property they have not accumulated, and spend it on themselves. The only check on this that has ever been devised is to say that only the thrifty shall tax others. It is only in politics that the man who cannot manage his own affairs with foresight and prudence is allowed a voice in the management of the concerns of his fellows. It may, of course, be said on the other side that, although the present tax-laying body is fairly representative of the property-owners, it is still often very wasteful and lax; but defects will always exist. Because you cannot have a perfect check is no reason for not having any. The moral of the book is that every cent that can be spent will be spent. Is the dream of a great community permanently rich and at the same time without debt as far off as ever? We notice (p. 335) that the debt of San Francisco is merely nominal.

—The Cambridge (England) Antiquarian Society has published the first volume of the Luard Memorial Series, entitled 'Grace Book A,' and containing the proctors' accounts and other records of the University of Cambridge for the years 1454-1488 (Cambridge: Macmillan & Bowes). These ancient accounts are the dryest possible reading, but have their importance for the student of the days before the Renaissance. It is interesting to reflect that there was such a thing at Cambridge as a University Library before printed books were known except as curiosities. The University made but a precarious provision for the Librarian's salary. In 1463 (November 3) there is a memorandum providing that this functionary, called "custos librarie," should receive 40 shillings annually from the rent of the schools of Canon Law. On June 24 there is an entry of 20 shillings paid him, but this entry was subsequently erased. The Library is building when these accounts open. Expenses for the glazing of its windows and for lead are itemized in June, 1455. Also (and this is one of the heavy expenses of the University for the new Library) we have repeated sums laid out upon chains for chaining books to the library desks. The fire in the new college of Kings endangered the books, and the University paid roundly for the care of them during that emergency. In July, 1470, the University receives fourteen books, chiefly from the Earl of Worcester, pays for the covers, clasps, and chains; also for instruments by means of which they were labelled with their donors' names, as well as for the engrossing of a letter concerning the gift. Lists of the books on tablets hung in the Library were provided for. Scribes were paid for writing a list of all the books, which was sent to the Chancellor in 1477. The Chancellor figures as the giver of twelve books, for which the University provides chains in 1478. In the following year he gives twenty-seven volumes. The list of 1477 thus appears to have been sent to him as a means of enlightening his generosity. In his editorial Introduction, Mr. Stanley Leathes gives a list of the books pawned, many of them several times, for ready money. It is curious to note the connection, at Cambridge as at Oxford, of the beginnings of the University Library with this practice of raising the wind by a deposit of one or more volumes as security for a loan. Also, the casual mention in 1486 of a printed book received "ex dono Magistri stoyle" is noteworthy.

—The need, practically felt and practically provided for, of being on good terms with generous benefactors is illustrated by an item of five marks expended by the "dominus Cancellarius" in 1464 "pro placacione domini Comitis Wigorniæ." This is apparently the same John Tiptoft, Earl of Worcester, who gave books to the Library. During the illness of Henry VI., the University expended sixpence upon occasion of a procession made in 1454 for his recovery, and in 1459 they pay fourpence to the cross-bearer "in processione pro bono statu regis et regni." In the same year they pay Master Oliver King, the Proctor, 27 shillings for expenses in seeking out the King with letters from the University, and a further sum of 25 shillings and 4 pence for expenses in attending upon the King's chancellor, and securing his good will in a matter of University business. In the following year, we mark an item of 4 shillings and 8 pence "pro vino pro domino Cancellario angliæ," so that entertainment would seem to have been one sure means of currying favor. The whole arrangement and administration of "chests" founded by benefactors who wished to secure for their souls the prayers of frequenters of the University, gives a remarkable insight into mediæval practices. These chests, containing the sum bequeathed by the several benefactors whom they commemorated, were deposited in churches and administered by two Masters. Loans upon pledges were made, and if it came to a sale of the pledge, the sum loaned reverted to the chest, the balance to the borrower, who was bound to pray for the benefactor from whose chest he received his loan. Annual masses, too, for these benefactors were celebrated by the University, and their names were also gratefully mentioned with those of other benefactors at general masses. Several of these chests figure in these proctors' accounts from 1454 to 1487.

—The late Guido Fridolin Verbeck, who died at Tokyo on the 10th day of March, was the best alien speaker of Japanese in the world. He was "a man without a country," having left Holland before mature age, and the United States before naturalization. He represented the best traditions of both countries, while in heart and soul an American. Born in Zeist, Utrecht, January 23, 1830, this son of the Lutheran burgomaster was thoroughly educated in Dutch, German, French, and English. He thus obtained that mental discipline which enabled him to talk easily five languages, and to use eight with scholarly accuracy. His course in mechanical engineering at Utrecht further fitted him for nearly forty years of the most varied usefulness in Japan. In the early fifties he spent several years in Arkansas and Wisconsin, building marine engines; but his missionary zeal, caught in childhood from the Moravians of Zeist, led him into the ministry through the Auburn Theological Seminary. With the Rev. Drs. S. R. Brown, D.D., and Duane B. Simmons, M.D., he went to Japan, reaching Nagasaki in November, 1859. He began at once to help inquirers in all paths of science, and quickly gained the confidence of high and low. He was made teacher of the Government school of languages, and under him were educated scores

of men of the Samurai class who have since been active or eminent in making the new Japan. When that students' movement, continued during a century, brought about a revolution in 1868 and set the young Mikado in supreme authority in Yedo (now changed to Tokyo), which was made the national capital, the leaders called their old friend and helper from Nagasaki to aid and advise them. For several years Mr. Verbeck was the sole confidential adviser of the new Government. During the decade of his Tokyo service as unofficial attaché of the Cabinet, his multifarious services were those which only a cosmopolitan linguist and scholar, absolutely trusted by a naturally suspicious and sensitive people, could perform. He translated into Japanese the Code Napoléon, Bluntschli's 'Staatsrecht,' 'Two Thousand Legal Maxims,' with commentary, the constitutions of the states of Europe and America, forest laws, compendiums of forms, and hundreds of other legal and political documents. He elaborated the national scheme of popular education in 1871. He was immediately influential in stopping persecution of native Christians. It was he who in 1869 conceived the idea, and planned the details, of that embassy round the world which in 1871-'73 made Japan so well known abroad, and which so potently turned the national mind to ideas of progress. When its personnel was made known, Dr. Verbeck found that over one-half were his former pupils at Nagasaki. Returning to direct missionary work in 1878, Dr. Verbeck spent seven years in translating the Book of Psalms. In 1890, desiring to become an American citizen, and finding insuperable obstacles on account of long absence, he asked to be naturalized as a Japanese. Unable as yet, in view of the revision of treaties, to grant his request, the Japanese Government gave him a passport allowing him or any member of his family to reside or travel anywhere in the Japanese empire. Rarely seeking or allowing even ordinary publicity concerning his work, it is to be hoped he has left some reminiscences or sketches of history.

GABRIELE D'ANNUNZIO.

The Intruder. Translated by Arthur Hornblow. George H. Richmond.

The Maidens of the Rocks. Translated by Annetta Halliday-Antona and Giuseppe Antona. George H. Richmond.

The American translator of Gabriele D'Annunzio's novels has not followed the order of their composition. More than a year ago Mr. Hornblow published 'The Triumph of Death,' the third of a series called "Romances of the Rose"; now he gives us the second of that series, known in Italian as 'L'Innocente,' in French as 'L'Intrus,' and in English as 'The Intruder.' In this arrangement Mr. Hornblow appears to have been guided by the patent-medicine formula which advises a mild dose at first, to be increased if the system can stand it. The public, having absorbed 'The Triumph of Death' without serious revolt, is assumed to be able to stomach 'The Intruder.' Of the two, 'The Intruder' is the more concentrated and vehement study of lust. The author is not so often diverted from his theme by the attractions of other forms of disease in the world about him. His imagination, with its power of producing vague, mystic impressions, its detachment from actuality, has almost no share in the performance. His consciousness of corruption is equally evident, but his perception of any reasonably healthy and clean estate even more obscure and limited. The story is a confession by Tullio Hermil of his indiscriminate adultery, of his wife's infidelity, and of his murder of her child--a crime tacitly acquiesced in by her.

The author's ideal of virtue and high morality is expressed in Juliana Hermil, and needs no comment. In one way the whole book is less shocking than this bare statement of the drama, for neither Hermil, nor Juliana, nor the sacrificial infant has much objective reality, but serves chiefly to give definiteness and continuity to subjective discussion of instincts, impulses, and emotions which the word "depraved" describes correctly but not harshly. The incidents, like the persons, are of no great importance for their own sake; nothing is very significant except the spectacle of a man abnormally sensitive to physical impressions, dismally indecent, sometimes brutally coarse, thrusting himself before the world naked and unashamed. It is true that he has not thrust himself upon an English-speaking world, has not deliberately exposed his unhappy personality to a people alien in temperament, unsympathetic in thought, and of hostile literary tradition. Mr. Hornblow and others must bear the burden of that indiscretion and settle it with their phantom consciences. It would be wise for many reasons if English reviewers would consent to ignore these miserable translations which put the author in the worst possible light. But the shadow of a European reputation is upon us, and we cannot bear an imputation of cowardice, or stupidity, or defective culture, or a quite ridiculous, and of course hypocritical, preference for reticence about the infamies of human nature. So, far from observing a policy of silence during the last two or three months, English reviewers have been discussing the appalling Italian with a fluency which he might envy, and often with an obscurity such as he achieves only in his most mystic moments.

All of us, English and American, know perfectly well that the most licentious of our own literature is vigorous and clean in comparison with D'Annunzio's "Romances of the Rose," and that, in these later days, a similar corruption has been paraded only by a few emasculated creatures whose notoriety has been transient. The most unscrupulous and ingenious of us all would have to be hanged at daybreak if our salvation should be made dependent on a clear and exact statement of any loss to English literature or life by such limitation. To make these simple statements would seem an easy duty, yet that European reputation, and the terror of seeming to care more for morals than for art, have, in the blunt phrase of the street, knocked most of the critics silly. They all hasten to assure us that in English justice cannot be done to one who needs the benefit of both justice and mercy, but here is the beginning and end of certainty and unanimity.

The great attention given to the morality of the books shows how we can't help caring more for that than for any kind of art that chiefly defines itself by shocking every feeling for morality. It is discovered by one buoyant spirit that D'Annunzio is not immoral because, though lust is his theme, he deals with it philosophically, and his philosophy condemns it. By his philosophy is probably meant his speculations on the causes of effects, his implications and conclusions about the reason of existence and its meanings. Though his philosophy is, indeed, a most voluble arraignment of lust, to a mind unconcerned for justification or apology it must also appear the essence of his corruption. It refers all of life to physical sensation, degrades mind, and annihilates spirit. The philosophy summarized in "Let us eat, drink, and be merry, for tomorrow we die," proclaims at least a hearty animalism, and is a message of light and joy beside D'Annunzio's "Let us desire and sate and loathe ourselves, only to plunge into grosser abomination, until, worn out, diseased, mad, we die." A philosophy which assumes universal uncleanness, indicating no means of purification while impotently frothing about the unpleasantness of our state, is not a philosophy to temper representations of immorality.

The critics who sagaciously wink at the question of morals and expend themselves in eulogy of the author's perception of artistic beauty and power "to recreate a beautiful world" out of any material, however unpromising, are on safer ground. As a race we are very feeble in perception of artistic beauty and unsure of judgment. A bold enough bluff will at least succeed in producing much trouble and confusion of spirit. Therefore, when we are told that D'Annunzio is compound of pagan joyousness and Latin delight in mere physical sensation, which we can never understand, but should take for granted and admire and wonder at with respectful awe, few of us have the self-assurance to turn a deaf ear to such well-meant admonition. Yet it may occur to any one that as a figure for joy, pagan or Christian, D'Annunzio would never recognize himself; and a little reflection will suggest to English readers that what he most clearly derives from the pagans (from Greek and Latin literature) is not joy, but a depressing fatalism, which has not given his work the dignity of inevitable tragedy, or the courage of stoicism, or, the beauty of tranquil, unemotional intellectuality. Beauty of phrase and image he undoubtedly commands, and yet his taste is so bad that he can begin a sentence in the language of poetry and finish it in the language of pathology. The only influence for good he has had on Italian literature has been to inspire a closer attention to style. The "Latin renaissance" foreseen by M. de Vogüé several years ago has never come off. D'Annunzio has not the stuff of a leader in him. No writer whose whole power lies in the expression of himself ever led a movement or founded a school. Any confusion of opinion about the kind of power on which his claim to rank in letters must rest, is dispelled by his last work.

Having completed the "Romances of the Rose," after a period of what his translator calls "iuternal decomposition," D'Annunzio began the "Romances of the Lily," and the first of that series has just been translated under the title, 'The Maidens of the Rocks.' This is almost entirely an expression of his poetical quality, defying the test of reason and having almost no relation to the facts of life. The beautiful maidens, daughters of a princely house and doomed to madness, may symbolize something, but ordinary intelligence displays only proper caution in not hazarding a guess. The emotional atmos-

phere is all that is worth considering, and its texture is so delicate and mysterious that the breath of inquiry puts it in peril of destruction. D'Annunzio has been compared with the English Pre-Raphaelites, the French Naturalists, the Russian Realists. His likeness to any of these is superficial—hardly more than may be attributed to the pressure of his age. But in the 'Maidens of the Rocks' there is an essential likeness, of spirit and of indefinable poetic mysticism, to the American poet who owed least to external influences, Edgar Allan Poe. The impression of misery and madness revives the impression of 'The House of Usher,' and the picture of the walled garden set in a land rent and scarred by burning lava calls up instantly that mad vision of

"—— the dark tarn of Auber
By the ghoul-haunted woodlands of Weir."

The translation of 'The Maidens of the Rocks,' done by Annetta and Giuseppe Antona, is as faulty in detail as a translation can be, with abundant elementary mistakes in grammar; but it gives the impression of the original much more forcibly than do the translations of the "Romances of the Rose." In this first "Romance of the Lily" there are but few lapses into indecency; which suggests that, after another period of "internal decomposition," the author, whose sins have been as scarlet, may appear white as snow.

BOOKS ON ART AND ARTISTS.

Letters of Dante Gabriel Rossetti to William Allingham, 1854-1870. By George Birkbeck Hill, D.C.L., LL.D., Honorary Fellow of Pembroke College, Oxford, Editor of Boswell's 'Life of Johnson,' etc. Frederick A. Stokes Co.

J. F. Millet and Rustic Art. By Henry Naegely (Henry Gaëlyn). London: Elliot Stock. 1898.

The Bases of Design. By Walter Crane. London: George Bell & Sons. 1898.

Windows: A Book about Stained and Painted Glass. By Lewis F. Day. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897.

Peter Paul Rubens. By R. A. M. Stevenson. (The Portfolio.) The Macmillan Co.

Painting and Decorating. By Walter J. Pearce. London: Charles Griffin & Co., Ltd.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

There is more about poetry than about painting in Rossetti's letters to Allingham, naturally enough, considering to whom they were written; and there is more anecdote and personal gossip in the volume than information or discussion on either painting or poetry. Much the greater part of what is amusing in the book is supplied by the editor, whose notes are often much longer than the letters to which they refer. Dr. Hill has evidently much knowledge of his own, and he has used a drag-net on all published and unpublished sources of information, and where Rossetti mentions a name the editor instantly supplies a description or a story. By these means he has made a rather entertaining collection out of letters which are for the most part very bald and trivial. There are hardly half-a-dozen letters in the set that contain anything of importance, or anything worth publishing either in itself or for any light it throws upon the pre-Raphaelite movement.

What is most welcome is the reproduction of a couple of drawings by Miss Siddal. The Brotherhood were all crazy about Miss Siddal. Ruskin bought all her drawings, and thought them better than Rossetti's "or almost anybody's"; and Rossetti himself, who thought none but the P. R.'s worthy to be included in the illustrated Tennyson, wanted her included. Here are two of the drawings, and they are almost incredible. Some of Rossetti's own early drawings are feeble enough in all conscience, and some, even, of Millais's; but such childish inefficiency as Miss Siddal's is phenomenal. Perhaps they contain the treasures of sentiment that her admirers found in them, but her knowledge of drawing is about equal to that of any school-girl. One is tempted to wonder if, in her case as in many others, the amount of "feeling" discoverable by the willing mind is not in inverse ratio to the amount of knowledge. There is so much else to look at in a drawing that is well done that nobody thinks of looking for sentiment in it; bud if a drawing is obviously bad, it *must* have sentiment, for it has nothing else. Rossetti did in the end achieve certain technical virtues, though his work always remained faulty enough to please, but it is well known that Millais became intolerable as soon as he learned to paint. We all know now that his was an essentially vulgar and bourgeois soul, but pre-Raphaelite sentiment clung to his work so long as pre-Raphaelite feebleness of technique impeded his hand. If one would be credited with a poetic soul, it is a great mistake to learn to paint.

Mr. Naegely's book on Millet is disappointing. The author knew Millet and is on friendly terms with the painter's family, and one hoped for new matter from him. A little new matter there is, but very little. One or two errors are corrected, one or two fragments of Millet's manuscript are now first printed, and we are given a series of letters from Millet's grandmother and mother. These things are valuable and welcome, but they constitute a very small part of the volume before us. They make it necessary that that part shall be consulted by the future writer on Millet, who will, nevertheless, wish that the rest of the volume had never been written. The bulk of it consists of reflections on "Rustic Art," which are more noticeable for energy of statement than for lucidity of thought. The author is on the right track in protesting against the delusion that Millet was somehow a great artist in spite of an inability to paint and to draw, and feels dimly the truth that the master could both paint and draw in a masterly way; but he is, unfortunately, unable to explain what he feels, and the impression left by the most of what is here written is that of sound and fury, signifying, indeed, something, but something very misty. We are a little inclined to protest, at any rate, against this phrase, "Rustic Art." There is art, and there is that which is not art. Millet was an artist and the lineal descendant of Michelangelo; his "rusticity" is more or less an accident. When his work shall be analyzed by a competent critic who shall be willing to ignore the nature of his subjects, and to point out the relation of his art to all the other good art that has existed, we shall be in the way to understand him better. It is much easier to talk of subjects than of technical matters, and to sentimentalize about the "Angelus" than to point out the purely artistic merits of one of the great painters of the world. So far as his "peasantry" goes, wherein is Millet better than Jules Breton? The infinite difference between the two is a difference of art. One was a master of synthetic drawing and color, and the other—well, it is not here necessary to characterize the other. The book on Millet remains, however, to be written.

Another disappointing book is that by Walter Crane. The author explains this, to some extent, in his preface, where, after stating that the substance of his volume "originally formed a series of lectures addressed to the students of the Manchester Municipal School of Art," he adds: "The field covered is an extensive one, and I am conscious that many branches of my subject are only touched, whilst others are treated in a very elementary manner. Every chapter, indeed, might be expanded into a volume, under such far-reaching headings, to give to each section anything like adequate treatment." To the discerning reader this paragraph is doubly explanatory, for not only does it show how the author was tempted to try to cover too great a field in a small book, but its very style betrays the lack of that breadth and grasp and clearness of mind which would be necessary to anything approaching a successful condensation of his matter into a limited compass. It soon becomes evident upon perusal that the system of the book is confined to the "far-reaching headings," and that anything in one chapter might almost as well have fallen in any other. Mr. Crane is one of those who have something to say, but can by no means contrive to say it. What was needed was a clear and systematic statement of principles, condensed almost to a "primer," with few and well-chosen examples. What he has given us is a large and promiscuous selection of examples with the most confused and inadequate thread of comment. There are long passages of many pages where the statement of principles disappears entirely, to make room for what reads like a poor condensation of some general History of Art.

Mr. Day's book on 'Windows' is a very good and very sensible one. It is rather a history of the art of glass than a theoretic treatise on the principles of the art, and it concerns itself almost entirely with the glass of the past and very little with that of to-day. A page or two only is devoted to "new departures," in which the experiments of Mr. La Farge are sympathetically referred to. Mr. Day's own notions of the proper technic of window-making and of the relative value of different methods and epochs are, however, made sufficiently plain. He is almost provokingly catholic, and is ready to admit with heartiness the merit of much work that he must consider to be done on wrong principles; but his general conclusion is undoubtedly that when the art of glass forsook the way of mosaic for that of painting, it sold its proper birthright for a mess of pottage. The more one follows in detail the history of stained glass as here set forth, the more one is likely to be confirmed in the conclusion that the so-called American method is the only logical one, and that our designers have begun to do what was never done before—to apply the talent of educated painters to the bringing out of the natural and essential qualities of glass.

A book in all but form is Mr. Stevenson's monograph on Rubens which forms the January number of the *Portfolio*, and a bet-

ter book than many within bound covers. Mr. Stevenson is a somewhat extreme advocate of the doctrine of paint for paint's sake, but this, perhaps, makes him the more sympathetic interpreter of that great wielder of the brush. Rubens was, indeed, something more than a technician, or even than a Flemish naturalist, and the queer fusion of traditions in his work and his essentially classic nature still await their definitive interpreter. Mr. Stevenson gives us many acute observations and much clear insight besides the necessary facts and dates, and his contribution to this useful series is a worthy one.

'Painting and Decorating' is a book on a trade rather than on art. Its author is a practical painter and decorator, and his book is something like a series of recipes. He gives chapters on plant and materials, on paper-hanging, distempering, painting, varnishing, graining, gilding, lettering, measuring, and estimating, and coach-painting, as well as some general ideas on ornament and color. The volume is not meant for the artist or the general reader, but seems likely to fulfil its end of usefulness to those intending to become house-painters.

BONAPARTE AND MOREAU.

The Campaign of Marengo, with Comments. By Herbert H. Sargent, 1st Lieut. 2d Cavalry, U. S. A., etc. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 12mo, pp. 240; maps.

Mr. Sargent's former volume on Napoleon's first campaign insures a welcome for this on the campaign of Marengo. We find the same clearness of analysis, the same intelligent comprehension of the situation and lucidity of description. The reader renews the satisfaction with which he perused the former book and approved the plan of separate handy volumes for distinct campaigns.

The critical study of Napoleon's military career is still fruitful. We only gradually free ourselves from the domination of his intellect and his authority. We are kept back from real criticism by the feeling that it is presumptuous for an ordinary man to sit in judgment on his masterpieces. We fall easily into the habit of drawing our canons of criticism from his practice instead of applying rules to his conduct of war. No man was ever more independent than he in reasoning from principle; but we hold our principles with a timid grasp when we find ourselves doubting his infallibility. When Bonaparte swiftly concentrates his forces and strikes right and left as at Montenotte and Castiglione, we applaud to the echo; but when, in the same theatre, he scatters his divisions, makes eccentric movements, and delivers the battle of Marengo piecemeal, we cry out, "Strategy, my boy," and go far afield to hunt reasons for believing that black is white. His amazing good fortune never stood him in better stead than at Marengo, or better won the title to be "his star." Yet fortune might have lavished the same favors on a weaker man, and he would not have known how to use them. There is the difference. Mr. Sargent has modestly thought it necessary to apologize for venturing in his "comments" to bring Bonaparte's movements to the test of military principles. We must thank him for doing so, even if we do not always find our judgment going with the criticism. It is only in that way that we shall learn. He might well have gone further.

The First Consul's relation to Moreau's campaign on the upper Rhine and Danube is properly made part of the history of Marengo. The two campaigns were necessarily parts of one whole. The belittling treatment of Moreau by Napoleon at Saint Helena has been commonly accepted as a sound judgment; but Napoleon was never so unscrupulous as when dealing with rivals. Moreau's service with the Allies after his banishment from France offended French sensibilities, and he has been a striking example of a general who, in his time, had a towering reputation, but who, after his death, had no friends. The French, even Republicans, would not praise him, because he joined the enemies of France, and Germans were willing to ignore him because he was a Frenchman. He fell between two stools. Yet we may be sure that the allied sovereigns would not have made him their chief military adviser in the campaign of 1813 if that of 1800 had not left him with a great European renown. Napoleon's prestige had been greatly shaken by the campaign of Moscow, and it is significant that, over all the generals then prominent, Moreau was taken after a dozen years of retirement—years of activity of armies on a scale to blot out the remembrance of what had gone before. As he spent those years of banishment in America, Americans have a call to see that justice is done him.

General Gourgaud, in the Saint Helena 'Mémoires,' records Napoleon's statement that the First Consul planned that Moreau, whose army lay along the Rhine from Mayence to Basle, should march up the river to Schaffhausen, there build four bridges, cross over and attack the Austrian army's left flank, crush it, and place himself on the line of the enemy's communications at Ulm on the Danube. Napoleon sneeringly said that Moreau was incapable of carrying out or even of understanding such a movement *(incapable d'exécuter et même de comprendre un pareil mouvement)*, and proposed instead to cross the Rhine at Mayence, Strasbourg, and Basle. A compromise was finally made by which a movement on Schaffhausen up the east side of the river and an additional crossing there was added to the others. The sneer has gone into history as a conclusive judgment on Moreau's military intellect, and reappears with regularity. It well illustrates the abdication of independent judgment by military writers in the presence of Napoleon's unscrupulous and audacious egotism.

The merit of Napoleon's plan lay in its simplicity, not its profundity; and, when once stated, "wayfaring men, though fools, shall not err therein." To say that Moreau did not know the value of flank attack and of operating against his enemy's communications, and could not understand them when stated, is ridiculous. Neither Moreau, nor Hoche, nor Dumouriez, nor Masséna, nor Jourdan, nor Saint-Cyr, nor any other of the generals who had won victories for the Republic, was so ignorant of the a b c of military art as that, or so fat-witted that he could not comprehend so simple a plan and its advantages. The difficulty lay in the execution, not in the comprehension of it. Moreau's army had wintered in the Rhine Valley, and was in four corps—three of them along the river from Basle through Strasbourg to Mayence, and one in Switzerland. To concentrate at Schaffhausen would require an average march of a hundred miles by the flank for three-fourths of the army, and the building of the four bridges at their crossing-place from material to be collected on the spot. At and below Basle the French had three bridges, with fortified bridge-heads on the German side. These were to be left unused while the long flank march was made to a place where there was no means of crossing but such as could be improvised, for the army was not supplied with pontoons. The Austrians under Kray were on the opposite bank, keenly watching the French, each army something more than a hundred thousand strong. The bend of the river around the highlands of the Black Forest made it a much shorter march for Kray to concentrate near Schaffhausen than for Moreau. It was not a question of stealing a day's march on an adversary, it was a flank march of several days for a great army, whose movements would almost certainly be known. The greater part of the march would be in Switzerland, where was much dislike of the French masters, and a volunteer body of Swiss *émigrés* was serving with the Austrians.

Under these circumstances, Moreau thought the movement could not be concealed, and that it was therefore better and quicker to cross by the bridges already in his possession. Gouvion Saint-Cyr, who was second in rank to Moreau, and who wrote after Gourgaud's 'Mémoires' had appeared, believed a surprise would have been impossible, especially as Basle, through which the greater part of the army must march, swarmed with intelligent and enterprising spies, who were in good relations with the Swiss. Moreau's movement was, in fact, a success, and he concentrated his army against Kray's left wing, building bridges at Schaffhausen behind his army after the movement. Napoleon's plan not being tried, historians are at liberty to consider it done because it was suggested, and to tell us how much Moreau lost by not adopting it. Had Napoleon tried to carry it out himself, his unmatched fertility of resource in the face of difficulties might have found some other way if this had failed; but then he would have told us at Saint Helena of the new plans he carried out, and not of the old one that miscarried. Moreau's own plan, however, was to attack Kray at his right centre opposite Strasbourg, and Marshal Saint-Cyr tells us that the Austrians were so scattered that this promised excellent results, with the advantage of opening the campaign earlier by nearly a month, when time was of immense importance in the start of Napoleon to relieve Masséna, who was enduring starvation in Genoa.

Another gloss upon the history of this campaign which we often meet with, and which Mr. Sargent seems to accept, is that Napoleon thought of taking command of the army of the Rhine in person, and that Moreau's jealousy prevented his serving as second. There were such other reasons that it is misleading to speak of jealousy. Bonaparte was violating the Constitution by taking personal command in the field at all, when he was First Consul. He could use Berthier in that way in the Marengo campaign, as he could use him in any other *coup d'état*, but Moreau would not be so used. Berthier was nominally General-in-Chief, and Bonaparte was apparently a guest at headquarters; but most people fail to remember that Berthier was even the man-of-straw, so completely did his master nullify him.

The Army of the Rhine had not come under the witchery of Bonaparte's personal leadership, and its *esprit de corps* retained a republican tinge to the end. Its officers were slow to adopt the display which became fashionable under the Empire. Even as late as the Russian campaign of 1812, Marbot tells us how, at Polotsk, Saint-Cyr, with only a long *redingote bleue* for uniform, without epaulets or other insignia, looked more like a professor than a general of the Empire, at the very time when he received the marshal's bâton. The same conclusive testimony asserts that this republican simplicity was still a mark of many men who had fought under Moreau. They were rarely promoted till they became a necessity to the Emperor, and they got used to seeing their juniors of inferior talent promoted over their heads. Gourgaud does not venture to put into Napoleon's mouth the assertion that Moreau's jealousy was the obstacle to his taking command of the Army of the Rhine. It was too notorious that it was the army itself that he feared. Napoleon only said, as Gourgaud reports, that the internal disturbance of the republic (*l'agitation intérieure*) made it unadvisable to leave the capital so early as the opening of the campaign. Yet it is probably true that Moreau declared that he would be no figure-head, and that when the First Consul came to camp, he would leave. The situation was a critical one, and the episode is well worth studying.

La Vie de Jean-Arthur Rimbaud. Par Paterne Berrichon. Paris: Société du *Mercure de France.* 1897.

The life of Arthur Rimbaud has been until now obscured by a fog of uncertainties. His sudden appearance in the literary sky of France was followed by as sudden an extinction, like a sheet of heat lightning, seen for an instant only, and then disappearing in the collied night. M. Berrichon's book dissipates this mystery, and brings Rimbaud's brief and disordered life into full view.

Arthur Rimbaud, the son of a captain in the French army, was born at Charleville in the Ardennes, on October 20, 1854. He was a precocious boy, wild and shy, always in rebellion both at home and in school. At school, however, he showed extraordinary cleverness, and some of his rhetorical exercises, written between the ages of eight and twelve, are really astonishing pieces of composition. Within the next year or two he had read the usual Latin classics, and had translated into French verse Juvenal, Tibullus, and Propertius, besides extensive reading in French literature and more than the usual work in mathematics and science. At fifteen he declared flatly that he would have no more to do with schools, and when his mother, whose turn of mind seems to have held even more closely to the peasant than to the bourgeois type, attempted coercion, he ran away from home to the Ville-Lumière, all ready to commence Parisian and Parnassian. He had not money enough to pay his fare all the way to Paris, but he hid himself and went on with his train, and, at the end of the journey, since he had no ticket to show, he was, of course, arrested, committed to Mazas as a vagabond, and after three days sent home again. This was the first of several escapades of the same sort. Once he set out for Belgium without a sou, hoping to obtain some newspaper work at Charlerol, which he did not get, and so made his way back on foot as a tramp.

When the siege of Paris was raised, he sold his watch, and at once set out for that city. It was cold weather then. He knew no one, and suffered miserably for a week, almost without food and sleep, dragging himself home at last on foot. It was of this period that he wrote in 'Un Saison en Enfer.' Once more, during the Commune, he tried the capital and failed, although some small sums of money, which he wasted at once, were raised for him by certain Communists. Once more he returned to Charleville, and there wrote his astonishing poem, the "Bateau Ivre," a most remarkable production for a boy of his years, or, indeed, for any writer. At this point he introduced himself to Verlaine by writing to him, and received in reply an urgent invitation to return to Paris and become a member of the Verlaine household. His hosts knew nothing of him, and great was the astonishment of Mme. Verlaine to find that the much-looked-for poet was a ragged boy of seventeen. Verlaine's astonishment and delight at discovering him knew no bounds, and at once was begun that singular intimacy about which so much has been written, and of which the obscurer parts have perhaps not yet been fully brought to light. Then followed the only portion of Rimbaud's life that has hitherto been, even imperfectly, known to the public. From October, 1871, to July, 1872, Rimbaud remained in Paris, lodging at Théodore de Banville's, at a hotel in the Rue Racine, and finally in furnished apartments offered him by Verlaine. The thirteen months between July, 1872, and August, 1873, were occupied by the journeys that he made with Verlaine and their very curious experiences of travel in Belgium and in England.

It was upon their return into Belgium that the bond between them was violently broken. Verlaine was eager that their life in common should continue, while Rimbaud had made up his mind to break it off. Verlaine's family also intervened, attempting to reclaim him to household duties. At the end of an excited discussion, Verlaine, finding Rimbaud obdurate, drew a revolver from his pocket and fired, wounding him in the left arm. Then followed a tearful, even a somewhat hysterical, scene of reconciliation. But Rimbaud had not changed his mind, and a new quarrel broke out in the street as the friends were returning from the hospital where the wound had been dressed, when Verlaine fired on him a second time, and pursued him along the sidewalk with a view to further persuasion. For this assault Verlaine was arrested, and received in punishment the two years of seclusion which he describes in 'Mes Prisons.' Rimbaud, though wounded and in the hospital, was expelled from Belgium. He went home for a brief period, and then followed sojourns, none of them long, in England, where he taught French, and in Stuttgart, where he learned German. Here, in 1875, Verlaine sought and found him, and the two poets were together for the last time.

A passion for the Orient had sprung up in Rimbaud's mind, and soon after Verlaine's visit he set out, in characteristic fashion, selling his trunk and travelling by railway as far as his money enabled him to pay for tickets. That was not very far, and he had to foot it over the Saint-Gothard and came down into Italy well worn by cold and hunger. He got no further than Leghorn, where he was obliged to betake himself to a hospital, whence he was returned to France. In 1876 he set out again, this time with more success, owing to some attacks which he made on the family purse, and to a transaction in the Netherlands which was of the nature of bounty-jumping. This brought him at last to the East, to Java and Sumatra. He was quite too proud of soul, his biographer tells us, and had too high a sense of honor and dignity to accept submission, and still less military discipline, and was also endowed by nature with quite too large a moral comprehension to feel any scruple in cheating military tyrants; so, finding himself hindered by army regulations from wandering about as he liked, he took the key of the fields and deserted, working his way westward on an English ship. The captain of this vessel, a man devoid of sensibility, refused to put in at St. Helena—although Rimbaud was eager to visit the spot that was once Napoleon's tomb—and must have been much surprised to see him manifest his individuality by jumping overboard and attempting to swim ashore.

Then followed a year or more in Europe, filled with strange shifts and devices for getting money enough to return to the East. The most honorable of these was perhaps a visit that Rimbaud made to Norway and Sweden as interpreter for a travelling circus. At last he attained his end, and found himself in Egypt, where he began a mercantile life, starting at the very bottom of the ladder. The rest of his years call for little more than bare mention. His natural parts, his cleverness, the ease with which he acquired languages and the like, helped him to some degree of success in money-making. He spent ten years in Asia Minor and in Africa, chiefly at Aden and at Harrar, an African town colonized by the Egyptians and dependent on their government. Literature he completely forgot, writing nothing within the ten years except a "Rapport sur l'Ogadine," communicated by him to the Société de Géographie. In 1890 he was attacked by a lameness having its origin in synovitis, which, through carelessness of himself, became greatly aggravated. His constitution also, no doubt, had been much racked by early excesses and neglects, and his case soon became a very serious one. He was carried to the coast on a litter and regained France, where his leg was amputated. He survived the operation and made a partial recovery, but at the age of thirty-seven he was already worn out, and died in the Hospital of the Conception at Marseilles on the 10th of November, 1891.

Rimbaud will be known in the future, one may suppose, chiefly from his connection with Verlaine. In that curious friendship, which was the tempter and which the lost soul, which was the inspirer or the awakener, and which the inspired or awakened, it may be hard to say. But one cannot on the instant accept M. Berrichon's belief that it was Rimbaud, and not Verlaine, who was the protagonist. Rimbaud was a poet of individuality, who spoke out of his own temperament his own thoughts with force that was not devoid of grace. But his verse can hardly be compared, to his advantage, with the limpid beauty of the stream of Verlaine's poetry where it moves in gentle flow over the shallows, or with the strong rush of its deeper currents.

Nullification and Secession in the United States. By Edward Payson Powell. Putnams. 1897. Pp. xi, 461.

Mr. Powell has written a book with which students of American history will wish to make themselves acquainted, but which is likely to receive diverse appreciation. Neither a detailed history nor yet a commentary, it partakes somewhat of the nature of both. It will be useful to those only who are already familiar with the general course of events, yet it is often annoyingly careless about statements of fact. It is clearly the fruit of much reading and some thinking; but, even if the author did not warn us that it "is undeniably written for a purpose," one could not go far without feeling sure that Mr. Powell has an axe to grind. Avowing no sympathy for slavery, nullification, or disunion, nor for their supporters, the way in which "certain accepted heroes" are scored would have warmed many an ante-bellum Southern heart. Of respect for received opinions Mr. Powell shows little trace, and both authority and tradition, when weighed in his balance, are often found wanting. The style is vigorous and pungent, and at least makes clear enough the author's point of view, even though it be not successful in winning assent to his opinions.

The main thesis which Mr. Powell sets himself to defend is the not unfamiliar one that the idea of "an indestructible Union composed of indestructible States" not only was not the generally accepted or well understood theory of our Government when the Constitution went into operation, but was repeatedly denied by political leaders, and repudiated by concerted action in different sections of the country at different times. In support of this proposition, he examines in succession the discussions and events connected with the Alien and Sedition acts and the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions of 1798, the plot for a Northern confederacy in 1803-'4, Burr's conspiracy, the attitude of New England during the war of 1812, the nullification movement in South Carolina in 1832, and, finally, the consummation of secession in 1861. The treatment of these various divisions is of uneven merit, the chapter on nullification in South Carolina being, so far as substance is concerned, rather slight; nor does Mr. Powell confine himself very strictly to the particular subject in hand. On each of his main points, however, he has brought together an array of extracts from letters, speeches, public resolutions, and the like, which, if this were all there was to be said on the subject, might well cause some rattling among the dry bones, and which, in any case, quite suffice to confirm the statement of the preface, that "political righteousness has not been the exclusive property of any one part of the United States."

The trouble, of course, is that there is another side to the case. Mr. Powell writes about the history of ideas of nullification and secession much as a prosecuting attorney argues against the prisoner at the bar; that is, he makes the most of everything favorable to the view for which he is contending, and pursues relentlessly the uttermost ramifications of political or personal motive. It is not without value, and is even, at times, brilliantly done; but it is nothing but special pleading, after all. We can, for example, readily admit, with Mr. Powell, that the Federalists, confronted by the immense task of organizing the new government, made serious mistakes of judgment; that under Adams they pushed matters to the verge; and that, after 1801, their influence was sometimes pernicious, without at the same time conceding that they were so infatuated with England as to be ready to sacrifice the United States, or that their leaders were incompetent and venal because they were not saints. That Hamilton was a restless politician as well as a statesman, and that neither his public nor his private life will bear critical examination at every point, does not detract from the worth of his achievements, or make Burr any more a paragon of virtue. Marshall may well have had his full share of the infirmities common to man, and he may not have been the greatest jurist the world has yet produced, although learned and critical judges have ranked him very high; but we need more evidence and better argument than Mr. Powell has adduced to convince us that Marshall, in reaching the conclusion that it was "the people" who assented to the Constitution, made "a zigzag use of facts" (p. 68).

Mr. Powell, indeed, seems to go out of his way, at times, to minimize the importance of the Supreme Court. His disparagement of Marshall, for the latter's theory of the Constitution and conduct during the Burr trial, is one instance only. As to Mr. Powell's theory of the matter, his position does not appear to differ essentially from that of Jackson. The Supreme Court is a body of learned but fallible men set up to render decisions on certain legal questions; but its opinions have no moral weight unless endorsed by the people. It is the people who pass finally on the meaning of the Constitution; and if the opinion of the Court and the opinion of the people happen to differ, the latter nullifies the former. "The real final authority of our government has been the common sense of the people acting as States. That the people have rectified not only legislative but legal blundering is an historic fact. They correct or negative Congressional work with promptitude, but have learned to be more patient with the Court" (p. 76). Mr. Powell then goes on to show that the life tenure of judges "has served to separate the judiciary from the other branches of Government in spirit and sympathy" (p. 78); that "it was a general suspicion of the judiciary department that made the acceptance of the Constitution so very close in 1789" (p. 79); and that, in the successive periods of our history, "the Supreme Court has in every instance thrown its influence against popular rights," and "has already cast its wavering voice, in the social struggle, for the wealthy as a class" (p. 80). How far this is either correct history or reasonable interpretation, we leave the reader to judge.

We have called attention to these apparently subsidiary points in Mr. Powell's book partly because they show the spirit in which he has written, and partly because we are unable to think that, on his main point, he has achieved any marked success. Indeed, we are inclined to doubt whether, along the line he has pursued, success is to be had. That the controversy over the earliest theories as to the nature of the Constitution still goes on, is largely due to the persistent effort to discover a theory where none existed. The framers of the Constitution were not engaged in elaborating a political philosophy, but in founding a government. Whether it was to endure but for a day, or whether it might haply be perpetual, no one knew, and some hardly dared to think. What they did know well, however, was that the Constitution must be, in some important respects, a work of compromise, and that the simpler its provisions, the more likely was it to be given a chance to live. They commended it to the country as a practical adjustment of serious interests; and they laid stress on the practical benefits likely to flow from it, and not on its harmony with this or that theory of sovereignty or allegiance. Any clear and general understanding that the Union thus created was to be indissoluble, that no State could withdraw from it under any circumstances short of general consent, or that the era of experiment was passed, cannot be shown, to entire satisfaction, by historical inquiry; there is too much evidence on each side. What has come about is that the perpetuity of the Union is seen to rest, not upon the fact that at a particular time it was declared to be perpetual, but upon the fact that, the circumstances being what they have been, it cannot possibly be conceived of as anything else. It is the nascent consciousness of a national existence grounded in the nature of things, and struggling to establish itself against political theories radically opposed to it, that gives to the movements which Mr. Powell has studied their vividness and importance; and it is because, as we think, Mr. Powell has failed to see this that he has failed to make to his subject a contribution of especial worth.

We note a few of the rather too numerous misstatements or misprints. The Jay treaty was proclaimed February 29, and not March 3, 1796 (p. 58). The Kentucky Resolutions of 1798 preceded those of Virginia by more than five weeks, instead of following them, as seems to be implied on p. 63. The Constitution does not fix the membership of the Supreme Court at nine (p. 74), or at any other number. The name of Jonathan Russell, one of the American commissioners in the negotiation of the treaty of Ghent, appears as John Russell (p. 225). It was Gov. Harrison of Indiana Territory, not of the Indian Territory (p. 161), to whom Burr had a letter. Hamilton's report on manufactures was submitted in 1791, not in 1787 (p. 256). Garrison did not denounce the Constitution as "a *league* with hell" (p. 336), nor did "a poor truckman" "seize a stake and drive off the mob" which was dragging Garrison through the street in Boston (p. 337). Lovejoy was killed in 1837, not in 1836.

The New England Primer. Edited by Paul Leicester Ford. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1897.

It was a pleasant conceit which led Mr. Ford to give to his elegantly sober volume a passing resemblance to the memorable booklet upon which he has lavished so much scholarly care. Charles Kingsley, in substance, said long ago that the Puritan had made his own reticence in outward garb the pattern for gentlemen of succeeding ages; and one is reminded of this good saying, in contrasting the pathetic humility of a 'New England Primer' with the decorous refinement of this monument reared to its memory.

After the pursuit of many paths of letters, Mr. Ford returns once more to bibliography, and the present tribute to his first love is worthy. There is a definite satisfac-

tion in recognizing in this book a finished task, something which calls for no doing a second time. Perchance there may turn up, though it is improbable, one or two more issues of the Primer; a few more rays of light may yet be shed on its earliest history; but such discoveries cannot affect the permanent soundness of Mr. Ford's book. To the mere precision and usual excessive detail of bibliography Mr. Ford has always brought a historian's sagacity and discrimination to such a degree that he has actually lifted a somewhat depressing if necessary science to higher possibilities. Not that he is wholly alone in this accomplishment, but what he has done, has been done in a characteristic way. Ill-content with the passive excellence of a full list of primers actually seen or conjectured, and of the helpful adjunct of old-time advertisements which throw light on the subject, Mr. Ford has hunted down the probable author (if a work so essentially a growth may be said to have an author) and undoubted first publisher of the Primer. Benjamin Harris was an over-zealous Protestant publisher who came from London to Boston about the year 1686, and there began to make and sell books. Some time between 1687 and 1690 Mr. Ford fixes as the date of the first issue of the immortal Primer; of a "second impression, enlarged" there is the satisfactory proof of an advertisement. Harris had already published in England the 'Protestant Tutor,' which is shown to have been the predecessor of the 'New England Primer.' It is a fair assumption that he changed the name and cut down the size of the 'Tutor' to meet in a business-like way the pride and purses of New England. From a unique copy in the British Museum a facsimile is given by Mr. Ford of the 'New English Tutor,' issued by Harris some time between 1702 and 1714, which in all probability contains the same text as the 'New England Primer' of that period, and was printed in England under the changed title to increase the sale. If such conjectures are correct, Mr. Ford has produced the earliest accessible text of the Primer, besides giving a facsimile of the earliest known issue of the Primer itself, that of 1727, from the Lenox copy.

It was always by its best-known title that the Primer won its way, not only here, but in England and Scotland. For one hundred and fifty years its popularity was great, both as a text-book for primary training and as an elementary spiritual guide. Mr. Ford thinks that as many as three million copies were sold. Out of this mass the salvage has been astonishingly small—less than fifty copies, representing less than forty editions of the eighteenth century. No sure vestige of an issue of the seventeenth century survives. To private collectors who seem to have opened their treasures freely, the sumptuous volume before us owes its wealth of facsimiles and reproductions. It is noticeable, however, that the Boston Public Library, which in the nature of things should be richest in such material, seems to have rendered Mr. Ford no assistance. Full justice is done to the real merits of the little book. Not sympathizing with the conditions which nourished it and gave it force, Mr. Ford is so far friendly that he seems even to lament the decline and fall of its influence, when milder doctrines began to enter and the sincere milk of the word was slyly watered with utilitarianism and an easier theology. To-day the Primer is sought only by reason of its extreme rarity, and excites only an amused curiosity. Yet it was not ill-conceived, only crude. What work it had to do it did marvellously well, and it may safely be ranked with Webster's Spelling-Book and Colburn's 'Intellectual Arithmetic,' as one of the inspired works of American educational literature.

Some verses composed by one Robert Smith have long been ascribed to John or "Mathewe" Rogers. They seem to have been dear to the Puritan heart, but, in declaring his excellent discovery of the true authorship, Mr. Ford becomes a little heated at this "piece of sectarian garbling and falsehood." It seems harsh to blame a whole sect for an error attributable probably to stupidity rather than malevolence. However, Puritanism is more or less of a red rag to Mr. Ford, who lets himself wander from his road to proclaim the great "percentage of crime" (p. 152) due to the "lawlessness and immorality" of early New England. Mr. Ford is too keen a historian not to see the fallacy of comparing—for it always comes to mean that—the Massachusetts Bay, where, from the start, court and other records were kept with reasonable fulness, with other colonies where the archives furnish no comparable information. In estimating the defects of the Puritan character, one element of it is always to be borne in mind: all early records and historical writings reveal an almost morbid willingness to tell the worst that can be said. Crimes and social weaknesses of every sort were confessed with astonishing zeal. There may have been spiritual pride in such candor, but there certainly was an absence of worldly reticence and hypocrisy. The worse was seldom made to appear the better reason, and we have the Puritans' own word for it that they were desperately wicked.

Dreamers of the Ghetto. By I. Zangwill. Harper & Bros.

An application of the methods employed by Landor in his 'Imaginary Conversations,' and by Louisa Mühlbach in her historical novels, to some more or less famous Jewish worthies and unworthies of recent times, may redound to an author's credit for eccentricity but not sanity of genius. The result could not fail to be bizarre, particularly when, throughout, the jester's cap and bells seem to compete for mastery with the cynic's wail. The stories, too, it must be confessed, read better when they appeared "syndicated" in various magazines and weeklies than in the present collection; the tricks of phrase and style, the exaggerations in language and sentiment, the threadbare plush of rhetoric, and the flimsy ornamentation follow too rapidly and self-consciously as the chapters are successively analyzed. If the author, in addition to his undeniable gifts, had only possessed the gift of condensation, his work would have lost in bulk and exuberance, but it would have gained largely in merit.

Unlike novelists of the Ghetto such as Kompert, Bernstein, Mosenthal, Kohn, and Franzos, not to mention Berthold Auerbach, whose romance of 'Spinoza' anticipated Mr. Zangwill's 'The Master of Lenses,' the author of 'Dreamers of the Ghetto' essays a more ambitious rôle. They were, as a class, content to paint cameos or genre sketches of old-time Jewish life, and let the pictures, fantastic or realistic, speak for themselves. Mr. Zangwill aims at philosophy as well as fiction. We fear that he is too much inoculated with the very Aryanism which he deplores as ominous for the Jew, and is too much of a waverer himself to be a thoroughly trustworthy guide in any philosophy of Judaism based upon the careers of the heroes in fact and fustian whom he exploits. How he can term Lassalle, Heine, and Disraeli "dreamers of the Ghetto," is a mystery indeed, especially in the case of Disraeli, who was a devout son of the Established Church, and never entered an English synagogue except when he acted as witness at a wedding of one of the Rothschilds. It was only after these worthies left the Ghetto—if they ever really belonged to it—that they became famous. Had they remained Ghetto youths, history might have been silent about them, and a Zangwill might never have employed them for text or pretext.

The volume, however, has its value in familiarizing the general public with a comparatively untrodden field—the inner history and workings of the Jews of recent centuries, and the currents and counter-currents among them due to opposing tendencies of the times. Under the guise of fiction, a goodly amount of modern Jewish history is thus unconsciously taught, which possibly can just now be imbibed in no other way. The author, too, is candid in exposing the faults of his brethren, and does not unduly idealize them. His own chief defect—which is becoming too painfully evident in the younger school of English fiction—is his quality of exaggeration. This makes his book glaringly melodramatic, and gives his "dreamers" often the tones and attitudes characteristic of burlesque. From this charge we must exclude his "From a Mattress Grave," which is an exquisite vindication of Heine—a bit of Heine come to life again.

Outlines of Psychology. By W. Wundt. Translated, with the coöperation of the author, by C. H. Judd. Leipzig: Engelmann; New York: Stechert. 1897. Pp. xviii, 342.

In this convenient little book Prof. Wundt has prepared a work "written primarily for the purpose of furnishing my students with a brief manual to supplement the lectures on psychology." It is a first-rate introduction to the more elaborate work of its distinguished author, and will have currency as fulfilling that function. The translation seems to be well done, and the glossary of terms appended by the translator (German, with the English equivalents) will be serviceable.

With so much description and commendation of the book, a word or two of criticism may be indulged in expressing the reviewer's reaction against what may be called the *Wundt'sche Anschauung und Methode.* In the first place, the abstract and semi-scholastic way of drawing distinctions which pervades the 'Outlines,' is a serious drawback to its usefulness. No one who is well read in the recent books, in which concrete fact is kept so to the front that it controls abstract exposition, can read this one through without weariness; and in the case of the junior students, for whom it is designed in its English dress, it would tend to displace that wholesome obligation to the concrete which we are just getting well established in the instruction of our laboratories and experimental courses. The other point which should be spoken of with equal

plainness is Prof. Wundt's mild attack of the "mania for naming." Along with the abstract distinctions with which the treatment of almost all the topics bristles, we find new applications constantly made of psychological, popular, and scientific terms. Every pair of phases of this or that has its special pair of names, by which afterwards the particular phases are known; so that the student has not only to see the distinction as he goes along, but to preserve the names for it with all exactitude in his memory. This has two vicious results: first, it creates a special Wundtian terminology—a terminology in the manufacture of which the author seems to have gone to little pains to keep himself in touch with the historical usages of the science, and which forces students who have worked over other text-books to correlate painfully his terminology with that already learned. And, second, it fosters the habit of mind—possibly the most unfortunate of all the "idols of the den"—of taking a name and its correlate for an explanation of the distinction which they characterize. This affliction, under which psychology has so long had to labor, is still the *onus maximum* of psychological science. It is currently braced up by all sorts of theoretical pleas, which are nothing less than apologies for inability to find explaining principles. For example, as soon as one goes to biology or neurology for explanations, he is arrested by the cry, "You are deserting the 'psychological standpoint,' you are no longer doing legitimate work; psychological explanations must be purely psychological; anthropology has its own devotees, so have biology and neurology; leave them to their flesh-pots!"—and so the weary describing, and concatenating, and comparing, and naming goes on. Or, if one sights a larger truth, something which may fairly be called "philosophical," he is reined up with equal vigor, and told that no theorist shall inherit the psychological kingdom of heaven. The James-Lange theory of emotion is absurd. Why? Because it is "physiological"! The "inheritance of acquired characters" is true. Why? Because all other accounts of mental continuity in evolution are unpsychological. And so it goes.

It must be said, however, without reserve, that Professor Wundt does not sin on the side of inhospitality to legitimate theory. In his various books he shifts his point of view. Indeed, he is one of the first among living psychologists in the breadth of his interests and the variety of his contributions to current theory. In this he furnishes a salutary example.

Through South Africa. By Henry M. Stanley, M.P. Charles Scribner's Sons.

This book is made up of letters written to a newspaper called *South Africa*, with the addition of a map, an introductory chapter, and a number of photographs. Mr. Stanley attended the celebration at Bulawayo held when the railroad was completed to that city, an event which may well deserve commemoration. In March, 1896, this railway extended about 880 miles north from Cape Town, and in November, 1897, the remainder, 480 miles, was finished. The engineering difficulties seem to have been not numerous, and although an elevation of 4,500 feet is attained, there are few steep grades. Mr. Stanley's train made the distance in ninety hours, and he declares that its motion was wonderfully smooth and steady. The rails are laid on iron tires. The people of Bulawayo, of course, expect great results from the building of this road, and extensions are already projected. Mr. Stanley writes as if this settlement might become a second Chicago, but his arguments are not very convincing. They amount to no more than saying that there is a vast amount of unoccupied land around Bulawayo, which is at present a desert, but which might be made productive if great companies could be formed to irrigate it, and if they could find the water wherewith to do so. The conditions which created Chicago were very different from this.

As Mr. Stanley saw little of the country except what was visible from a car-window, his impressions are not very extensive, nor are they interesting. His speculations as to the future development of South Africa have no such basis as to command our attention, and his recommendations as to the measures to be pursued are often puerile and presumptuous. We find none of his letters particularly agreeable reading, but the most repulsive are those from Johannesburg, which are in the main given up to coarse abuse of President Krüger. This worthy is doubtless a perverse and oppressive ruler, possibly a corrupt one; but the violent language employed by Mr. Stanley in describing him arouses the sympathy of the reader, nor are such facts presented as would give reason for this vituperation. On the whole, these letters give the impression of much ignorance on the writer's part of what he undertakes to describe; what he has to say is hardly worth saying, and he does not say it very well. It would be a waste of time for any one who can procure Mr. Bryce's 'Impressions' to pay attention to those of Mr. Stanley.

Memory and its Cultivation. By F. W. Edridge-Green, M.D., F.R.C.S. (International Scientific Series, No. 78.) D. Appleton & Co. 1897. 8vo, pp. 311.

This author recognizes thirty-seven faculties of the mind, differing in but few particulars from the thirty-seven accepted by the phrenologists, and located like theirs in the cortex of the brain. This is utterly at variance with all the results of the last thirty years' study of the functions of the brain. Still worse, although Dr. Edridge-Green acknowledges that memory is the most important of all the powers, he places it in the corpus striatum and optic thalamus—that is, in organs between the cortex and the spinal cord. Two chapters are devoted to arguing these positions, yet the only reference to the experimental researches of our time is one brief and vague mention of Ferrier's work. No reasons are put forward which are not either old or insignificant.

The opening sentence of the book is, "What is memory?" This is pertinent; but the true answer is not given. The phenomena of memory are nothing but those of the phenomena of association by contiguity, in which the suggested idea brings with it so much of its environment as to be referred to the past. Hence, whatever cerebral explanation is given for association in general must be applied to the chief constituent of memory. Dr. Edridge-Green (p. 145) appears to locate association by contiguity in the optic thalamus. Considering that association by contiguity is nothing but mental habit, and that habit-taking is one of the fundamental attributes of protoplasm in general, the theory of this work could not well be narrower or more arbitrary.

Although the theoretical part of the book is so unimportant, it might be hoped that some wise counsels would be given about the cultivation of memory. All we find, however, is a series of twenty-two mnemonic rules. Though there are so many, they omit some well-known principles, such as that of the summation of stimuli. Among the rules given are a few which will probably be of some value. Others, though well enough, are trite. Still others are both trite and pernicious, because they recommend the burdening of the memory with utterly trivial and useless associations. Thus, we are advised to remember that the first Roman invasion of Britain took place 55 B. C. by associating it with the vocables "Juliud Cæsud," and remembering that the letter *d* means 5. Is it not much easier to remember that it was seven years after the defeat of Catiline and seven years before Pharsalia? The good old way of learning a few important and familiar dates *per se*, and the rest by their intervals between those, can hardly be improved.

Modern Architecture: A Book for Architects and the Public. By H. Heathcote Statham, Fellow of the Institute of British Architects, Editor of the *Builder*, etc. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1898.

The keynote of Mr. Statham's book is common sense. It contains good instruction for those who are candidates for such instruction, whether laymen or architectural students, discussing the planning and in the rough the designing of buildings in country and town, without concerning itself much for the technical forms of architecture, with abundant illustrations from the buildings of various countries, and with a catholicity of judgment which we do not always find in the writers of a country that has an architecture of its own. If we notice at all that Anglocentric view of the universe from which Englishmen find it hard to get away, it is when Mr. Statham sees in every Parliament-house an appropriation of the idea, which he patents to Mr. Barry, of using a central hall of entrance connected with a great chamber on either hand—one of the obvious expedients which belong to the world, and have been used by it at many times and places. This is very much as if one should accuse every musician who writes a perfect cadence of plagiarizing from Haydn. It is not unnatural that Mr. Statham should prefer English planning to French, perhaps not strange that he should say that "the French architects are mostly very bad planners": we have known French architects to say the same thing of English. Possibly architects not French, who have studied French work, though they might not quite agree with either, would on the whole give the preference to French planning. It is very much a question of the comparative values one sets on details of convenience, of which the French are ready to sacrifice a good deal, and of elegance, for which the English have little natural gift. It should be remembered that all planning is a matter of compromise. He succeeds best who combines the greatest number of the possible excellences, and who knows best what to sacrifice; as to this last, opinions will differ, as habits do.

In spite of an inclination, which is common to writers on this subject, to lay down law

for design in cases where there is more question of an artist's instinct than of doctrine, Mr. Statham's criticism seems to us in general very judicious. It shows not only clear ideas of what works well in practice, but an eye to the artistic qualities of design, and especially to qualities of stateliness and dignity which we too often miss in the work of English and American architects.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adeney, W. F. The New Testament Story. Retold for Young People. Macmillan.
Argyll, Duke of. What is Science? Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Bailey, L. H. The Pruning-Book. Macmillan.
Banks, Rev. L. A. The Christian Gentleman. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 75c.
Banks, Rev. L. A. Paul and his Friends. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.50.
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Edwards, R. W. K. The Mermaid of Inish-Uig. London: Edward Arnold.
Elliott, Sarah B. The Durket Sperret. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Faber, W. F. Henry VIII. and the Reformation. Whittaker. 15c.
Faguet, Emile. Drame Ancien, Drame Moderne. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Fenton, Geffraie. Certain Tragical Discourses of Bandello. 2 vols. [Tudor Translations.] London: David Nutt.
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Green, Anna K. Lost Man's Lane. Putnams. $1.
Harvard Studies in Classical Philology. Vol. VIII. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.
Hay, Col. John. In Praise of Omar: An Address. Portland, Me.: Thomas B. Mosher.
Henderson, John. Practical Electricity and Magnetism. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Higginson, Col. T. W. Cheerful Yesterdays. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Hill, J. W. The Purification of Public Water Supplies. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Hobbes, John Oliver. Tales. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Holbrook, Rev. J. C. Recollections of a Nonagenarian. Boston: Pilgrim Press. $1.
James, Lionel. The Indian Frontier War. 1897. Scribners. $3.50.
Johnson, Lionel. Ireland, with Other Poems. London: Elkin Mathews; Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.50.
Keltie, J. S. The Statesman's Year-Book. 1898. Macmillan. $3.
Kingsley, Charles. The Water-Babies. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 24c.
Lee, Albert. Four for a Fortune. Harpers.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. LIV. Stanhope—Stovin. Macmillan. $3.75.
Lowsley, Lieut.-Col. B. Whist of the Future. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.
MacArthur, Rev. R. S. Current Questions for Thinking Men. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. $1.50.
Maitland, Prof. F. W. Township and Borough. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Matthew Arnold and the Spirit of the Age. Papers of the English Club of Sewanee. Putnams. $1.25.
McIntosh, Wm. Philistine Sermons. East Aurora, N. Y.: Roycroft Shop.
Meyer, R. M. Goethe. [Geisteshelden.] Berlin: Ernest Hofmann; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Mifflin, Lloyd. The Slopes of Helicon, and Other Poems. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.25.
Nicoll, W. R. James Macdonnell, Journalist. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Ohnet, Georges. La Fille du Député. Henry Holt & Co. 50c.
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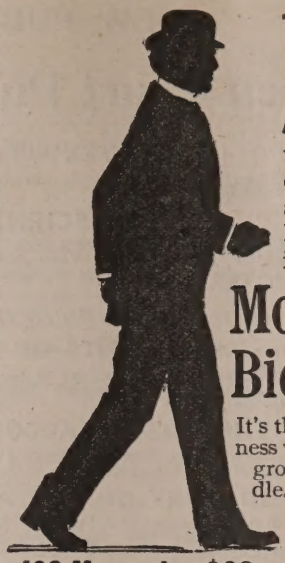

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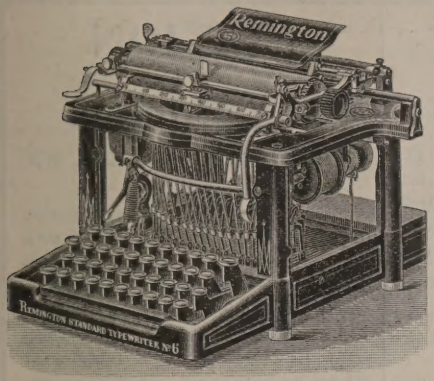

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 28, 1898.

The Week.

Spain has ordered her ambassadors in various parts of the world to present to the governments to which they are accredited a memorandum setting forth the long list of concessions made by Spain to the United States. This note will probably be very like the one which Minister Polo left with our Department of State on April 10. It recites the demand after demand made by our Government, to which Spain had acceded. The whole constitutes one of the most brilliant diplomatic victories ever won. President McKinley might have sent an account of it to Congress with pæans of exultation over his immense accomplishment. But, as the Paris *Temps* said, just when his diplomatic success was greatest and most evident, he felt compelled to place himself at the disposal of Congress, with the result, as Mr. Goldwin Smith says, that "the American nation is being hurried into war before the resources of diplomacy are exhausted." It is, indeed, a striking instance of a lost opportunity of diplomacy. Such mysterious failures when the chances of complete success were apparently brightest, make Coleridge's sneer seem almost justified: "Your diplomatic art is stuff!"

The idea that the Spanish, than whom there is no prouder race on earth, would yield what they consider their national honor on demand—and a demand made as insulting as possible—argued a woful lack of knowledge and imagination in those who held it. No doubt our politicians were misled not only by ignorance, but also by what they thought safe precedents. We had sent an ultimatum to Paraguay, and she had surrendered without a shot. We had bullied Chili, and she had complied with our demands. Chili and Paraguay are Spanish by descent; ergo, all you have to do to Spain is to treat her just like Chili and Paraguay. This was, no doubt, a convincing argument in the minds of those gentlemen, totally inexperienced in diplomacy and quite ignorant of Spain, who have led us into war; but it has been dashed to pieces on the hard fact. The speech from the throne at the opening of the Spanish Cortes on April 20 disposed of the final lingering hope of some of the Jingoes that Spain would, at the last moment, ignominiously back down. But that scarcely justifies their now angrily saying that this revelation of Spanish obstinacy and pride shows how futile it was to negotiate at all with such an unreasonable people. It is evident that the wretches never meant to surrender Cuba without a fight, now say our men of oozing valor; therefore, we should have fought them long ago. But if the Spanish had not had patriotism enough to assert themselves as they have done, they would have been too contemptible for even a Jingo to fight. As it is, we are at least assured that our enemy is spirited and tenacious, a foe worthy of respect, and one to subdue whom we shall need to exert ourselves mightily.

The departure of Minister Woodford from Madrid is a fit occasion for saying that, so far as his record has come to the public knowledge, he has proved an excellent representative of our Government in a most difficult, responsible, and embarrassing position. Lacking both experience in diplomacy and knowledge of the Spanish language, he has triumphed over these drawbacks, and his bearing throughout the steadily increasing complications of the last few weeks has been most dignified and creditable. He has been, from first to last, the earnest advocate of a peaceful settlement of the controversy if such a settlement were possible. There will be great curiosity to see the full history of the diplomatic negotiations which have gone on through the American Minister during the last few months, and the final verdict upon his part in them must await such publication; but it may be said now, and it ought to be said, that, so far as appears upon the surface, Gen. Woodford has conducted himself in a manner worthy of high praise.

There is much truth in what Dr. Barth writes in the Berlin *Nation*, that a war between Spain and the United States will be between two governments, not two peoples. There is no personal hatred of the Spaniards by Americans, and we do not believe the Spaniards hate us. Those of them who have lived in this country say they should feel perfectly safe here even in time of war. They go away, not through fear, but because they consider it "good form." The Governor of Florida has declared that no Spaniards need leave that State through dread of not being protected in life and property; he would use the whole power of the State to protect them, if necessary. It is reported from St. Louis that the Spanish Consul in that city advises Spaniards to stay quietly where they are, as he considers them perfectly safe. Of course they are, and so, we believe, would any inoffensive American be in Seville or Santander.

The new Hull army reorganization bill, which passed the House on Saturday, alters the present organization of the army only by adding two more companies and a major, two captains, and four lieutenants to each regiment of infantry. At the end of the war there is to be a relapse to the present antiquated system of having eight manned and two skeleton companies. Beyond this the bill simply places the army upon a war footing by prescribing that each company of cavalry and infantry shall have 100 and 106 men respectively, while the heavy artillery batteries are to consist of 200 men each. In view of the arduous conditions of the warfare we shall wage in Cuba, it would have been no mistake to increase each company to the size of the German and French units of 250 men each, since deaths, disease, and privations rapidly reduce the strength of any company in the field, as all veterans well know. Even in garrison duty it has been a common thing to have fifteen or twenty men out of a troop or company of sixty unable to do duty because of sickness or accidents or necessary detached service. The best that can be said about the proposed increase is that it will prevent us from sending weak battalions, over-officered and erroneously called regiments, to the front to become ineffective in the shortest possible time. The promotions which will ensue in the infantry on the passage of the bill, will advance many captains who have long since passed the age of usefulness as company officers. Indeed, the retirements last week go far to prove, what has been patent to all army observers for many years, that a large number of the higher officers and of the old war-time captains are unfit to stand the hardships of an active campaign. It is safe to say that the Army Register of two years hence will be a surprisingly changed and altered book.

The War Department's call for volunteers issued on Monday is full of surprises. A careful perusal of the list tends to the belief that the assignment of quotas was made by some one utterly unfamiliar with the capabilities and value of the Guards of each individual State, or else by simply drawing lots from a hat. For example, the State of New York has had admittedly for years the best cavalry and light artillery, yet only half its well-trained cavalry and not one of its five light batteries, with their 450 men, have been called for by this order. Gen. Carroll, the Chief of Artillery for this State, points out the astonishing fact that, although California and Maryland have no artillery whatever, they are each required to furnish four batteries. Furthermore, seven States which have no artillery are called upon for sixteen batteries, while twenty-

six States which possess fifty-one batteries, more or less ready for duty, are not required to furnish a single one! Another glance at this remarkable order shows that although Pennsylvania's Guard comprises three light batteries and three troops of cavalry, she is asked only for infantry and heavy batteries—the latter an unknown branch of the service in that State. Finally, Massachusetts, which has for some time possessed the only militia heavy artillery regiment, is asked to furnish only three heavy batteries, or one-fourth of its force now ready for active service. In view of these facts we must either regard this order as the most careless and slipshod one ever drawn in the emergency of war, or infer the desire of the War Department to obtain the required State quotas without any regard whatever to the existing State troops. The only explanation given by Adjt.-Gen. Corbin is that it is "within the possibilities, even probabilities, of the near future that the [New York] artillery will be very much needed at home." But this by no means explains many other astonishing facts of this momentous order, which continues to call forth vigorous protests on all sides.

We undoubtedly have the right during this war with Spain to capture her merchant vessels on the high seas, but it is contrary to our principles to do so. When we proposed in 1856 to the European Powers that, instead of merely abolishing privateering, the principle should be adopted of exempting all private merchant ships and their cargoes from belligerent seizure on the ocean, is was confidently predicted by some publicists that, by the close of the century, this benign improvement of public law would be assented to by the whole civilized world. This exemption, said John Quincy Adams as Secretary of State, has been an object which the United States have had much at heart ever since they assumed their place among the nations. Mr. Fish in 1870, in an official communication, expressed the hope that our Government might soon be gratified by seeing this principle recognized as another restraining and humanizing influence imposed by modern civilization on the art of war. The following year we agreed by treaty with Italy that, in the event of war between the two countries, the private property of their respective citizens, with the exception of contraband of war, should be exempt from capture on the high seas or elsewhere, unless such vessels attempted to enter a blockaded port. In favor of this doctrine is the recent practice of Austria and Prussia; the former declaring in 1866 that enemy's ships and cargoes should not be captured as long as a like indulgence should be extended by the enemy, and the latter going so far in the war of 1870 as to decree this exemption in favor of French vessels without any condition whatever.

Great Britain has, however, never consented to this new doctrine, and for its refusal it has received the censure of not a few Continental authorities on international law. But Mr. Hall, an eminent English authority on this subject, though maintaining that there is no moral reason for the abandonment of the right of capture, present strong considerations of policy for its abolition. Owing to the dependence of English manufactures on the cheap importation of raw material, and of the English population on foreign food supplies, he insists that the adherence of the British Government to the old rule in respect to capture of private property at sea is of very doubtful wisdom. As commerce progresses, the principles of warfare established in ancient times must necessarily be modified. All peoples are concerned in having international intercourse disturbed as little as possible on such occasions. We of all peoples are most thoroughly committed to the principle that there should be no distinction in time of hostility between immunity on sea and immunity on land of private property. Now is the auspicious time to concert a plan that shall make this principle, for which we have so long and so ably contended, an accepted maxim of maritime law.

The revenue measure introduced by Chairman Dingley is calculated to yield $90,000,000 per year. It puts additional taxes on beer, tobacco, and cigars, and on licenses to sell tobacco. It revives most of the stamp duties of the civil-war period, including legal instruments, stocks, bonds (other than those of the federal, State, or municipal governments), bank checks above $20, telegrams, patent medicines, perfumery, cosmetics, domestic wines and mineral waters, and a tonnage tax on vessels engaged in foreign trade. The bill provides also for a loan or loans not exceeding $500,000,000, by the sale of bonds bearing interest at the rate of 3 per cent. These are to be issued in denominations of $50 and upwards, and are to be first offered as a popular loan. The Secretary of the Treasury is to have authority to borrow money on certificates of indebtedness, bearing interest at 3 per cent., but the amount of certificates outstanding cannot exceed $100,000,000 at any time. The tax features of the bill are scientific. They are much better than we had expected to see. It is a commendable feature of the bill that the taxes will be paid by persons who will know that they pay them. When we have a war, it is desirable that the people should feel its burdens, since it is only in this way that the great mass of the community ever learn how bad a thing war is.

The bonds are to be payable in "coin," but not specifically in gold coin. Probably this is the only kind of bond that would pass the Senate in any case, and the situation is such that something must pass very soon. Under these circumstances the Secretary of the Treasury could hardly withhold his assent to the measure in the form which has been given to it. It has been reported that most of the Democrats, Populists, and Silver Republicans will oppose any bond issue whatever, and Senator Teller is quoted as saying that no such measure can pass the Senate. Here we reach the dead point of danger in home politics. The Senate forced the Government into war. Now if the Senate withholds the means for carrying on the war, pretending that fresh issues of greenbacks will answer every purpose, the country will be not far from ruin. That there was a lurking purpose of this sort behind the Senate's resolution—that there was thus much of method in its madness—we have all along suspected. We hope that our suspicions may not be realized. Possibly Mr. Teller's programme may not command all the votes of the opposition in the Senate, although Senator Jones of Arkansas, chairman of the Democratic national committee, is reported to be against any issue of bonds, and in favor of an income tax instead. The latter measure is possible only by an amendment of the Constitution. Such an amendment might be passed and ratified under the stress of war, but it would take time, and in the meanwhile where would the Government get money to pay the troops, to buy ammunition, guns, ships, and provisions for the soldiers and sailors?

The resignation of Secretary Sherman puts an end to an awkward, not to say an intolerable, situation. Ever since he assumed the position thirteen months ago, the State Department has been one of growing responsibility, until at last it became the most important of all; and yet its nominal head has been a broken-down old man, who was utterly incapable of discharging its duties, and whose presence was a source of constant embarrassment. It is a melancholy ending of an exceptionally long public career—this necessary crowding out of the secretaryship of a veteran who had first been crowded into it, against his will, in order that his seat in the Senate might be had for a new-comer in politics. The episode has been one of the most discreditable in our political history, and the sooner it is forgotten, the better. Mr. Sherman will be succeeded in the secretaryship by the man who as first assistant has done the work during the past year. Judge Day was an unknown Ohio lawyer when he came to Washington, but all accounts agree that, although devoid of diplomatic training or experience, he has done remarkably

well as the real head of the State Department during a most critical period.

The retirement of Mr. Gary from the Postmaster-Generalship is no loss to the public service, because he has shown no capacity for anything beyond the discharge of its duties along conventional lines. One must be a man of uncommon force of character and of especial talent for executive affairs to leave any impression upon this department, even if he remains at its head for the four years of a President's term. The second change in the cabinet, like the first, shows the humbug of the locality method of constituting that body. Mr. McKenna was made Attorney-General in order to "give recognition to the Pacific Coast," but he had filled the place only a few months when he was appointed to a seat on the Supreme Bench, and was succeeded by a New Jersey man. Mr. Gary, a respectable and successful business man of Baltimore, was selected in order to "give recognition to the South," but he resided in what is really quite as much a Northern as a Southern State, and, retiring after about a year's service, he is succeeded by a Pennsylvanian. Thus the South and the Pacific Coast are both left without representation. The cabinet appointments are now "lumped" to an unusual degree in the region between Boston and Chicago, one representative being allotted each of the States of Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, and Illinois; while Iowa is the only commonwealth of the great number west of the Mississippi and south of the Ohio which has a place.

Mr. Wanamaker keeps on making exposures of the Quay despotism in Pennsylvania, and his disclosures at Bellefonte on Tuesday week were in some respects the most startling yet made. "There was a time," he said, "when we could boast of a free press, but to-day in Pennsylvania, to a great extent, it exists only in name. The same political influences that have poisoned the springs of public integrity, that have corrupted the politics, that have debauched the counsels of legislation, that have wrecked banks, trust and insurance companies, have contaminated and blocked the course of public news." Mr. Wanamaker traced the various methods by which this result is achieved. In the first place, large numbers of the great army of correspondents who first gather the news are "hypnotized by the machine," so that they manufacture stuff favorable to the machine and suppress news that is unfavorable. In the second place, the news that does pass the reporter sentinels must then run the gauntlet of the news service, where machine retainers are often secretly planted upon the management, and the facts are more thoroughly squeezed out. Finally, when it reaches the newspaper office, it frequently encounters a machine-owned editor, or a political guard, stationed in the news room, by whom it is finally suppressed or distorted; while scores of editors throughout the State are candidates for post-offices, and do not furnish the news, and many more have relations who expect appointments, and realize that it would never do to print facts detrimental to the machine. Nor does the Quay machine stop with suppressing the publication of matter that it does not wish the people to read. Mr. Wanamaker charged that "some of the great telegraph systems are no longer safe conductors of private messages." He stated that the superintendent of one great company sits in the secret councils of the machine. He declared that "our friends" (meaning the opponents of the machine) "complain that in some places no message of importance is sent of which the machine is not advised." Do they manage things any better in Spain?

Massachusetts follows the example of New York in substituting the electric chair for the gallows. Hitherto, murderers in the Bay State have been executed by the rope, the penalty being inflicted in the jail of the county where the crime was committed. A law has just been passed by the Legislature which provides that the electric current shall hereafter be used and, in order to avoid the necessity of more than one plant for the purpose, all executions will take place in the State prison. Another reform in methods adopted from New York is a restriction of the old publicity of executions, as nobody will be permitted to be present except certain officials, including the necessary physicians, the surgeon-general of the Governor's staff, and the Sheriff of the county in which the crime was committed, and not more than three other persons. The substitution of the electric chair for the gallows in New York is a change which was long since thoroughly vindicated, and the only wonder is that other States, even the most progressive, are so slow to take the same step.

The attitude of the French press towards our war is anything but favorable, but this was to have been expected. In the first place, it is said on good authority that the French are the principal foreign holders of Spanish securities. We have heard this holding estimated as high as $120,000,000. The relations of Frenchmen and Spaniards have for centuries been very cordial. Spaniards always form a very prominent feature in Parisian society. In the second place, they are of the same religion—and religion still counts with the bulk of Frenchmen—and rely on much the same saints in time of difficulty and danger. In the next place, both are peoples who attach great importance to manners, and the American absence of or indifference to manners has always outraged them both in equal degree. This war has, unhappily, brought out this trait in our character with unusual prominence. There was probably never a war begun with so little attention to forms and preceded by so much billingsgate. Every now and then there appears on the Parisian stage a play intended to ridicule Americans—we believe that such a one is running there now—and in these plays the American want of manners is the characteristic always most prominently displayed. We need not go into particulars to show the great probability that the present unpleasantness has furnished abundant fuel for hostility to us on this score, in Paris as well as in Madrid. There is nothing which in Europe excites so much anti-American prejudice as this indifference of ours to forms, and our somewhat ludicrous tendency to believe that forms in a foreigner mean affectation.

The friends and admirers of Crispi, the Italian statesman, waited a good while with great anxiety for the report of the commission which was to inquire into his reported connection with the bank scandals that occurred during his administration, for even those who do not admire him as a statesman, have a soft place in their hearts for him as an old soldier, one of Garibaldi's glorious Thousand. The commission has made its report. What it says is that the Bank of Naples opened a branch at Bologna in 1893; that, between the opening of the branch and 1896, Crispi had six transactions with it, namely, loans upon promissory notes, and that the sums thus furnished to him were obtained by fraudulent means by Favilla, the manager. They were repaid with interest, but they were, it would appear, repaid out of public money of which Crispi at the time happened to have control. Crispi alleges in his defence that the money thus obtained was used for public purposes, but this was not made out very clearly. Nor did it appear very clearly that he did not know where Favilla was getting the money. There was, however, something worse than this. When an inspection of the banks was ordered in 1895, he used his official influence to get Favilla's bank exempted from it, and yet, had it been made at that time, Favilla's frauds would have been discovered. The commission seems to have done its work faithfully, but the report shows that the Italians are nearly as clever as we are in mixing politics and business. The most striking resemblance of all is Crispi's declaration, when he was reëlected to the Chamber, after the exposure, that the reëlection operated as a "vindication."

THE WAR, AND AFTER.

The President having signed the Cuban resolutions passed by Congress, and the Spanish Government having refused to comply with the demands therein made, the two nations are now at war with each other. We have done everything in our power to prevent this lamentable result, but even a veto of the resolutions could only have caused some delay in the rush of the nation into war —could hardly have prevented it. The President has proclaimed a blockade of the principal Cuban ports, which is really the only thing to do to carry on the war at present. There is little use in bombarding Havana until we have a force to land and take possession of it after bombarding it, and if we had one we should, for humanity's sake, be unwilling to land it at this season. But it must not be forgotten that blockading and "starving out" are a tedious business. There is no certain information as to the state of the Spanish garrison for supplies. The Administration may know more than the public on that point, but the public knows little or nothing. What is called "military honor" will oblige Blanco to hold out as long as he can, and we may be sure that he will do what military commanders do in all such cases—sacrifice the inhabitants to the garrison.

Some sanguine spirits in Washington think that all will be over in thirty days. On the other hand, we have Gen. Miles's reported advice not to send troops to Cuba until the rainy season is over. Much as we, in common with every one else, wish the war settled in the shortest possible time, to send troops, even hardened regulars, to the island now will simply be to subject them to frightful losses, such as must inevitably follow their exposure to the yellow fever and the other evils of the Cuban climate. To proceed quickly is one thing; to expose rashly our best officers and men to certain death before we can reinforce them with trained soldiers is a very different matter, particularly as no one knows how long we shall have to maintain troops in the conquered territory before that desired stable government shall have been established. Furthermore, the next six months will be all too short a space of time to properly organize and drill the volunteers just called for.

If it depended solely on the capture of Cuba, the war might be short. The island is not defensible against a great Power lying so near to it as we are, by a Power lying at so great a distance as Spain is. If Cuba were within one hundred miles of Spain and three thousand miles from us, we never could wrest it from her. The disadvantage of distance would be so great that we never should attempt to do so, nor even imagine such a thing. The disadvantage of distance is even greater against Spain in the present case from the fact that the island of Cuba derives nearly all her food supplies from us. There is no other country that could supply her fully, except possibly Canada. We are blockading her, and this raises a very solemn question for us to consider, viz., what is to become of our friends the reconcentrados? Only a short time ago we were on the point of going to war for the privilege of feeding these poor people. We had the most doleful pictures of their condition from Senator Proctor, from Miss Barton, from Dr. Klopsch, and from our consuls in the island. Dr. Klopsch said that if the island were blockaded, they would all starve to death within a week. Now the pressing question is how to carry on the war so as not to murder our own friends and adopted children. After taking so much pains to rescue them from misery, we ought not to make their last end worse than their first.

The next question is what we are to do after taking the island. Recognize the Cuban republic? That means putting the reins in the hands of Gomez and his followers. That is the contention of the Democratic party in this country. That is what is meant by the display of Cuban flags in the columns of the yellow journals. That is the reason why the Cuban bonds have been issued and placed where they will do the most good. It is a very attractive programme to the bondholders and issuers, no doubt, but it will never be adopted by the American people. The brigands and half-breeds who have kept this country as well as their own in a turmoil for three years will never be put in authority over the orderly and peace-loving wealth-producing inhabitants, at the cost of American blood and treasure, unless they are a majority of the island, and proved to be such by an election held under our auspices, at which every qualified person can vote without fear or constraint.

What will happen if Gomez and his followers refuse to disband at our instance? In that case it would be incumbent upon us to take up the task of suppressing them, and this we should do beyond a doubt. We should have stepped into Spain's shoes in this particular after fighting Spain for the privilege of doing so, and there would be no escape from it. Our declared purpose is to pacify the island, to make it free and independent, to establish a stable government and then to take hands off. Government, according to our theory and our principles, means the government of the majority, and if the insurgents do not agree to this, we must put them down, and this we shall infallibly do. According to the report of Consul McGarr, they do not number at the present time more than 10,000 men all told. There is every reason to believe that they are a small minority of the whole population of Cuba. That they are the least intelligent part of the population, and least fitted to govern themselves or anybody else, is also pretty generally admitted. So far as Cuban politics enters into our politics, the party that follows President McKinley's plan may fairly claim the support of all believers in the rule of the majority. Cuban flags and yellow journals and Junta bonds are alike obnoxious to that principle.

POOR SPAIN!

Pobre España, wrote unlucky Minister De Lome, and "our poor Spain" is the common phrase on the lips of Spaniards, officials and others, who speak of the thickening perils confronting their country. Even in the Queen Regent's speech, with all its fine display of national pride and courage, there was audible a note of profound melancholy, as of a nation conscious that its inspiring past and its most desperate efforts would not keep it from taking one more step in a decadence probably without historical parallel. Glance only at a map of the Western Hemisphere and see the vast possessions which have been sheared away from Spain within a hundred years, and you will begin to understand her passionate clinging to Cuba, "the ever-faithful isle," as Spaniards have delighted to call it, as the last visible token of a vanished grandeur. Yet Spain's leaders cherish no illusions as to the result of the conflict upon which they are now entering to retain Cuba. They know that they will lose the island, that their lingering prestige in Spanish America will disappear in its last vestiges, and that Spain will be plunged deeper than ever in miseries. No wonder that, even in the same breath with their bravest defiance, they whisper, "Poor Spain!"

During the past twenty years, or since the close of the last Cuban insurrection and the return of the Bourbons to the throne, Spain has had a breathing-spell. Perhaps it might be said that she was then given by fate her last opportunity. She had peace at home, after fifty years of endless revolts and *pronunciamientos* and dictatorships and changes of government. She increased rapidly in population and in wealth. She even, under the lead of Sagasta and the Liberal party, accomplished many reforms in legislation: the suffrage was extended, religious freedom established, trial by jury obtained, and so on. But all the while the real disease from which the nation was suffering was insidiously strengthening, and when the Cuban trouble flamed up three years ago, Spain was discovered to the world weaker than ever. With all her splendid energy of race still existing, administrative capacity seemed to have deserted her. The more desperately she struggled, the more she seemed to flounder helplessly in a quagmire of executive and military incompetence.

Making every allowance for the enormous difficulties in the way of campaigning in Cuba, the failure of the 250,000 soldiers sent there to subdue at the most 40,000 insurgents is simply unparalleled and colossal. Authentic stories of wretched equipment and inadequate supplies and bad leadership show to what a depth of inefficiency the service had fallen. Moreover, a good deal of the military strength of Spain in Cuba was merely on paper. She sent there, for the most part, only conscripts, mere boys. Her very last reinforcements, some 16,000, sent to Cuba since the 1st of January, are described by the correspondent of the London *Times* as largely "boys of fifteen and sixteen years of age." Her best troops, some 70,000 or 80,000 seasoned men, Spain kept at home "in case anything should happen" (*para lo que ocurriere*). That is, the lurking fear of a Carlist uprising or a republican outbreak tied the hands of the Government.

But how about the Spanish navy? We are more concerned about that just now. In what state of efficiency has the Government kept the navy? Well, we can judge only by scattered indications, but those, we must say, confirm the opinion of Mr. Goldwin Smith that the Spanish naval service is in as bad a state as her military, and that the "Spaniards have hardly mechanical skill enough to handle the new machines" which have supplanted the ships of the old style. In the naval war which Spain waged against Chili and Peru in 1865-'66, she cut a lamentable figure in gunnery and seamanship. She was able to bombard defenceless Valparaiso, but in the one naval action she was practically defeated by an improvised and inferior fleet. During the present Cuban war she has been unable to prevent filibuster after filibuster from landing men and cargo. Her loss of the fine cruiser *Reina Regente*, four or five years ago, was one of the most frightful and disgraceful calamities that ever befell a navy. This war-ship was sent to carry the Moorish Ambassadors from Cadiz to Tetuan. Her captain warned the authorities that she was unstable unless heavily loaded with coal; but there was no coal to be had at Cadiz; the *Reina Regente* was ordered to sea, ran into a gale coming back, incontinently upset, and now lies at the bottom of the sea with all her crew.

This Spanish habit of trusting to luck and improvising everything at the last moment has, we believe, marked Spain's preparations for war with the United States. Although that war has been pointed to unerringly for two years past, it bursts upon her sadly unready. The correspondent of the London *Times*, writing from Havana on March 26, said that a blockade would reduce the army to starvation in "a very few weeks." And there is reason to credit the reports that the Spanish fleet and coaling-stations are grievously short of coal. For a year or two now coal has been very expensive. It takes hard cash to buy coal, and Spain has been living from hand to mouth in both cash and coal. She can now command cash, but finds herself, on the verge of a naval war, without adequate supplies of coal and with none obtainable in sight. But battle-ships without coal are helpless hulks. This circumstance, together with her disadvantages on the score of distance from the probable scene of the war, makes the odds against Spain simply fearful.

Travellers in Spain report that intelligent middle-class Spaniards will admit every charge of incompetence which can be brought against the conduct of public affairs. "Yes, we have a wretched government. In any other country somebody would be shot for this." There is the hopeless, fatalistic creed of the Spanish bourgeois: the Government is detestable, and killing somebody is the only remedy. It is surely a great mystery—this creeping paralysis, this accelerated decadence of a noble race. None of the off-hand explanations offered really explain. A clever writer in *Blackwood's* is thrown back upon the conclusion that all you can say is, that "there is something Spanish in the Spaniard which causes him to behave in a Spanish manner." Whatever the cause, we are no doubt about to witness the final extinction of Spain as an American Power. The mysterious ways of Providence in abasing a once exalted nation are not made less mysterious in this instance by the choice of an instrument to execute the divine decree. It would be rash to conclude that because Spain has apparently lost the favor of Heaven, we are securely established in it.

THE BANK OF SPAIN.

Given an unrestricted command over a printing-press, and a government can be financed long after the conditions have outwardly become desperate. Spain is in this position, and it is foolish to speak of her as bankrupt and financially impotent. On the contrary, she still has the means of obtaining funds, and the instrument for rendering these means available is the Bank of Spain. The remarkable constitution of this bank deserves some study, for its position is almost unique in financial experience.

The Bank grew out of a reorganization by Government in 1857 of certain existing and well-nigh moribund banks. It was local in influence, and in a few years had become little else than a land-bank, its resources being mortgaged to the state on the security of the national property, in return for which mortgage-notes were issued as circulation. The Revolution of 1868, dethroning Queen Isabella, aided the Bank, as the new Government came to depend upon its assistance, and in return conferred upon it exclusive privileges, making it one great Bank of Spain. This transformation was accomplished in 1874, and was intended to consolidate the national funds, to establish a uniform circulating medium secured by a metallic reserve, and to aid commerce by discounting commercial paper. From a Madrid bank, whose notes never circulated outside of the capital, grew a national bank, with notes circulating throughout the Peninsula.

It was essentially a corporation to aid the financial management of the kingdom. The Minister of Finance, Echegaray, under whose administration this change was effected, wished to place restrictions on the demands on the new bank by the state. The loans were to be infrequent, and always secured by collaterals running for short times and readily convertible into cash. Under the older institution the Bank was more than once placed in jeopardy by the Treasury; but the new alliance of Bank and Treasury was to be "discreet," one "highly advantageous to our public finances and very profitable for the Bank." The connection was made too close, for the Bank had in a single year become a servant of the Government, farming its revenues and gradually monopolizing all state finances.

The capital was fixed at $19,300,000 in 1874, but was increased by one-half in 1882. The administrative council is chosen by the shareholders, subject to the approval of the King, and this council recommends to the King two assistant governors. The governor holds his appointment from the King, and even the manager of a branch can be chosen only with the royal approval. The management is thus assured to the state. Under its original charter the Bank could issue paper money to five times the amount of its capital. A reserve in specie of one-fourth the circulation outstanding was required, but one-half of this may be silver, which is worth less than the Bank's paper. In 1891 the Government fell into difficulties, and required of the Bank a permanent loan without interest of an amount equal to the full capital of the institution ($28,950,000), a violation of the law of 1874, which expressly stipulated that the Bank should make loans to the state only upon good securities, readily turned into cash. This single transaction constituted a loan to the state of the entire capital of the Bank, not a penny of which could be repaid till the charter expired. In return for this advance or loan, the charter was extended to the year 1921, and the limit to the note issues was placed at $300,000,000.

Whatever independence the Bank had enjoyed was destroyed by this loan, for its resources were now too heavily mortgaged to the state to make it other than an adjunct to the Treasury. The Bank manages all the funds of Spain, ac-

counting for them every three months. If the state revenues are not sufficient to meet expenses, the Government pays interest to the Bank for the difference, or if the difference is large, issues temporary notes (*pagarés*) bearing interest. But the Bank pays nothing for the use of any surplus the state may have deposited with it. The foreign and domestic debts are managed by the Bank for a consideration, and all foreign payments are passed through it. It has enjoyed the profits from the tobacco monopoly, and the direct taxes on land and industries have been turned over to it as a guarantee of the loans made during the Carlist troubles. In fact, in whatever light it is examined, the connections between Bank and Treasury, even before 1894, were so many and so close as to make the two practically identical.

Since 1894 the financial operations of the Spanish ministry have still further absorbed and even monopolized the activities of the Bank. No bonds supported by a pledge of the revenues of Cuba could find a sale in any money market of Europe, for it was readily recognized that such a pledge was of the highest uncertainty, little better than no pledge at all. It could appeal only to the gambler on foreign exchanges who was willing to take any risk. Even at home the market was reluctant to absorb the ever-mounting issues of bonds, so the Bank took the securities at a rate which yielded a handsome profit to itself, and gradually passed them on to the Spanish public. With every new loan thus financed, the Bank counted upon good profits, and it has greatly benefited by the Treasury necessities. But the time came when bonds issued on the Cuban revenues were no longer salable, and remained in the tills of the Bank. The additional pledge of the customs revenue of the Peninsula was made, and opened up a new market for Spanish loans; but every dollar was made through the Bank, and the state required of it immediate advances on the bonds deposited with it. Since the outbreak of the insurrection in Cuba the cost has been borne by the Spanish Treasury, for the Colonial Treasury was a fiction; and the Spanish Treasury has been little more than the Bank of Spain. Of the $160,000,000 in Spanish customs bonds issued, one-half has been taken by the public and the other half is held by the Bank as security for advances to the Government.

Had it not been for these Government transactions the Bank would have fared badly in its balance sheets. As it was, the year 1897, so trying to all Spanish economy, proved a year of exceptional profit to the Bank. A dividend of $7,200,000, equivalent to 24 per cent. on the capital, was distributed among its shareholders. In 1896 the rate of dividend was 22 per cent. and in 1895 it was 19 per cent. If any conclusion is to be drawn from these figures, it is that the state uses the credit of the Bank to market its securities, but is obliged to pay usurious rates for the advantage.

NO PRIVATEERING.

It was announced in the British Parliament on Thursday that the Government of the United States had decided to abstain from the use of privateers during the present war with Spain, and the announcement was received with cheers. This news having been telegraphed back to Washington, Senator Money of Mississippi called attention to it, and said that if such a step had been taken, the President had exceeded his authority, since the right to grant letters of marque and reprisal was one of the powers vested by the Constitution in Congress. What Mr. Money said was quite true, yet there is not the smallest chance that there will be any conflict between the President and Congress on this question. Probably the President's action in the matter will have the effect to make the United States a party to the Declaration of Paris. The latter was an agreement entered into by the great Powers of Europe in 1856, after the war in the Crimea, as follows:

"(1.) Privateering is and remains abolished.
"(2.) The neutral flag covers enemy's goods, with the exception of contraband of war.
"(3.) Neutral goods, with the exception of contraband of war, are not liable to capture under an enemy's flag.
"(4.) Blockades in order to be binding must be effective—that is to say, maintained by a force sufficient to prevent access to the coast of an enemy."

The United States was invited to become a party to this declaration, but declined to do so for the obvious reason that, to nations which maintained small navies, privateering was more useful than to those which kept large ones. When the civil war broke out, we endeavored to get in line with the other Powers in abolishing privateering, but it was then too late. France and England had recognized the belligerency of the Confederate States. They could not then treat our renunciation of privateering as including the Confederacy also. In other words, they could not recognize our right to tie the hands of the Confederates in respect of privateering after the war had begun. A privateer under the Declaration of Paris is a pirate, and may be hanged with all of his crew whenever caught by the naval or civil officers of any Power, belligerent or other, but this principle governs only between Powers which are parties to the agreement. It would not apply to the privateers of Spain at the present time.

The argument against the practice of privateering was stated by Benjamin Franklin as well as it has ever been presented by anybody. It is quoted by Woolsey (p. 211):

"'The practice of robbing merchants on the high seas, a remnant of the ancient piracy, though it may be accidentally beneficial to particular persons, is far from being profitable to all engaged in it, or to the nation that authorizes it. There are three employments which I wish the law of nations would protect, so that they should never be molested nor interrupted by enemies even in times of war; I mean farmers, fishermen, and merchants.' In some observations on war he pursues this subject of the evils of privateering at great length, and ends thus: 'There is then the national loss of all the labor of so many men during the time they have been employed in robbing, who, besides, spend what they get in drunkenness and debauchery, lose their habits of industry, are rarely fit for any sober business after a peace, and serve only to increase the number of highwaymen and housebreakers.'"

The opportunity presented to us to make ourselves parties to the Declaration of Paris—or perhaps we should say the motive presented to us—is a distinct gain to civilization. So long as we had no motive we should take no such step. We should keep privateering in reserve for what it might be worth. The motive we have now is that to abolish privateering secures us the good will of the maritime Powers. It protects the commerce of neutrals against the scourge of a kind of warfare extremely annoying, largely irresponsible, and almost certain to embroil us with other Powers. Privateering is so far behind the age—so much time has elapsed since the flag of a privateer was seen on the ocean—that it is not likely that the Powers of Europe would allow their merchant ships to be stopped and examined by the private armed vessels of either the United States or Spain. There was a semi-official statement sent out the other day from Berlin to the effect that Germany would not allow it. So we are clear gainers by the giving in of our adhesion to the principle that "privateering is and remains abolished."

At the time when Secretary Marcy declined, in behalf of the United States, to give our adhesion to the Declaration of Paris, he said that we would cheerfully do so if an additional clause were agreed to, that all private property not contraband of war should be exempt from capture on sea as well as on land. This the Powers of Europe would not agree to, nor have they agreed to it since. In time of war the ocean is still an open field to "commerce-destroyers," provided they belong to some regular navy. Private property on land is not subject to plunder by an invading army. No doubt a vast deal of plundering is done on land, but it is under the ban of international law. The German army when it captured Paris in 1870 could not lawfully carry off the money of the Bank of France. It had the physical power to do so, but, under the law of nations, Germany would have been obliged to account for it afterwards. But if Germany had captured the same money afloat outside the three-mile limit of French territory, it would have been a

lawful prize. This incongruity in the practice of nations still exists, but its existence does not make it the less expedient for us to join in the abolition of privateering.

THE POLICY OF ISOLATION.

Ex-Secretary Olney has an interesting article in the last number of the *Atlantic Monthly* on the policy of isolating ourselves from the rest of the world, and treating all foreign affairs as no business of ours, so long as they do not threaten us with some sort of injury. This has been carried so far that we even shrink from protecting our own citizens, as in the case of Turkey, if it seems likely to involve us in a European squabble. If we dislike to meddle even for the purpose of avenging injuries, still less do we wish to meddle for the plain promotion of our interests. Although England is taking much trouble and incurring some risk in China, in order to secure certain commercial advantages, which we shall share on equal terms, and to ward off certain dangers which, though they will not affect us in the same degree, still will affect us in some degree, we are able, owing to this policy of isolation, to offer her nothing but our "moral support."

Mr. Olney apparently ascribes this in large part to the traditional reverence for the warnings of Washington against entangling ourselves in European alliances or quarrels, uttered at a period when any country in Europe was twice as far away from us as China is now, and when we never heard any news from the Old World until two or three months after the event. He proposes now that we should cast off these traditional shackles and fairly join the community of Christendom. He instances the policy of protection, or trying to carry on trade and commerce through our own markets solely, until our production has long outgrown our markets, as a good illustration of what this policy eventually leads to. He accordingly recommends its entire abandonment, and that we should throw in our lot with other nations, and try to get our share of whatever good things are to be had anywhere through the advance of the world in wealth, population, discovery, and invention.

But the transition will not be so easy as he seems to think. Two or three generations have grown up under the present policy, and have imbibed its ideas so thoroughly that belief in it and admiration of it have become part of their equipment as American citizens, and make them look with a certain suspicion on all arguments in support of a change. It will be difficult to persuade that portion of our population which is not in actual contact with the machinery of exchange, that free trade is not a British device for the confusion and impoverishment of other nations, or to familiarize them with the free-trade doctrine that commerce is barter. It has taken a good while to give the protectionist doctrine a foothold in their brains, and it will take some time to put something else in its place. But we admit freely that the reported *entente cordiale* with Great Britain will do a great deal to hasten the process.

This, however, is not all. We shall need a great change in our political manners. Almost ever since the foundation of the Government, certainly ever since we became very strong, each generation has been taught that we had nothing "to do with abroad," to use Judge Matthews's phrase; that nothing foreign concerned us politically, as long as no European Power attempted a settlement on this continent or sought to extend its borders in America. We were taught not to care what Europe said or thought about anything we did or how we did it. This naturally produced, after a while, complete indifference about the way in which we kept up our relations with Europe. We gradually ceased to pay any attention to the qualifications of the men whom we appointed to make our communications to Europe, or to hear what Europe had to say to us. We ceased to appoint ministers or consuls with any reference to the duties they would have to perform, any more than if Europe did not exist. To-day London and one or two others are the only posts in which we show, by our manner of filling them, that we think the minister will have anything to do, and that it makes any difference what kind of man he is, as long as he is pleased with his place himself. Our diplomatic appointments are generally made as if the minister were to stay at home, and was entitled to some agreeable reward on account of his exertions in home politics. But few of our ministers concern themselves about the countries to which they are accredited or about what is in them.

Under these circumstances, there is, naturally, not much study of languages or of foreign policy among our young men, and little concern among the people at large as to the manner in which our Executive is conducting a negotiation, beyond readiness to go to war if he says war would be a good thing, or is necessary. To the bulk of the population, in fact, foreign politics is a sealed book, and no competent public man gives himself the trouble to explain it or comment on it. If we joined the European world, therefore, we should need at once a corps, not only of competent and instructed diplomats, but of trained committees in the House and Senate. Our committee on foreign affairs, both in the House and Senate, has lost any feeling of responsibility toward foreign nations. It insults them or disregards their susceptibilities with childlike *insouciance*. Only about three weeks ago the committee of the Senate openly insulted Great Britain with as much simplicity as if Great Britain were one of the extinct nations of antiquity. They talked about her and her designs with as much frankness as if they were having a yarn at a corner grocery. If we became one of the family of nations in Mr. Olney's sense, of course, this would never do. There would be constant disputes and recrimination. Foreigners would keep taking offence and demanding explanations. There would be new combinations and new alliances in consequence of some patriotic Senator's remarks to his constituents. In fact, the sense of responsibility for spoken words would have to be developed, especially in our Western representatives, to a degree for which it would be hard to get them to see the necessity. We do not mean to say the thing is impossible, but it would take more time than Mr. Olney seems to think; old and deeply seated habits are not to be got rid of in a day.

Still, the restoration of harmony or good feeling between England and America is a consummation so devoutly to be wished that no difficulties or obstacles should be allowed to stand in its way. England has plainly recognized, at last, that America is her best and only natural ally and friend. We believe the most enlightened Englishmen have long felt this and tried to show it. The trouble has been that there has been no practical way of proving that England was sincere. The Cuban war has happily furnished one of which even the most savage Jingoes acknowledge the sufficiency. It may be said, of course, that this newly formed friendship is very likely to be more valuable to England than to us, in view of the attitude of the Continent towards her. But what of it? Wise statesmen do not inquire too closely into motives. The sole questions for us are: Is it a good thing for us? Is it a good thing for liberty and civilization? No one who sees how things are going in the great Continental states can well help answering these questions in the affirmative.

RENAN AND BERTHELOT.—I.

PARIS, March 6, 1898.

The correspondence of two men like Renan and Berthelot, extending from the year 1847 to the year 1892, cannot fail to excite much curiosity. This correspondence, at the instigation of M. Berthelot, who is still alive, was first published in the *Revue de Paris*, a review which has rapidly acquired an importance equal to that of the old *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The series of articles which appeared in the *Revue de Paris* has now been condensed in a volume.

There is no need to say anything about Renan, who has long been world-famous. M. Berthelot, his correspondent, has made his reputation as a chemist. He has been, if not the only, the principal initiator of the synthetic method in chemistry. The first

chemists were occupied chiefly in decomposing all natural bodies, so as to know their elements; the new chemistry starts from the molecules and builds new bodies with them, not only inorganic, but organic also, at least constituent elements of all organic bodies. I shall not give here even a brief résumé of the works of M. Berthelot in this second phase of chemistry; it is enough to say that he has attained great eminence in the scientific world. Science turned his mind to philosophy; he is one of those savants who do not shut themselves up in a limited sphere, but who embrace the whole field of science. He became a friend of Renan in the days when both Renan and himself led very obscure lives and were quite unknown. Their friendship was of a very peculiar sort: it was a stimulant to their minds; they exchanged ideas, and their early correspondence gives an idea of what their conversations may have been.

Berthelot saw Renan for the first time in 1845. Renan was four years older than himself; he had just left the seminary and renounced the sacerdotal vocation. Their tendencies were not quite the same.

"Renan," says Berthelot, "by reason of his Breton origin, of his ecclesiastical and contemplative education, turned towards the past, had less taste than I had for democracy, for the French Revolution, and for the national, industrial, social transformation in which modern civilization is engaged. The old method of having science, literature, and art under the protection of a superior and autocratic power attracted him rather. Of this he never made a mystery. On the other hand, my Parisian origin, on my mother's side, my mind, filled from my earliest youth with medical tradition and with the example of the incessant activity of my father, induced me to sympathize instinctively with the new conception of the collective reason —that is to say, of the scientific evolution of human society. But there was between us a profound sentiment which drew us together from the first day; we were animated—it is no exaggeration to say inflamed—by a common and disinterested ardor, which led us to love, above all and before all, goodness, art, truth. It was this liking things for themselves which constantly maintained our intimacy."

What this intimacy was is well shown by the character of the correspondence. You get a glimpse of it in certain passages in the Journals of the Goncourts, since both Renan and Berthelot were members of that little society which had Goncourt for its historiographer. Berthelot's influence on Renan was chiefly owing to his great scientific knowledge. Berthelot gave his friend views which the latter had not found in the seminary, nor in his researches in exegesis—views on the nature of the world, on the relations of mind and matter, on the evolution taking place in the organic world. That these general views very early took possession of the very receptive mind of Renan is well known from his 'Avenir de la Science,' a work which he began in his youth, and published only long afterwards.

It is not so easy to say what sort of influence Renan had on Berthelot, whose father, a doctor, a general practitioner, in the poor quarter of Saint-Jacques-la-Boucherie, gave him a good education, so that in 1846 young Berthelot took the highest prize in philosophy at the Concours Général. He and Renan lived in the same house; they saw each other constantly and familiarly, and their minds were kept together in an incessant fermentation. By-and-by they took different directions. Renan became an *agrégé* in philosophy, and entered as an employee the National Library. Berthelot pursued medical studies, and became, in 1851, an assistant to the lecturer in chemistry at the Collège de France. Renan could not help him in his studies and researches, which were necessarily concrete and limited, but he could take his mind away from the concrete to the abstract, lift him above the narrow horizon of the professor, and bear him with him to the loftier regions of metaphysics.

Besides the letters of Renan and Berthelot in the volume just published are to be found letters of Renan's sister Henrietta, that remarkable woman who had an exceptional mind, and who exercised the greatest influence over her brother. She educated him and remained a spiritual guide to him till she died. It may fairly be said that she was the only person who really ever influenced him; she guided him in the great crisis which ended by his abandoning the project of becoming a priest. The three correspondents had something in common—great simplicity of manner, allied to great elevation of sentiment and of language. The letters of Henrietta Renan are very remarkable in this respect; it might almost be said that she was the most manly of the three; she certainly was the least egoistical, the most self-sacrificing and generous.

Renan has often been accused of egoism. At any rate, he was very economical of his emotions; he husbanded his own sensibility with a singular parsimony. Berthelot often reproaches him with it in his correspondence; he finds him too cold, too much master of himself. "Till I have finished my 'Origins of Christianity,'" writes Renan, "I shall be an owl and be very chary of correspondence and conversation." Berthelot, on the contrary, has, to use his own expression, "a woman's heart in his affections"; he complains to Henrietta Renan of the Olympian calm and indifference of his friend. She knows her brother well, and in a letter from Amshit, near Jebail, during the journey which she made with her brother in Syria, she writes to Berthelot this curious letter:

"The painful feelings which you express, I have often, oh very often, felt myself. I have frequently said: 'His ambitions preoccupy him more than his affections, and his new affections more than the old ones.' Nevertheless I am sure he loves me, and in view of the pain which your regrets have caused him, it is impossible for me not to believe in the depth of the friendship which he entertains for you. It seems as if he could do everything for those he loves except to give them a few moments. I assure you, sir, that I do not exaggerate in saying that during our two stays at Beirut he gave more of his time to the General and to the Pasha than to the old friend who had left everything for those distant shores. Literally, since we have been in Syria, I hardly ever see him, and when I do, he is so absorbed in the work of his mission, so preoccupied with its results or hopes, that I really do not know whether he is much aware of my presence. Well, sir, I still believe, notwithstanding all this, that my presence is dear to him, and pray, believe yourself that we hold in his life a place which no one else will ever occupy. In answer to a reproach like that in your letter, he told me once that the persons he loved best were those to whom he felt obliged to give the least time."

Renan systematically paid as little attention as possible to anything he considered secondary. His banal indulgence for men and things was part of a plan. One day he praises to Berthelot a book which had been offered to him, and lends it to him to read. Berthelot was surprised to find it nearly uncut.

The greater number of the letters in the new volume were written during the journeys of Renan and Berthelot. Renan's impressions are always worth reading; even in familiar letters to a friend he cannot help being *the writer*, and his style is as pure, as perfect, as if he meant his impressions to become part of a book of travel. His feelings in his first journey to Italy are those you might expect of the future author of 'The Life of Jesus,' of a man who had rebelled against Rome. "My first hours in Rome," he says, "were very painful." Still he cannot help feeling the charm after a while: "This city is an enchantress, and it puts one to sleep, it enervates. There is in these ruins an indescribable charm, in these churches which you find at every step a quietude, a supernatural fascination. Would you believe it? I am quite altered; I don't criticise any more, I am not indignant, I have no longer an opinion." His poetical, his clerical mind gets the best of his critical and scientific tendencies.

"Let us have no illusion; this Italian people is as Catholic as the Arabs of the mosque are Mussulman. . . . I arrived in this country with a great prejudice against the religion of the South; I had a stock of phrases against the sensual, petty, subtile Church; Rome was for me the perversion of the religious instinct. . . . Well, my friend, the Madonnas have conquered habit; I have found in this people, in its faith, its civilization, an incomparable height, poetry, and idealism. How can I express all this? How can I initiate you into this new life into which I have thrown myself with passion? Our idealism is abstract, severe, devoid of images; the idealism of this people is plastic, invincibly disposed to find a translation and a form. You cannot walk a quarter of an hour in Rome without being struck by this prodigious fecundity of images."

In the same letter, Renan expressed himself with the greatest severity on "the ugly troop with a fierce mien, pale and disgusted faces, the pupils of the Roman College." "I went," said he, "on All Souls' Day, to the offices of the Gesù, the church of the Jesuits, the most characteristic church of modern devotion, and two very distinct feelings arose in me: on one side, sympathy for this people, which accepts simply and candidly the religion which it finds, and which satisfies with it its need of an ideal; on the other side, anger and contempt for those *choregi* who sit on their throne, scholastic doctors who deform all science and all criticism for absurd dogmas. In everything I am pursued by this antithesis."

Correspondence.

AFTERTHOUGHTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A few days since, a headline in a leading daily said, "The Georgia Delegation Solid for War." It can almost be said that the Georgia people are solid for peace. After much inquiry here, I have not found nor heard of one man in Decatur County who favors war. I enclose a leaf of one local paper which contains eleven distinct brief editorials and paragraphs in favor of peace. The Savannah *News* is giving some excellent editorials against the Jingo craze. The war of the Rebellion did the people of the South incomparably more harm than it did

those of the North, and they have not forgotten it.

Most of these people live isolated lives on their farms, where they have the chance to think out political questions in the old-fashioned way, uninfluenced by congressional mobs, yellow journalism, or excited crowds. Again, there is practically no foreign element here. There is not one Irishman in this county, and not fifty people of foreign birth. Our people are the lineal descendants of those farmers who thought out and fought out our independence, and are undoubtedly much nearer the same type of men than are those of the North and West.

President McKinley is here most warmly commended by the very men who most bitterly opposed his election. It is believed that he could settle our difficulties with Spain honorably through diplomacy, thereby avoiding the horrors of war.

The South now affords examples of honest State, municipal, and local legislation that the North would do well to study and imitate. May she not, at some near future time, influence national legislation for the better? I think she will.

T. B. Brooks.

Bainbridge, Ga., April 18, 1898.

[We print this for its historical interest, and as illustrating the extent to which our "representative" government is a failure to represent.—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the history of the English-speaking people nothing is more striking than the presence of great men, or of men great enough, at least, for the occasion. The man and the hour seem to be coincident; and whenever there has been disaster, or that political folly which breeds disaster, men and events have not been synchronous.

Here in Baltimore as elsewhere, probably, denunciation of this war is universal. The mildest word applied to it is that such a war is "criminal," a national calamity and disgrace. But where in public and political life is the man who should have given timely voice to wisdom and justice? President McKinley affords one of those deplorable spectacles of weakness at all times only too common. Had he stood firm, he might have saved his country from untold evils and have showed himself a hero for all time to come. But actions speak louder than words. By talking peace and as ex-officio head of the army and navy giving full run to the Jingoes, buying war-ships and recruiting men, the President has simply fed the silly war-craze and has poured oil upon the flames. And there is not a man in either branch of Congress who has had the moral courage, force of character, and political sagacity combined to stem the torrent of Jingoism which has swept both House and Senate off their feet. The disappearance, or non-appearance, of the leader in the face of grave political need is a dire portent, as sure a forerunner of misfortune as is the disappearance of certain forms of life before the coming of pestilence. At this moment, had the American people, in Congress or in the Presidency, a man whom they could look to, one who would focus and voice their distress and indignation, something might yet be done. But the people are without a leader. The criminal indifference of good Americans to the mental calibre and character of their public men has at last borne bitter fruit. Now, in the hour of our need, the President represents only his own timidity; Congress its own selfish interest, greed, and venality; and the people, helpless to make themselves felt, are being dragged into a causeless, conscienceless war. D.

Baltimore, Md., April 22, 1898.

[What one man could do in protest we must allow that Mr. Johnson of Indiana has done; and we have already done justice to Mr. Boutelle's independence.—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of the 21st you make the statement that Boutelle of Maine has been supported by only one member in his opposition to a war with Spain. Am I in error in believing that Loud of California has been from the first an uncompromising opponent of either intervention or recognition? Although he represents a California constituency, this town is his birthplace, and his old friends watch with an intense and loving interest his attitude on all important questions, and we hope we are not wrong in believing he has shown, on every ballot, the courage of his convictions, which are unqualifiedly for peace.

One bit more that may interest: At the breaking out of the rebellion he was but fourteen; at fifteen he enlisted, and served faithfully to the end. He knows what war is.

A Constant Reader and Subscriber.

North Abington, Mass., April 22, 1898.

[We believe our correspondent is right.—Ed. Nation.]

THE METLAKAHTLA GRANT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Referring to an article in your issue of April 7, regarding the difficulties of the Metlakahtla Indians, can you tell me what was the nature of the grant made to this tribe on Annette Island? Was the land merely assigned for their use, or was it given them outright? Also, has the United States a right, in view of the improvements made on the land in question, to dispossess these people of what is rightfully theirs without full recompense? Again, have these Indians any legal standing with the Government? Not being citizens, could they hold property or could it be held for them in trust?—Very truly yours, H. D. Mann.

[The exact wording of the act of 1891 reserving for the use of the Indians (and such other Indians as may join them) Annette Island, Alaska, can be found in the United States Revised Statutes. None of the modern reservations gives a right in fee to the occupants or any right of alienation; as far as known, all hold as tenants in common, subject to the laws of the United States governing such reserves, and revocable by Congress on payment of indemnity which will cover the vested rights they have, due to possession and improvements; the right to this indemnity being a part of the general constitutional inhibition of legal robbery, and not growing out of any express contract.

No Indians are citizens; the Annette Island Indians are as much so as any, their settlement in Alaska having been authorized by Congress. Any fund or property intended for their use or benefit, as inalienable, would probably have to be held by trustees.—Ed. Nation.]

JUDGING COLLEGE DEBATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Just at this time, when the minds of many college men are turned toward debating matters, it may not be out of place to call attention to the most serious evil in debating as it is now carried on, and to suggest a remedy for the difficulty. This evil is in the method of rendering decisions.

The method of selecting judges and of making decisions in debates, which may not be known to all of your readers, is a very simple one. Six weeks before a contest is to take place, a list of the names of twenty men presumably suitable as judges is sent by the college holding the debate to the visiting college for approval. The visiting college, after striking out any of the names that, for one reason or another, may be objectionable, returns the list, and, from the names remaining, three judges are chosen, who attend the debate and render a decision on the merits of the question as debated. At a conference held at New Haven two years ago an effort was made to have judges instructed more definitely as to their duties; but the effort failed, and the only point determined upon was that decisions should be based "on the merits of the debate, not on the merits of the question."

In spite of the fact that the judges have usually been distinguished and learned men, this system has given anything but complete satisfaction. In the majority of cases the dissent from opinions has not perhaps been great, but on the other hand in many cases it has been very widespread indeed. And in the nature of things this must always be true. No matter how judicial a mind a man may have, on questions of the kind discussed in the debates—current political and economic questions—he is bound, either because of prejudice or because of superior knowledge, to have a bias which will render him incapable of making a decision on the merits of a question simply as it is presented to him on this occasion. His experience, if not his predilection, will come in to add weight to the arguments of one side and to detect fallacies in those on the other which the debaters themselves do not see or point out. He may attach great value to evidence which has had relatively little attention in the discussion. And thus an element of uncertainty—the personality of the judges—is introduced into the decision which no amount of skill can foresee or training combat. Indeed, the sagacious debater soon realizes that little of his preparation is more valuable than that which he spends in studying the opinions and records of the men whom he is especially to address.

But there is still another objection to the present system, and that is the difficulty of getting suitable subjects to debate. There are many topics of current interest, which students could debate with profit, that are

not feasible because they do not have two perfectly equal sides; for not even very superior debaters can win if their side is much inferior. The last Harvard-Yale debate is an instance of this. In that debate the Harvard men handled what arguments they had relatively better than the Yale men did; they were certainly more skilful in refutation, and they spoke more gracefully. But they had practically an impossible task: that of proving logically the value of annexing the Hawaiian Islands. I do not mention this to detract from Yale's victory, which was especially deserved, since Harvard, with the choice of sides, had deliberately taken the affirmative, but to show that under the present system, when decisions depend on the value of the arguments presented, the qualities which ought to win a debate may not.

The remedy for these evils is, I believe, a simple one. It is to instruct judges to render their decision not on the merits of the question as debated, but on the merits of the *debating*. The change, though at first glance it may seem slight, is in reality very fundamental. It will insure that the personal attitude of the judges toward the question, and the advantages of side, will so far as possible be eliminated from the contest, and it will insure that the decision will rest just where all must agree it ought to—on the skill displayed by the speakers in presenting their case. How college men may happen to decide any question makes not the slightest difference to any one; but it is interesting, and for the purpose of stimulating work in debating, necessary, that there should be some opinion from competent judges as to which side has acquitted itself most satisfactorily. This, I am convinced, can best be accomplished by the change I suggest. The only objection that can be made to the change—that it will require judges to estimate the value of the material which each side had at its disposal—is scarcely a valid one. At any rate, it is a difficulty wholly insignificant when compared with the great evils of the existing method.

I am, sir, respectfully yours,

RALPH CURTIS RINGWALT.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, April 20, 1898.

FOREIGN EXPRESSAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My experience confirms what Miss Hapgood says about mail-matter from Russia being taken possession of by express companies in Germany, and is entirely at variance with the statement of "P." in your issue of April 21. Not long since a letter was delivered to me by the American Express Company in Chicago which had been stamped, posted, and postmarked in Russia, fully prepaid. It was taken by an express company at Hamburg, and so came on through the American Express Company, with charges over two dollars for expressage. Knowing what the letter probably contained, I paid the charges and took it, but have never been able to get any explanation either from express company or postal authorities. I should be glad to know the reason why.

J. D. CRAWFORD.

CHICAGO, April 22, 1898.

Notes.

It is impossible to keep biographical series from overlapping, and Franklin with a new title forms the subject of the first of the "American Men of Energy," projected by G. P. Putnam's Sons. The classification is of those "Americans whose lives and work helped to shape the destinies of their generation." Other announcements by this firm are 'Martin Luther,' by Prof. Henry E. Jacobs; a 'Life of Saladin,' by Stanley Lane-Poole; 'Matthew Arnold and the Spirit of the Age,' papers of the English Club of Sewanee for the season of 1897; 'Glimpses of England,' by Prof. Moses Coit Tyler; 'Democracy and Social Growth in America,' four lectures by Prof. Bernard Moses of the University of California; 'The Philosophy of Government,' by George W. Walthew; and 'The Study of Man,' by Prof. A. C. Haddon, first volume of the "Science Series," edited by Prof. Cattell of Columbia.

A. S. Barnes & Co. will have ready in June an 'Anglo-Saxon Reader,' for beginners, by Prof. W. M. Baskervill of Vanderbilt University; 'Later English Plays,' by Prof. Calvin S. Brown of the same institution; 'Bird Gods in Ancient Europe,' by Charles De Kay; and 'Cape Cod Week,' by Annie Eliot Trumbull.

'The Story of a Play,' by W. D. Howells; 'Thirty Strange Stories,' by H. G. Wells; 'Ghosts I Have Met,' by John Kendrick Bangs; and 'Paradise Lost: Its Structure and Meaning,' by Prof. John A. Himes, are forthcoming from Harper & Bros.

Ginn & Co. have in press Gibbon's Memoirs, edited with introduction and notes by Prof. Oliver Farrar Emerson of Western Reserve University.

Funk & Wagnalls will soon issue 'The Spaniard in History,' by the Rev. James C. Fernald.

It is announced that M. Edmond Biré is at work on a study of Chateaubriand in which, we may apprehend, that great writer will be treated as Victor Hugo has been by the same ruthless commentator and critic. But the essay is sure to be good reading.

Cotta, Stuttgart, is printing the first volume of 'Beiträge zur Amerikanischen Litteratur- und Kulturgeschichte,' by our countryman, Prof. E. P. Evans.

We learn that the well-known poet Paul Heyse is preparing for publication a series of portraits of Munich authors, in black and white.

We are glad to observe that Mr. J. Wells's dainty little illustrated 'Oxford and its Colleges' (London: Methuen & Co.), which we have already commended, has passed to a second edition.

Herbert Spencer's 'Various Fragments' (D. Appleton & Co.) contains a score of articles published in various journals from 1852 to the present time. Mr. Spencer has not, however, raked in everything he ever wrote, for he enumerates a baker's dozen of articles of "comparative unimportance," and mentions yet others of "little significance." The comparatively important pieces here given will repay examination by any critic who is inquiring into the merits of Mr. Spencer's methods of reasoning. The inconveniences of a decimal currency are explained; and the instance is given of an accountant who had to go over £20,000 of accounts in one day, and who said he was glad they were not in francs.

The first volume of the "Biographical Edition" of Thackeray, 'Vanity Fair' (Harpers), discloses Mrs. Ritchie's plan of editing, and a very agreeable plan it is. It consists of bringing together for each volume of her father's writings all the available notes, jottings from his diary, letters, sketches, etc., which bear upon the composition and reception of the work in question, and upon the author's life during its production. Thus, we have in the introduction to this biographical 'Vanity Fair' hints as to the persons and travels used by Thackeray as raw material, some unpublished sketches and letters—among the latter one to Edward FitzGerald—accounts of method of composition, revision, etc. The recently discovered letter of Thackeray to the Duke of Devonshire, making a post-novel disposal of Becky Sharp and others, is, of course, included. An attractive new portrait of Thackeray serves for frontispiece; and when we have added that the volume is tastefully printed and bound, it is unnecessary to enlarge further upon the merits of what should be a favorite edition of an author whose popularity is certainly not on the wane.

Lee & Shepard send us a couple of handbooks on painting, 'The Painter in Oil,' by Daniel Burleigh Parkhurst, and 'Water-Color Painting,' by Grace Barton Allen. The utility of such books may be doubted, but these are favorable enough specimens of their class. In Mr. Parkhurst's volume, especially, definite recipes are avoided, and an honest and intelligent effort is made to expound principles of work. The attempt to teach drawing and painting by purely verbal instruction is, however, foredoomed to failure. Mr. Parkhurst recognizes this to some degree by saying: "I do not say paint the nude. On the contrary, if you want to go so far as that in the study of the figure, you must not attempt to do it with the aid of a book. Go to a good life class." But it is equally true that the student of painting who would make real progress in any branch of the art should go to a good master for practical instruction.

A passage from Miss Allen's volume shows well the vagueness of verbal instruction the instant the recipe style is abandoned: "In representations of china or glass having a gold decoration," she says, "the gold must be represented by yellow, brown, reddish, or greenish tones, as the light and the situation happen to demand. The proper colors, rightly employed, will give the desired effect of metal." That is all. It is perfectly true, but it is not likely to be of much use to the student who is unable to see what are the "proper colors," or how they are affected by "the light and the situation." A writer of unusual lucidity and great analytic power might, indeed, do somewhat better than this, but his teaching could be rendered effective only by the addition of elaborate colored plates, which would make his book too expensive for the class for which such works are intended; and even then five minutes' instruction *before the object* by a competent teacher would outweigh a whole chapter. The training of the artist is a training in seeing, and what to see can be pointed out only by the instructor in the immediate presence of the thing seen.

'Early Long Island Wills of Suffolk County, 1691-1703,' an unabridged copy of the manuscript volume known as "The Lester Will Book," being the Record of the Prerogative Court of Suffolk County, N. Y., comes to us with genealogical and historical notes by William S. Pelletreau, A.M., and an exhaustive index of persons and localities (Francis P. Harper). It covers the term of

office of Judge William Smith (1691-1706), and is, of course, only one of many similar books in other counties. The original was lost from the proper custody from 1811 to 1871, and this fact may have enhanced its value in the eyes of the editor. Otherwise we cannot account for the expenditure of money in making an "unabridged" copy of the wills of some sixty worthy but obscure inhabitants of Suffolk County. Surely, abstracts of these documents would have sufficed for even an antiquarian public, as the curious or interesting items therein are almost invisible. We must add, however, that the editor and publisher have done everything they could with such commonplace material, and that the edition is limited to 340 copies.

The handsome reprint of the 'History of the Pequot War,' from the contemporary accounts of Mason, Underhill, Vincent, and Gardener, with additions and an introduction by Charles Orr, Librarian of Case Library (Cleveland: The Helman-Taylor Co.), is avowedly only a reprint, by permission, of the copies issued years ago by the Massachusetts Historical Society. Yet as the Collections of that most stately, sedate, and painstaking society have become to a large degree as inaccessible as the originals, it was a wise and laudable act for our Western friends to issue this book. The war itself was of such vital importance in the settlement of New England that its history will be read with interest by every generation, and the quaint contemporary accounts have a freshness and life not to be equalled by the more formal periods of professed historians. Mr. Orr is to be congratulated on the good judgment and taste displayed by him in the preparation and publication of his book.

Armand Colin & Cie. have published the seventh and, presumably, last volume of the "Discours et Opinions de Jules Ferry," edited by Dr. Paul Robiquet. This particular volume is interesting on account of its containing the speeches delivered by Ferry in the course of the vigorous campaign he conducted against the Boulangists. In these, as in the other discourses, he exhibited an amount of common sense which contrasted greatly with the madness and thoughtlessness of his opponents. The work is a fitting tribute to a statesman bitterly maligned during his lifetime.

A book on Lamartine ought to be interesting, but that is not enough nowadays; it must also tell us something new about the poet, or present a fresh aspect of what we know already. This, M. Ernest Zyromski, lecturer in the University of Bordeaux, has endeavored to do in his volume on 'Lamartine Poète Lyrique' (Paris: Colin). He develops the theory that Lamartine's lyrism sprang from his habit of giving himself up in solitude to a dream-life, the intensity of which was extraordinary, and from his bearing within himself a landscape which he projected on reality. The working out of the theory is not over well done, and the impression the book makes on one is that the author has collected a lot of material from the verse of Lamartine which a more skilful hand might avail of to better purpose.

'La Fin du Classicisme et le Retour à l'Antiquité,' by Prof. L. Bertrand (Paris: Hachette & Cie.), bears all the ear-marks of a thesis for the French doctorate. In other words, it is a very careful and thorough study of the subject, well "documentée," and offering points of interest in views not always such as are generally entertained concerning certain great authors. Indeed, Prof. Bertrand exhibits a singular boldness in his estimate and criticism of André Chénier and Chateaubriand, for instance; in the case of the former, affirming that Sainte-Beuve has misconceived the significance of the poet's work, and, of the latter, placing the writer squarely among the classicists, and those of the decadence at that. His estimate of the value of the classic spirit and doctrine would make M. Brunetière rage furiously, though it must be borne in mind that he treats of the decadent classicism so well analyzed by Taine and others. The book is well worth reading, and will serve a useful purpose as a work of reference for a period less studied, perhaps, than those which immediately preceded and followed it.

The recent Ibsen festival found a twofold literary expression in Scandinavia in a book by one of the master's most enthusiastic and intelligent followers, Georg Brandes, and a "Festskrift" published by the Norwegian monthly *Samtiden*. The first is divided into three parts, giving the impressions of the critic at three different periods of his life—1867, 1882, and the present time respectively. The second work contains criticisms by representatives of the three Scandinavian kingdoms, and Finland, an article by Prof. Joh. Storm on Ibsen and the Norse language, and statistics showing the popularity of Ibsen at home and abroad. Brandes's book has as a frontispiece the latest photograph of the Norwegian dramatist, taken this year.

Students of the classics who have become interested in the newly discovered poems of Bacchylides—of whom, we know, there are several in this country—will be pleased to have their attention called to the fluent translation of four of those poems by Prof. H. von Arnim of Rostock, published, together with an essay on the poet, in the *Rundschau* for April. Another article of unusual interest in the same magazine is that by Prof. Dr. Thumb, "Die Maniaten: Ein Beitrag zur Volkskunde des heutigen Griechenlands." The learned traveller sees in the present inhabitants of the middle peninsula in the southern Morea, marked at its extremity by the promontory of Tænarum (now Cape Matapan), the nearest relatives of the heroic race of the Spartans. This primitive and warlike people is even now not very far removed from Homeric conditions, aside from the fact that it has profited by the invention of gunpowder.

In 1896 Germany exported 62 million marks' worth of books, while her imports amounted to 20 millions. The United States bought of Germany books to the amount of 7.2 millions, holding the third place in the list of all nations, and sold to her 1.7 millions' worth; the import by Germany from England during the same period reaching only 650,000 marks. In spite of the enormous production of books in Germany, their use in the country itself is still confined to a smaller proportion of the population than one might think. To be sure, there are many libraries, but most of them are university, or city, or school libraries, or others, meeting the wants of the professional scholar rather than those of the educated layman; or they are *Volksbibliotheken*, intended for the entertainment and elementary instruction of the lower classes. Good public libraries for the use of the intelligent and well educated, as well as the lower classes, are almost entirely wanting. The library recently established by the city of Charlottenburg, though called a *Volksbibliothek*, is of a higher order than other institutions so designated. In the first two months after its opening, 8,000 books were drawn by 1,500 persons of all classes, "from the laborer to his Excellency," and the reading-room (in which no daily papers are kept) was used by more than 5,000 persons. Such a success, one would think, ought to stimulate other German cities to follow the example of Charlottenburg.

Prof. Dr. Rudolph Brünnow, grandson of Dr. Henry P. Tappan, first Chancellor of the University of Michigan, is now engaged in his third scientific expedition in Asia Minor for the purpose of exploring especially the regions east of the Jordan. His former researches in this direction were exceedingly rich in results, which he intends to prepare for publication after his return to Europe in June. While in Damascus and Jerusalem he procured a considerable number of valuable Oriental manuscripts, which he presented to the library of the University of Heidelberg.

The University of Jena has decided that students of medicine shall henceforth be required to pass a satisfactory examination in psychiatry before receiving permission to practise their profession. A thorough knowledge of diseases of the mind is now deemed quite as necessary to the physician as practical skill in treating physical maladies.

Several correspondents have referred us for the early use of the word *campus* to Hall's 'College Words and Customs' (Cambridge, 1851), where we may read: "At the College of New Jersey, the college yard is denominated the *Campus*."

—In 1893 Mr. John Brenton Copp gave to the National Museum at Washington a collection of costumes, household fabrics, and other articles accumulated by succeeding generations of the Copp family. This collection is in process of reinstallation, much of it having been kept in storage to the present time. The whole collection has now been reëxamined by experts at the request of Mr. W. H. Holmes, in charge of the biological department of the museum. The books, almanacs, and other publications have been catalogued by Dr. H. C. Boulton, and Mr. Edward Eggleston has examined in detail the almost countless articles of apparel and household use. The collection is probably the richest ever made by an American family; perhaps it is the most extensive in the matter of wearing apparel and other domestic fabrics ever possessed by an American institution. The oldest article is a ponderous bed-hanging of linen, said to have been brought from England in 1635. This is now of a yellowish brown color; it once had figures stamped upon it, no doubt, in color. In the lapse of centuries the color has disappeared from the figures, but the surface of the cloth is still depressed where the figure in relief was applied in printing. The strong pressure which left this indentation in the cloth for centuries probably indicates some process other than mere printing; it is possible that the press or clamp was applied for a considerable period of time to prevent the dye elsewhere used from spreading into the compressed part, which is yet slightly lighter than the rest. There are later bedroom hangings; there are more than thirty hand-made sheets of the eighteenth century, with rich aprons and trousers and undercloth-

ing, and articles not to be met with elsewhere, such as curious braces or suspenders of other days. One pair of these has four button-holes, one above the other. Of gowns there is a considerable number of the Revolutionary period, with some of the early eighteenth-century and of the later "Directory" and "Empire" styles. There are plain every-day frocks of gingham and calico as well as rich reception gowns. If families who have moderate collections of this nature would add the contents of their attics to the cases of the National Museum, a collection of admirable completeness might be built up on the lines of the Copp collection, which is destined to be a resource for the social historian and the artist.

—Quite the most interesting group of sketches in the fifty-fourth volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) is that of the Stephen connection, from the pen of Mr. Leslie Stephen. A trait of shyness and aloofness runs through the gifted members of this stock, who were yet capable of great public services. Of his father, Sir James Stephen, the writer relates that, as Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies in 1833, he had suddenly to draw up (at risk of postponement for a year) the measure for West India emancipation. "He therefore on this occasion (and on one other only) broke the Sabbath, and between the noons of Saturday and Monday dictated an elaborate bill of sixty-six sections." Mr. Leslie Stephen has also charged himself with the sketch of Dugald Stewart, in the course of which he quotes Cockburn as to the beauty of Stewart's delivery in spite of his being forced to clear his throat on account of an asthmatic tendency. But there was "eloquence in his very spitting." Our American habit is spitting in our very eloquence. Other prominent personages arrayed in this volume are the first Earl of Stanhope, who, Bismarck-like before Bismarck, "was naturally frank and open, and he used to say that he always imposed on the foreign ministers by telling them the naked truth"; Chesterfield; Castlereagh; the Earls Derby, father and son (fourteenth and fifteenth); Dean Stanley, Richard Steele, Sterne, Robert Louis Stevenson, and George Stephenson. Stevenson has ten pages allotted to him to Steele's six or seven and Sterne's twenty-two, and furnishes an interesting criterion of editorial proportion for another generation than ours to pass upon. Some American connections are to be traced in the Stoughtons of Massachusetts, in Gen. John Stanwix, and in Gen. Sir Thomas Stirling, who served against us in the Revolution, but never made an "attempt upon Springfield (Massachusetts) in June, 1780," as here explained. New Jersey is intended. Here, too, is commemorated Joachim Hayward Stocqueler, whose Life of Wellington led John Brown to magnify the possibilities of guerilla warfare in a mountainous country, who lived to serve as war correspondent in this country during the rebellion precipitated by John Brown, and died in 1885 at a ripe old age.

—In the current number of *Cosmopolis* Anton Bettelheim pays a glowing tribute, compounded of patriotic sympathy and literary appreciation, to the genius of the greatest of living Austrian poets, Ferdinand von Saar. Saar is the Viennese poet *par excellence*, quite the most perfect organ of lyric utterance that the Germans of the Eastern Empire have in this generation found. In his prose tales, thoughtful and vivid presentations of Austrian types, Saar reveals himself as a disciple of Turgeneff; but the Russian pessimism is softened by the cheery spirit of the Viennese, and although, like his master, he holds that circumstances are stronger than men, he does not drive the conflict to a tragic end, but finds his solution in Goethe's lofty doctrine of renunciation. Saar is an Austrian by birth and sentiment and in the choice of his subjects; his recently published 'Novellen aus Oesterreich' is a new evidence of this. But there is no occasion to distinguish strictly between the literatures of Germany and Austria. The Poles of Galicia have their own splendid literature, the Hungarians have theirs, the Czechs theirs; but the Austrians, Grillparzer, Halm, Lenau, Anzengruber, Saar, belong to German literature, and the last-named sadly admits that it is the German only among the peoples of that composite empire who is proud of the name of Austrian.

—No more convincing proof of the threatened disintegration of the Hapsburg realms could be found than the recent lament of the patriot poet Saar, who so long has sung the beauty and grace of his narrower fatherland. "Since Grillparzer's *Zeitgedichte*," writes Bettelheim, "no chords of such power have been struck in the patriotic lyric poetry of Austria." It should be remembered, too, that the gloomy and embittered prophecies of Grillparzer in 1843 did not come true, and his native land rose again out of her trials to dignity and might. The following is a metrically exact and fairly literal rendering of this striking poem of Saar's (by Mr. Charles H. Genung):

AUSTRIA.

Bowed with grief is my head, O thou, my Austria.
Slow, relentless decay threatens thy final fall,
Of the limitless empire,
Holy, Roman, the last remains.

Still thy eagle of state proudly its pinions spreads;
And in beauty thy realms gleam with their wonted pomp.
But thy firm ancient structure
Crumbles sullenly day by day.

True, thy populous hosts never were one in kin,
Love of one common home never united their hearts;
Pride of Austrian birthright
Cherished the *German* alone.

But when thou goest hence, gone is a peerless grace,
And a cluster of flowers falls from Europa's breast;
Thou art one made of many,
In thy bloom thou hast decked it long.

Wrong whate'er thou hast done, good thou hast left undone—
Ever wert thou *beloved*, O thou, my Austria,
And now wilt thou destroy thus,
With thyself at strife, thyself?

—During recent years the planet Mars has been assiduously studied at the Observatory of Juvisy, near Paris, by M. Antionadi and others. There, as elsewhere, the "canals" on the planet have been seen, usually as long, narrow, dark lines lying in the arcs of great circles of the surface. There is no doubt of the objective existence of such markings, as they have been mapped by many observers before and since Schiaparelli undertook their serious study in 1877. Such markings are probably long cracks or crevasses in the outer layers of the planet's surface. The experiments of M. Daubrée have shown that the expansion of an interior nucleus will produce a series of long cracks lying in the arcs of great circles. A contracting nucleus produces rugations like mountain chains. Many observers since Schiaparelli have noted the "doubling" of the Martian canals. Sometimes a single marking of the sort will be suddenly replaced by two narrow markings lying in the same region and in the same direction. If, says M. Antionadi, the Seine should suddenly disappear, and if two new rivers should be created, one running from Nantes to Marseilles, the other from Dunkirk to Strassburg, we should have a precise terrestrial analogue to the appearances of double canals on Mars. Recent popular writers have exhausted ingenuity in devising explanations of this phenomenon which should agree with their *idée fixe* that the "canals" are, without doubt, the work of human hands. It is hardly necessary to say that no explanation of the sort has been given that satisfies astronomers.

—M. Antionadi has made a careful study of the optical illusions that attend prolonged and strained vision of delicate markings of this kind, and he has come unreservedly to the conclusion that the doubling of the canals on Mars arises from defective focusing of some kind, either of the telescope, or of the observer's eye (through fatigue). One of his experiments may be tried by any one who will take the trouble to rule a fine line on a visiting card and to look at it, from a distance, with an opera-glass. A very slight disturbance of the focal adjustment, or slight fatigue of the eye, will produce a double image of the single line. It is always possible to produce double images of a single line in one of these ways. M. Antionadi's experiments seem to show that the double canals on Mars are always the results of one of these two causes. His conclusions are noteworthy in themselves as a return to rationality in the explanation of physical appearances on Mars; and it is interesting to remember that he is an assistant to M. Flammarion, who is the high-priest (in France) of the doctrine of human life on Mars. M. Antionadi accepts, tacitly, the view of the circumstances prevailing on Mars that has been consistently held by the astronomers of Princeton, Mt. Hamilton, etc., namely, that it is a planet analogous to our moon, with little or no atmosphere, no water, no clouds, with very low temperature, no human life, and no "canals" for commerce constructed by "intelligent beings like ourselves."

—M. André Lefèvre, who is Professor of Ethnography and Linguistics at the Paris School of Anthropology, and President of the Anthropological Society, has tried to give in thirty lectures a bird's-eye view of recorded history ('L'Histoire: Entretiens sur l'Évolution Historique.' Paris: C. Reinwald: New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer). The volume is one of the familiar Contemporary Science series, whose prospectus promises first-hand works from specialists. This promise has been fulfilled in many of the issues, but as M. Lefèvre has already contributed the volumes on 'Religion' and 'Philosophy,' and is a professor of two other pretty well differentiated sciences, it is evident that in his case the term specialist must be taken in a somewhat old-fashioned sense. The student of history approaches such attempts as this with misgiving. He anticipates a series of facile and perhaps clever generalizations, plausible enough, but not more convincing than some other series quite irreconcilable with the first. Yet, as a critic, he is disarmed by the reflection that the book is not intended to be tested in detail, but to be judged as a whole. He is certain that M. Lefèvre, accustomed to the lack of precision which is characteristic of so much in the present field of anthropology, will regard it as trifling if a reviewer objects to assertions like the following of Godfrey of Bouillon after the capture of Jerusalem (p. 491): "Il chargea quelques légistes de rédiger une constitution. . . . De leurs

délibérations sortirent les *Assises de Jérusalem*, document précieux, écrit en français, et qui fut une des bases du droit au moyen âge." Again to read that, "en 1497, les frères vénitiens Jean et Sébastien Cabot avaient découvert, au compte du roi anglais Henri VII., le Labrador, l'Hudson et la Virginie," inevitably shakes our confidence in the chapters on early Egypt and primitive China. But possibly this carelessness in detail may be amply compensated by instructive comment or enlightened breadth of view. Undoubtedly many readers will think they find both these qualities; but one example of the want of the true historical spirit shall answer for not a few that could be cited. We are not surprised that Leo X. at first pronounced Luther's opposition to Tetzel a "monkish quarrel"; but when our author contents himself with repeating this snap judgment ("Qui pourrait croire qu'une querelle si ridicule pût enfanter tant de maux?") one concludes without injustice that with inaccuracy in details M. Lefèvre has combined a flippancy of judgment which makes his work misleading to the general reader and distasteful to the scholar.

COL. HIGGINSON'S REMINISCENCES.

Cheerful Yesterdays. By Thomas Wentworth Higginson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1898.

It is seldom that a man of letters has so much of a story to tell as Mr. Higginson, an experience so varied and so active to recite. Nor has Mr. Higginson ever written more agreeably than here, with happier expression, with more wealth of humorous and effective illustration, with more of that allusive light which comes from a wide range of culture, and a memory that instinctively reproduces at the right moment the appropriate anecdote or phrase. In his brief "Epilogue" he suggests that "the public may often justly complain that too much has been told." But neither the fulness nor the intimacy of his disclosure exceeds the proper bounds either as regards Mr. Higginson himself or others. If he has a sharp word of criticism for others now and then, he does not spare himself at points where he has missed the mark. And it is not by any means as if his book had an exclusively personal importance. It admits us to the very heart of several of the greatest movements of the century, without any exaggeration of the writer's personal contribution to the current of events. It gives us history in its social setting, and has, if we mistake not, permanent worth as one of those serviceable memoirs that help new times to rightly understand the old.

Mr. Higginson's first chapter, "A Cambridge Boyhood," is a valuable appendix to Lowell's "Cambridge Thirty Years Ago," and can be read continuously with that essay, which was one of the most delightful in Lowell's lighter vein, without any "dying fall." All of Mr. Higginson's tastes and aptitudes and inclinations were prefigured in his parents and their ancestors. His father's line reached back through merchants, military and civil officers to the Rev. Francis Higginson, who came to Salem in 1829. The father was the kind of man one expects to find on the wrong side of the anti-slavery conflict and is seldom disappointed. If he had lived longer—he died in 1832, when his son Thomas was nine years old—his son might have had difficulties in the progress of his anti-slavery principles which, in the event, did not encumber him. The fact that the elder Higginson planted most of the trees in the college yard is one that "breeds perpetual benedictions" on his memory. Delightful is the story of the first supply of Hebrew Bibles for the Divinity School, in which he was much interested. He went to President Kirkland in an indignant frame because the Bibles all had their title-pages at the back end. The strain of daring and adventure in Mr. Higginson's blood came from his mother and her sea-faring English father, Capt. Thomas Storrow of the British navy. Through her also came his middle name, an inheritance from Gov. Wentworth, the first of the three royal Governors of that name who ruled over New Hampshire. Nothing adorns Mr. Higginson's pages more tenderly than his account of his mother's character and her way of life. There was everything in her reading habit to give her children's blood a literary flow, and a home library of a thousand good books surviving the father's financial wreck confirmed the mother's influence. When Mrs. Edward Everett sent her some tamarinds, her son flatters himself that they were sent for his peculiar joy; but this is, for one so deeply versed in old New England ways, to be strangely oblivious of the virtues of tamarind water. From a single remark made by his mother he dates his apprehension of the intellectual disadvantages of women and the beginning of his attempt to better them. From the killing of a bird by a young companion he dates his aspiration to deserve the friendship of Emerson by "naming all the birds without a gun." Since the civil war his feeling for birds has extended to insects and fishes, and he found that Gen. Francis A. Walker was affected in the same way by his military experience. Another early impulse in the right direction came from the blackened walls of the Charlestown Ursuline Convent. They made him a passionate believer in religious liberty.

In his second chapter, "A Child of the College," Mr. Higginson makes good his claim to this title in a degree second only to that of John Holmes and Prof. Norton, "born in it, bred in it, interested from earliest recollection in its men." He writes pathetically of the decay of its social significance since the time when the Boston banks were closed on Commencement Day; of its morality, better now, he thinks, than sixty years ago; and of its intellectual character, now and then, with something of the spirit of the *laudator temporis acti*. He praises the great qualities of Benjamin Peirce, and somewhat proudly calls the roll of men whose style was formed by Prof. Edward Tyrrel Channing. Young Higginson's years in Cambridge coincided with a brief experiment of the elective system, which in its present application he warmly commends and would have carried still further. Writing of the members of his class, he is most impressed by the foolishness of prophesying how young men will turn out. Many of his classmates falsified the predictions; the immaculate class treasurer finally bringing up in the state prison.

In his next chapter, "The Period of the Newness," Mr. Higginson gives us an inside view, at once serious and humorous, of that period. He had democratic inclinations to a life of manual labor, and some brief approximating to it on the Old Colony Railroad, carrying a surveyor's chain. He was much at home in the social circle of which Lowell and Maria White were the binary centre, and in which their love-letters were passed around as too precious for mere private use. We get wonderful glimpses of George William Curtis and his brother Burrill, in gay-colored chintz blouses and little visorless caps with tassels. Mr. Higginson remarks on the silence of George in the Boston meetings advocating the Brook Farm doctrine; but as he was merely a boarder at the Farm, and was but nineteen when he left, his silence was most natural. Like Lowell, Higginson was for a time attracted to the law, but Richter's writings drew him to a literary career, and the preaching of James Freeman Clarke and Theodore Parker diverted him for a time into the Unitarian ministry. A passage descriptive of Parker's preaching is one of the most notable in the book.

A chapter called "The Rearing of a Reformer" covers his Divinity School life and his first settlement, which was in Newburyport, where one of his parishioners was Caleb Cushing, then a real general in the Mexican war, and another, "perhaps the quietest," was that Francis Todd who had Garrison incarcerated for libel in the Baltimore jail. The strongest personal impression made on him in the Divinity School proceeded from William Henry Hurlbut of unblessed memory, generally regarded as "a worthless fellow," and so denounced by President Walker. Mr. Higginson thinks him unequalled for natural brilliancy among all the men that he has known; "even Lowell was not his peer." He was the hero of three novels, Kingsley's 'Two Years Ago,' Winthrop's 'Cecil Dreeme,' and Mr. Higginson's own 'Malbone.' Various aspects of the anti-slavery and other reforms are presented with the utmost vividness. We seem not so much to read about them as to be on the spot, and we feel the chill of the aristocratic Boston shoulder as it turned towards the abolitionist. Here, too, we get the measure of young Higginson's social courage. He sided with Garrison in drawing-rooms and at dinner-tables where exquisite gentlemen calmly gave their opinion that Garrison was "a fellow who ought to be hung."

In 1841 Mr. Higginson ran for Congress to please Whittier, was defeated, and soon after left Newburyport for Worcester, where a Free Church wished him to become its minister. Apt in the selection of mottoes for his chapters, for that on the Fugitive Slave epoch he might well have taken "These Are Our Failures," so disappointing was his experience in the attempted rescues of Thomas Sims and Anthony Burns. The details of these matters are full of interest, and so are those of the John Brown affair, in which Mr. Higginson was deeply involved. He did not, however, anticipate Brown's action at Harper's Ferry, and thinks it was an incident of some temporary morbid exaltation. He would fain have tried to rescue Brown, and later his companions, but the omens were fatally opposed. He resents the descriptions of Brown that have obtained currency through Nicolay and Hay and others, insisting that coarseness of any kind was foreign to his nature. Very affecting is his account of his own visit to Brown's wife at North Elba and his journey with her to meet her husband. In Mr. Higginson's account of his own Kansas doings, he inflicts a merited punishment on Gov. Robinson, whose

defamation of John Brown has soiled the reputation it endeavored to exalt.

"The Birth of a Literature" is perhaps too literal a characterization of the early fortunes of the *Atlantic Monthly*. In these fortunes Mr. Higginson took an honorable part, writing more for the magazine than any one else except Lowell and Holmes. When the war broke out, his delay in finding his place at the front was longer than it seemed likely to be in advance, but when he went at last it was in an ideal fashion, as colonel of the first negro regiment recruited from the slave population. Here again, however, his ill-luck in practical adventures followed him. Seriously injured by the abrasion of a grape-shot or piece of shell, he was obliged to leave his command, and returned to it only to find himself disqualified by malaria from discharging his duties. He adds another laurel to Robert Shaw's memorial wreath when he tells us that Shaw did not share his own confidence in the courage of the colored soldiers. So much the rarer, then, his devotion to their training until the event dishonored every fear.

Mr. Higginson tells of a Boston Irishman who wished "to say a few things before he began." Mr. Higginson tells a few things after he ends with his eighth chapter. They concern literary London and Paris twenty years ago and "The Outskirts of Public Life." All three chapters are more than entertaining, but the last is one of the best in the book, giving an account of his lecturing, speechmaking, and political activity. The best conclusion of the book is the *apologia pro vita sua* on page 183, where he estimates his abounding versatility in comparison with a more contracted range. Whatever lack of concentration there has been, the varied product of his life has been uncommonly rich; while, when all is said, the man's best service has been his conspicuously unwavering devotion to every cause that has made for the enlightenment and improvement of his fellow-men.

A MODERN UTOPIA.

Industrial Democracy. In two volumes. By Sidney and Beatrice Webb. Longmans, Green & Co. 1897.

A distinguished professor of theology, in the days when systematic theology was the science *par excellence* in New England, once complacently remarked that he believed every difficulty was solved by his system. The book now before us gives evidence of a like cheerful belief on the part of its authors, and it cannot be denied that their optimism has an exhilarating effect on the reader. The perfectibility of human society is always an engaging theme, and those who undertake to demonstrate it are sure of an appreciative audience, provided their demonstration is reasonably attractive in form. To do them justice, these authors have certainly complied with this condition. They are well known by some vigorous polemical writings in support of collectivist theories, but in this case their work is distinguished by the calmness of its reasoning and by a genuinely scientific method. It is the product of laborious investigation, and indicates a complete familiarity with economic theories and arguments. Regarded as a scientific treatise, it is marred by prolixity and repetition; the argument could have been advantageously compressed into half the 850 pages which it occupies. But as it is probably intended for popular reading, its diffuseness may render it more easily assimilable.

In one respect the book is somewhat disappointing. The authors assure us that they have devoted six years' investigation to the task of a scientific analysis of trade-unionism in the United Kingdom, during the course of which they have examined, inside and out, the constitution of practically every trade-union organization, together with the methods and regulations which it uses to attain its ends. While the results of this investigation are apparent in the decided tone in which the authors are able to speak on a number of matters not generally understood, or generally misunderstood, the particulars which they give are more meagre and less interesting than we should expect. The importance of the conclusion rather overshadows the premises, although the authors are well aware of the great interest of the "thousands of working-class democracies, spontaneously growing up at different times and places," free from the traditions of other classes, and perpetually recasting their constitutions to meet new and varying conditions. The details of this evolution are referred to occasionally, to justify an inference, but they are dwelt upon as data for theories rather than as manifestations of human feeling. The authors aver that it is only in the third part of the work that they have ventured into the domain of theory; but they are altogether mistaken in their bearings. The whole book is pervaded by certain assumptions, and all the facts are seen through spectacles colored with prejudice. This we shall presently illustrate, but in the meantime it is desirable to examine the body of science obtained by the study of the evolution of the trade-unions.

In the first place, it seems to be clearly demonstrated by this investigation that although a strong trade-union feeling exists in favor of apprenticeship regulations, such regulations are now enforced only in a small and dwindling fraction of the industrial world.

> "Over by far the largest part of the limited field in which apprenticeship once prevailed, the system has gone practically out of use, and restrictive barriers, once supported by universal approval and fondly kept up by the trade clubs of the eighteenth century, have, during the past hundred years, gradually been swept away. Finally, so far from apprenticeship regulations forming a necessary part of Trade Unionism, a positive majority of the Trade Unionists now belong to occupations in which no shadow of apprenticeship has ever existed."

There were some advantages in the old way of learning a trade, but the modern industrial pace is altogether too fast for such leisurely methods, and, while the trade-unions would restrict their membership if they could, they find that practically they cannot. The tendency, therefore, is toward free competition among laborers, so far as their choice of employment is concerned.

The condition of this degree of freedom, however, is membership in a trade-union. In a number of trades no workman outside the union can get work. No employer will have anything to do with him. He is "just as much compelled to join the union as if membership were, by a new factory act, made a legal condition of employment." It is the mission of the trade-union, according to our authors, to make this state of affairs universal, so that no one shall be able to get work at any trade unless he belongs to its union. Many laborers, many trade-unionists, even, do not recognize this truth, but it follows necessarily from another principle which is fundamental to the whole theory. This principle is that called here the "Common Rule," established by "Collective Bargaining." These capital letters indicate that we are passing from the record of facts to the realm of theory, and it is time, therefore, to consider the generalizations which support the assumptions of 'Industrial Democracy.'

The fundamental assumption is that of the disadvantage of the laborer in bargaining with the employer. "It is a fundamental article of the trade-union faith that it is impossible, in a system of competitive industry, to prevent the degradation of the Standard of Life, unless the conditions of labor are settled, not by Individual Bargaining, but by some Common Rule." According to our authors, it is a matter of indifference to the employer whether he hires a laborer or not, while it is a matter of life or death to the laborer. Hence the laborer gets only what the employer chooses to give him. According to this view, there is no such thing as competition among employers to secure laborers; their competition is in paying the lowest possible wages, and as the one that pays the lowest wages makes the highest profits, the national standard of life goes lower and lower. On this principle the whole edifice of 'Industrial Democracy' is built. If it is true, combination among workmen is indispensable to the well-being of society. It follows that these combinations, or this general combination, must establish the rule of equal pay for equal effort, and must require that work be done everywhere under the same sanitary conditions. This does not mean absolute equality of wages, although it implies equality in the hours of labor, but it means that no employer shall pay less in wages than another for a like product. Hence the schemes of employers for making their workmen dependent on them, profit-sharing, insurance funds, etc., are condemned as a subtle "nibbling at wages," and "horizontal cleavage" between classes of citizens is regarded as essential to the well-being of the industrial community.

This scheme of society is worked out with the greatest ingenuity, and even plausibility, and the actual divergences of existing trade-unions from the ideal are most instructively pointed out. Evidently everything depends on the original assumption, and the chapter on "The Higgling of the Market" is an extremely clever representation of the effect of competition in reducing prices. It is conceded that there are some enlightened employers who would prefer to employ strong, sober, honest, and skilful workmen at high wages for short hours, but they are not masters of the situation. There are other employers who employ the refuse of the labor-market, and who will undersell the benevolent employers if they put their liberal views in practice. "The capitalist manufacturer stands at as great a relative disadvantage to the wholesale trader as the isolated workman does to the capitalist manufacturer." The manufacturer is "at the mercy of the wholesale dealer," and when the latter tells him his prices are too high, he obediently cuts down his workmen's wages, unless they are combined in a union. And "just as the manufacturer is conscious of his weakness in face of the wholesale trader, so the whole-

sale trader feels himself helpless before the retail shop-keeper to whom he sells his stock." And, in his turn, the shopkeeper is at the mercy of his customers, or consumers, in general. Here our authors stop their analysis. If they went further, they would find that as producers are also consumers, there might in low prices be compensation for low wages and profits. But the chapter is perfect as it is, and ought to put our protectionist writers to shame.

To cut the matter short, it is evident that if the production of wealth is increased by trade-unions and their methods and practices, no effective argument can be brought against their multiplication and extension. Few people will be found to deplore a diminution of profits due to an increase of wages, provided the production of goods is unaffected. Our authors argue with much force that in a society regulated according to their theories production would be actually increased, and such a result is conceivable. Rich people may learn to content themselves with one per cent. interest, and pay the difference between that and the present rate to the army of Government officers to be employed in seeing that no one does any work except at the "standard rate." But our authors go further than this, and contend that the foreign trade of England would not be reduced even if her production were reduced. "So long as we continued to desire foreign products, and therefore to import them in undiminished quantity, enough exports would continue to be sent abroad to discharge our international indebtedness." The "therefore" covers a considerable chasm in the logic of this proposition. If England were to adopt a four-hours' day for labor, could the present volume of exports be maintained, and, if not, would imports continue at the same rate? The owners of New England cotton mills and the workers therein would just now like some conclusive reasoning on this point, for it looks as if the "standard rate" could not be maintained against Southern competition.

Our authors have claimed too much for their panacea in maintaining that it would be effective if enforced in but a single community. They should insist on its world-wide application; and, pending the consummation of this, their own arguments prove that its application in a single community would be injurious. But whether we dissent from their conclusions or not, we must thank Mr. and Mrs. Webb for their services in constructing the most complete argument in support of modern socialistic theories that has ever appeared. No better case can be made out, and every economist and every statesman ought to make himself familiar with it.

THE POLYCHROME BIBLE.

The Sacred Books of the Old and New Testaments: A New English Translation, with Explanatory Notes and Pictorial Illustrations. Prepared by Eminent Biblical Scholars of Europe and America, and edited, with the assistance of Horace Howard Furness, by Paul Haupt, Professor in the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore. Part 10. Isaiah, translated by T. K. Cheyne; Part 14. The Book of Psalms, translated by J. Wellhausen. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1898.

This is an important work for several reasons. It represents the labor of many Biblical scholars of high rank. It offers a new rendering of the Old Testament, without any of the conservative trammels that restrained the Revisers of 1885. It does this on the basis of a revised Hebrew text. It endeavors to present the results of literary criticism with vivid distinctness. Each participant in the work is invited and expected to give the product of his best scholarship—intelligibly, as for the layman, but without dilution or adaptation to ignorance and prejudice. As a consequence, while the work is entirely comprehensible to intelligent men and women, it is both too erudite and too frank to appeal to the crowd of superficial Bible readers. The pictorial illustrations may, it is true, attract even some of these, and that will be their best function.

Scholars will derive profit from these volumes, but they are not intended primarily for scholars. Hence it is only after some test of use by those who are not specialists that a final opinion can be given as to the success of the undertaking. But it is not too early to say that it seems likely to both interest and instruct those who pursue the study of the Old Testament seriously, even without technical training. It will give its readers some familiarity with Old Testament problems, accustom them to the scholar's attitude, and illuminate many pages of the Hebrew masterpieces with fresh light. It is, no doubt, subject to the disadvantages which attend all endeavors to represent, in crystallized form, the results of a science which is moving rapidly. It is even more subject than some others to such disadvantages, because its parts do not represent an agreement of scholars, but each the work of but one or two. Such a representation, when it is elaborate and expensive, has some tendency to claim the position of a standard, without having an absolute right to it, and, while it is useful and furthering to-day, may hamper progress to-morrow. Photographs of the sun's corona during an eclipse are invaluable if you have enough of them. It might mislead if one photograph, by a single observer, were to be published as the authoritative view of the corona.

One other drawback in the present case is the condition of the textual criticism of the Old Testament. Only to a small extent has this as yet been conducted systematically, with a careful use of all the available means. Even the principles of such criticism are not uniformly accepted. The necessity and the difficulty of it are both great. It is inevitable that textual emendation, under such circumstances, should be made up largely of suggestions, more or less acute, in which the element of personal idiosyncrasy is not lacking. It cannot embody the results of a sound and uniform method, consistently applied. This defect is accentuated by the absence, in the Polychrome version, of the evidence on which the textual changes rest. These are given in the revised Hebrew Text, which appears as an independent work. It is a pity that at least as much help in this direction could not have been offered the reader as is contained in the margin of the Variorum Bible.

Notwithstanding these drawbacks, the Polychrome Bible marks an epoch, and will contribute to the spread of knowledge. Its name is justified in only one of the two parts before us. Wellhausen's "Psalms" shows only the common white and black of paper and printer's ink. The design of the colors was to indicate differences of authorship and date in the various materials making up the books. Not only is this clue wanting in the case of the Psalms, but in only a few cases is there any hint, in the brief notes, of the age to which a Psalm is to be referred. This is disappointing. The questions here arising are undoubtedly very difficult, but that is no reason for ignoring them. That he has ignored them is one among several indications of capriciousness in the recent Old Testament work of this brilliant scholar. The value of the part is enhanced, however, by an interesting appendix on the "Music of the Ancient Hebrews." The translation is put into English by the competent hand of Dr. H. H. Furness.

Canon Cheyne's "Isaiah" represents the plan of the work much better. He uses colors freely—laid on in blocks, according to the contrivance adopted by the editor, the ink being black throughout. Not only so, but he groups the prophecies under different heads, largely according to date and authorship, so that he can use the same colors with different signification under the different heads. Their values are explained in the notes. By the aid of these devices he distinguishes, not two "Isaiahs," but five, and of individual authors the number is still greater, for, *e. g.*, the fifth group covers more than a hundred years. Taken in connection with the hints at historical interpretation found in the notes, there is no better way of receiving a distinct impression of the most interesting of the prophetical books, as understood by a bold, learned, and acute scholar, than by reading this volume of two hundred pages with care.

It is impossible to discuss details. We commend this series to the attention of Bible students, with the hope not only that the Old Testament version may be soon completed, but that the promise of the title-page may be in due time fulfilled, and the Polychrome Version of the New Testament, of which we have no announcement as yet, be put into our hands. The literary structure of the New Testament deserves study as well as that of the Old, and just now demands it with an emphasis all the greater because it has hitherto been unduly ignored.

Forty-six Years in the Army. By Lieutenant-General John M. Schofield. The Century Co. 8vo, pp. xvi, 577.

As one by one the officers of the regular army at the head of the list have been retired from active service when they reached the age of sixty-four, the roster of those who commanded independent armies in the field has been exhausted. Now and henceforth the ranking officer of the army must be one who served in the civil war as a subordinate, till this list also shall be ended and the whole generation of those who saw active service in civilized warfare on a great scale has passed off the stage. General Schofield is the last of those who commanded armies for whom a special rank was provided after the close of the war. That of General was limited to Grant and Sherman by the original statute, which also provided that the grade of Lieutenant-General should cease with the death of Sheridan. Sympathy with the latter when he was *in articulo mortis* led Congress to confer on him the higher rank, but he never exercised it.

A short time before General Schofield reached the age limit when he too must retire, the rank of Lieutenant-General was given him by act of Congress. These highest grades were honorary, for Grant ended his war service as Lieutenant-General; Sherman, Sheridan, and Schofield theirs as Major-Generals.

It has been known for a long time that General Schofield was writing memoirs of his military career, which would be published after his death. His retirement from active service has removed most of the objections he may have felt, and he gives us his book, as he says, while many of the actors in the great drama are still living and can point out any errors into which he may have fallen. The book is not a connected narrative of the author's life. It is rather a collection of notes and comments on events that he had part in. The first two or three chapters are more closely biographical, dealing with his boyhood and education at West Point and his service prior to the outbreak of the great rebellion. The campaigns of 1861 and 1863 in Missouri are then briefly but lucidly treated. Next follows a series of comments upon Sherman's generalship in the campaigns of Atlanta and the Carolinas, written in 1875, upon the publication of the first edition of Sherman's memoirs. These are followed by a discussion of the campaign of Franklin and Nashville in the autumn of 1864, and of the author's relations to General George H. Thomas in that important crisis. This will no doubt be considered as the most important part of the book. Further comment on Sherman's March to the Sea, its purpose, and its strategy, with the final campaign which resulted in Johnston's surrender, close the treatment of the war period. Entertaining and instructive chapters are given to the French intervention in Mexico, to reconstruction in the South, to army administration in time of peace, and to some of the lessons of the war, military and financial.

General Schofield's experience in Missouri is a most instructive lesson on the difficulties of both military and civil administration in a border State. The Union men of Missouri were divided into factions as hostile to each other as they were to the Confederates. The Union men of Kansas were generally radicals, who had been schooled by border-ruffians into an intense and implacable enmity to all slaveholders. The radicals of the two States united in the efforts to dictate a policy to the Administration at Washington, while Mr. Lincoln's heart was set on encouraging the loyalty of the anti-secession slaveholders and giving them protection. The situation was practically an intolerable one, and Schofield, as the military commandant of the department, was between the upper and the nether millstone. Mr. Lincoln appreciated the honest and patient efforts of the General to carry out his policy; but the bitter enmity of such men as Lane of Kansas and like extremists of Missouri was enough to prevent for a year and a half the confirmation of Schofield's appointment as Major-General. It was not till he had left the West and become one of Sherman's army commanders in Georgia that his confirmation was finally allowed to pass the Senate.

The chapters commenting on the Atlanta campaign contain valuable matter based on personal knowledge and throw light on some important points. The fact that the criticisms on Sherman's generalship were written in 1875 and are published as then written, must diminish their weight. The publication of the Official Records has only lately opened to us the current correspondence on both sides, without which the actual situation cannot be understood, or the shifting and growing plans and methods of the opposed commanders tested with any satisfaction. The purposes of Gen. Johnston and the pressure of the Richmond Government upon him to assume the aggressive made an element in the problem of which comparatively little was known twenty years ago. The lapse of time and the opening of new sources of knowledge have, in the general judgment of the world, tended to increase the admiration for Sherman's conduct, especially in the prudence of his movements at the opening of the campaign, when his own impulsive nature was held so carefully in check. The bold strategy of his final campaigns has by common acclaim been placed among classic examples of generalship.

The treatment of Gen. Schofield's own campaign against Hood in November of 1864 is very thorough in everything which pertains to his relations to Gen. Thomas. Here the whole subject was absolutely within the author's knowledge, and he has evidently made a most thorough compilation of every kind of evidence which may bear upon it. The special interest turns largely upon the fact that an unscrupulous effort was made to poison Thomas's mind against his principal subordinate. The chief actor in this plot seems to have been a man, always of a dubious personal reputation, who ended his career under a cloud on account of malversation in a revenue office of the government. How far Thomas was deceived into believing that Schofield was scheming against him may still be regarded an open question, but the assertions of those who were about him, and the publication of Van Horne's Life of Thomas, made it entirely proper that Schofield should give the matter the thorough treatment which he has given it in this memoir. The correspondence throughout the campaign is carefully analyzed, Schofield's own part as commander in the field is clearly defined and proved, the directions of the chief and the execution by the subordinate, with the extent and kind of responsibility of each, are all so fully and clearly marked out as to leave very little room for debate. While the author deeply regrets the apparent estrangement which was wrought in Gen. Thomas's mind, and regards the plot to bring it about as a criminal wrong to both, he gives strong evidence of his own continued admiration and regard for the character of his old chief.

From a strictly military point of view, the campaign of Franklin and Nashville is calmly criticised for the purpose of fixing its strong and weak points as matters of history. The author alludes with a touch of pathos to the fact that he is already an older man and an older officer than Thomas was when he died, and claims the indisputable right to review without constraint the portions of their career which were in common. We should all have felt that Gen. Schofield had come short of doing his duty to posterity if he had omitted to give us his frank and full judgment upon the events in which he bore so important and honorable a part.

Across the Everglades; A Canoe Journey of Exploration. By Hugh L. Willoughby. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1898. Pp. xii, 192 8vo, illustrated.

This journey was undertaken in order to explore that unknown portion of the Everglades into which the Seminole Indians were driven during the Indian war, and which was left unvisited by two previous expeditions; also, to examine the fauna and flora of the region in the interests of the University of Pennsylvania. It seems strange to learn, in these days of energetic exploration in all parts of the world, that we have, in one of our Atlantic Coast States, a tract 130 miles long and 70 miles wide which, until a year or two ago, was as much unknown to civilized man as the heart of Africa. It is bounded on the north by Lake Okeechobee, on the east by a strip of pine forest about six miles wide, facing the Atlantic, on the south by the mangrove swamps bordering the southern and southwestern shores of the peninsula, and on the west by the Big Cypress Swamp, which touches the western coast fronting the Gulf of Mexico.

The first journey of any length through any part of the Everglades was made by Major A. P. Williams in 1883, but resulted in no additions to cartography, as the record of the party on published maps is merely a general line from the Harney River to Lake Okeechobee. It is probable that no attempt was made at scientific surveying. In 1892 a party of more than twenty men under J. E. Ingraham followed an old Government trail from Myers, on the west coast, to the site of Fort Shackelford on the eastern edge of the Big Cypress Swamp. Thence, after many hardships, they succeeded in crossing to Miami in about two weeks, being piloted out of the maze by a Seminole Indian.

The author of this volume made an experimental trip across the eastern pine belt in 1896. Last year he took his outfit and supplies by vessel to the Harney River on the west coast behind the Ten Thousand Islands. This river is a small stream about five miles long, its upper part available only for canoe navigation. It forms one of the outlets for the surplus waters of the Everglades. Its bed is composed of limestone chemically precipitated from the fresh water and showing a more or less crystalline structure. From the head of the river Lieut. Willoughby started with two canoes and one companion in a northeasterly direction. Distances were measured by a light wheel lashed to the stern of the canoe, provided with paddles and a register showing the number of rotations—a method which proved fairly accurate. Astronomical observations were taken daily for position. A tongue-shaped tract of sawgrass necessitated a long détour to the southward, but the Miami was reached in safety, after a journey of some fifteen days. No specific dates are given in the text for particular days.

What, then, are the Everglades? The popular opinion has been that they are a vast tract of swamp, reeking with malaria and enclosing rich islands of higher ground reached by paths known only to the Seminoles, and where, it was surmised, the latter had rich plantations, orange groves, and herds of cattle. We learn from our author that this is all erroneous. The Everglades do not form a swamp in the ordinary acceptation of the term. They are more like a vast area of gently sloping rocky beach, over which the Okeechobee drainage, constantly in motion, moves steadily towards the sea. The water is pure and potable; as it is not

stagnant, there are few mosquitoes, at least in the winter season. The author encountered no malaria, but reports the air as stimulating, with a winter temperature of 70 to 80 degrees Fahrenheit, pleasant and healthful. The water is everywhere shallow, varying from a couple of feet to as many inches, separated from the rock, which everywhere underlies it, by a coating of calcareous mud which in some places has a depth of six feet, and in others diminishes to nothing. The rock surface is curiously irregular, nubbly, and full of cavities. On the bottom grow grasses which impede the traveller. Where the mud is deep the dreaded "sawgrass" grows to a height of ten feet above the water, three-sided, with each angle armed with sharp recurved teeth which cut to the bone, making a jagged wound, long in healing. The thick sawgrass is impenetrable; it is easier to go twenty-five miles round than to get through a quarter of a mile of it. Islands are few and small, rising only a few inches above the water. Snakes are plentiful and large; panther, deer, otter, and other animals occur, but more plentifully near the edges of the tract. Birds are more numerous, especially the egret; and one bird, the Everglades kite, is peculiar to the region. Alligators are found, but not abundantly; fish and turtles are common, but difficult to catch in the maze of grasses. On the whole, it is a unique region, and the author's account of it is interesting and timely.

Lieut. Willoughby speaks of the Seminoles with respect and admiration; a hard-working, patient folk, who pride themselves on their truthfulness and desire only to be let alone, free from contact with the "lying white man." The book ends with a Seminole vocabulary of sixteen pages, rather crudely prepared, but which the philologist may find to contain some useful material. The volume bears evidence of unfamiliarity with book-making, but has numerous excellent illustrations and a good index. It succeeds fairly well in filling a notable gap in the geographic literature of our country.

Histoire de la Langue et de la Littérature Française. Tome IV. 1600-1660. Tome V. 1661-1700. Paris: Armand Colin. 1897.

In accordance with expectation, each new volume of this work exceeds its predecessor in bulk. Fortunately the greater amplitude of treatment has resulted in making Volume IV. the ablest and most exhaustive yet published, while the character of the critical opinions expressed conforms more closely than ever to the intention as originally stated. To the editor (Prof. Petit de Julleville) have fallen two chapters, devoted respectively to seventeenth-century poets from Malherbe to Benserade, and the founding of the French Academy as introductory to the succeeding period of classicism. With most modern critics the treatment of the "official poet of the Bourbon dynasty" has been often so harsh that a partial rehabilitation of his fame is welcome, even though coupled with the admission that Malherbe's "laborious timidity" helped to stifle truly lyrical poetry in France for nearly two hundred years. It is but natural that the artless outpourings and the marked individuality of style in the work of Mathurin Régnier should appeal more strongly to a critic of to-day who strives to express the general feeling of his own time and generation. A similar remark applies to Théophile de Viau. Not the least pleasing feature of this chapter is its unsparing employment of illustrative quotation, which contributors to the earlier volumes might have done well to anticipate.

M. Bourciez furnishes a capital chapter on the Hôtel de Rambouillet, in which, taking a hint from M. Brunetière's well-known views, he dwells on the development of the social spirit in French literature as the outcome of the influence of that brilliant coterie; and though recognizing the triviality of much that filled their discussions, he seems to have summed up definitely the enduring worth of the movement in his last sentence: "Si quelques-uns y recueillèrent . . . des germes d'affectation, beaucoup y apprirent à penser délicatement et tous à bien dire." Fifty years ago it would have required some courage to express such an opinion, except under the protection of the academic roof; but we have at last learned to understand that Molière's immortal satire was directed less against the *précieuses* of Paris than at their awkward provincial imitators.

Our feeling for the critic (M. Rigal) whose weary task it was to judge the work of the initiators of the modern French drama (Hardy, Racan, Mairet, etc.) vanishes on discovering that his enthusiasm was strong enough to inspire him with the following bit of artless chauvinism: "À la lecture ses tragédies [those of Hardy], avec leurs changements de lieu, font l'effet de tragédies écrites par un Shakespeare . . . un peu timide et plus réservé." In this chapter the well-worn theme of the dramatic unities holds a prominent place, as indeed in other divisions of the volume, and on this point the various commentators appear refreshingly united as to the wholesomely restrictive effect of rules on individual tendencies towards vagaries in dramatic composition. From a literary point of view, it is hard to speak too highly of M. Jules Lemaître's entertaining treatment of Corneille—much the liveliest chapter in this volume—for, under the guise of irony much more gentle than is his wont, the writer conveys a series of opinions strikingly fresh and original. In the light of them the contemporary hostility to "Le Cid," which was by no means confined to Richelieu alone, nor indeed wholly instigated by his jealousy, grew out of an imperfectly realized conviction that that famous drama, with its theme of the triumph of "l'amour-passion," violates ordinary (*i. e.*, conventional) morality in its solution of a case which that morality had not foreseen. This distinguishes "Le Cid" both from all earlier plays of the seventeenth century and from the rest of Corneille's greater dramas, in which the will to do right invariably plays the determining part of the action. Despite the gravity of the situation, M. Lemaître's habit of literary curveting was too strong to be entirely overcome, though the exercise has been prudently relegated to the marginal security of a foot-note, in which we read that "Polyeucte nous rappelle à la fois Saint Paul, Jean Huss, Calvin, et le Prince Kropotkine"; and a few pages further on, the examination of "Théodore" held out an irresistible opportunity for a sly rap at Sardou.

Other chapters take up romances, memoirs, and philosophical works, the last occupying a space at least equal to their importance; but, in spite of somewhat elaborate subdivisions, we fail to find in the exposition of Cartesianism (MM. Hannequin and Thanin) such lucidity as characterizes M. Gazier's commentary on Pascal and Port Royal. It is possible that the metaphysical principles underlying the former do not admit, at least in such a semi-formal treatise as this, of a thoroughgoing treatment; and yet one might well give the average reader credit for the ability to follow an examination of Descartes's dualism in all its details, with the inevitable conclusion of its ultimate philosophical failure. Dealing with Pascal, M. Gazier dwells on the truly philosophical character of his scepticism, as distinguished from religious doubt; his dogmatic Christianity rests on pyrrhonism. It should, however, in fairness be admitted that no shuffling of terms can differentiate this attitude, so far as results are concerned, from that of the sentimental mystic. We must note, by the way, that the critic in this connection writes Ober*land* for Ober*mann*; it is true that popular opinion connects both of these names with Switzerland, and thus it is all one.

The final chapter, on the internal history of the language, offers less interest than the corresponding divisions in earlier volumes, but not from any falling off in M. Brunot's method or manner. The age of Vaugelas and academic wranglings on the respective "nobility" of terms offers little even of historical interest to such as live in an age of journalism and reckless neologizing.

With the appearance of the fifth volume (1661-1700) "le Grand Siècle" is completed. So little remains to be said touching the great names of this period that the relatively conventional character of the judgments here rendered was all but a foregone conclusion. Boileau, La Fontaine, and Mme. de Sévigné are exalted as typically representative of French *esprit* and common sense. The treatment of the Bossuet-Fénelon quarrel, by two different hands, shows, nevertheless, much evenness, and confirms the prior conviction that the disagreement was one of temperament quite as much as of logical, or theological, conclusions. Strangely enough, the otherwise ample discussion of Molière omits all mention of his diction and style. In the case of Saint-Simon, his commentator appears to have been equally eager to emphasize the envious disposition of the man and to determine the enduring qualities of the writer. The difficulty of comparing, and yet contrasting, La Bruyère and La Rochefoucauld is met and overcome in the neat phrase which sets off the professional against the amateur. But the newest and consequently the most interesting element in this volume consists in the introduction of a long chapter by M. Rocheblave, which examines the æsthetic affinities of French art and letters during the seventeenth century, and demonstrates more cogently than ever the influence of political absolutism on both. We would say in conclusion that the attitude displayed in these volumes towards the great ecclesiastics and preachers of the time leads us to await with eagerness the coming pronouncements on the sceptical movement of the following century.

The Rod in India; being Hints how to Obtain Sport, and Remarks on the Natural History of Fish and their Culture, and Illustrations of Fishing Tackle. By Henry Sullivan Thomas, F.L.S.. 3d ed. London: W. Thacker & Co. 1897.

The first edition of this work was publish-

ed in 1873, and the two succeeding ones both contain much new material in print and illustration. Though Mr. Thomas devotes a good deal of space to pisciculture, his book is chiefly for the angler, and is the only one of importance on Indian fishing. The mahseer, a member of the carp family, is the best known of the Indian fishes, and yields sport, when hooked, not at all inferior to that the salmon affords. He takes the fly much as a salmon does, "rising at it and descending quietly to his old place at the bottom till he feels the hook," and then his first rush is much more violent than a salmon's. "In spinning there is added yet another danger: the mahseer does not ordinarily take its fish quietly, as if it knew it would be unresisting like a puny fly, but seizes it with an angry blow that gives a sudden jerk to the line; it comes at the fish-bait with a swoop like a hawk, and, seizing it, passes swirling by at speed." His fighting qualities and strength, pound for pound, Mr. Thomas considers fully equal to those of the salmon, and, fished for with salmon tackle, the sport the mahseer yields is of the very finest, as in some of the large Indian rivers he attains a weight of 150 pounds or more, though these very large ones are seldom taken. Still, fish of 50 to 60 pounds are not at all uncommon, and on p. 399 an interesting account is given of the capture in the Poonch River of a 52-pounder which, by reason of a break in the reel, kept the angler busy for six hours before he was landed. Records of many days' fishing are given when bags of five to eighteen mahseer were made. The carnatic carp is also a sporting fish, resembling the chub in appearance, takes fly and bait, and reaches a weight of 20 to 25 pounds.

There are other fish in the streams of India, the murral, the fresh-water shark, and many more, but of all the mahseer is by far the most attractive to the angler. Like the salmon, he inhabits impetuous streams, is fished for in the same way and with the same tackle. Mr. Thomas says of him: "The mahseer shows more sport than the salmon; not that you can kill more of them, which you may also do, but that each individual mahseer makes a better fight than a salmon of the same size."

The illustrations of the book are capital and appropriate, and every information is given that is necessary to the man contemplating an angling trip to India.

Christian Greece and Living Greek. By Dr. Achilles Rose. New York: Peri Hellados Publication Office. 1898.

Perhaps the most tragic, and certainly the bitterest, result of the late collapse of Greece is that it has made her ridiculous. There was a time when the sorrows and wrongs of Greece eclipsed the gayety of nations. But though for Phil-Hellenes Hellas is still a bleeding martyr, crushed under the heel of the heartless "Concert of Europe," the cooler and more impartial verdict is that years of silence and reorganization from within are needed if she is to win back the emotional sympathy that she once shared with "Young Italy" and Poland. For the present, she lies under the suspicion of being absurd. She is so hopelessly shrouded in an atmosphere of ineffectiveness that even the recent murderous attempt on her King has proved a fiasco in the end. The civilized world had barely recovered from its thrill of horror when it learned that, out of six or eight shots aimed at some ten paces distance by two desperate assassins armed with terribly effective Gras rifles, one of these Gras bullets, "that will whistle through eighteen inches of solid oak," had hit but failed to break the carriage-lamp; and another had slightly marked but failed to wound the carriage horses, while the latter did not even play their part to the extent of taking fright, and so introducing an element of real danger. For this and other reasons it seems that the claims put forth by Dr. Achilles Rose in his book vaguely entitled 'Christian Greece and Living Greek' are ill-timed.

The Greek flag on the cover betrays its proselytizing aims. It would be unprofitable to criticise here vague rhapsodies over the glorious past of Greece by one who is obviously not a classical scholar. All sensible Phil-Hellenes who read Dr. Rose's still vaguer prophecies of the "glory of Greece" in the future, will share our regret for an opportunity of silence neglected, and our congratulations to Greeks that Dr. Rose is not a Greek, but a German. His book has a definite aim beyond the glorification of Greece and the vilification of "the Powers." It is a proposal for a universal language—an idea that is some centuries old, but it has been reserved for Dr. Rose to suggest that the medium best fitted for the purpose is modern Greek. Undeterred by previous failures in this line, or rather supporting himself by them, Dr. Rose points out the difficulties of a polyglot congress, and would solve them by the apparently simple plan of making all the members acquire a reading and speaking knowledge of yet another language than those that ordinarily come within their range. Scientific men who have hitherto regarded a working knowledge of French, German, and English as something of an achievement, will hardly hail with enthusiasm the prospect of such an addition to their repertory. But Dr. Rose meets this difficulty with his theory that, if classical Greek were taught "rationally" in schools and colleges, "the most perfect, the ideal language would speak for itself, and inspire scholars to unite in agitation for its general adoption" (p. 259).

Dr. Rose means, by "the perfect language," "Greek as she is spoke." It is no new contention that ancient Greek should be taught through its modern representative, and it has already been met by classical scholars with an almost perfect unanimity. The arguments of those who urge such a method are offensive to scholars because they are based on assumptions that have small foundation in fact. When Dr. Rose asserts (p. 243) that "the Greek language alone has preserved itself almost unchanged through thousands of years in its original beauty," he puts himself out of court. A language that has played fast and loose with its moods, prepositions, cases, and general syntax, which in the mouths of the people has passed into a dialect almost unrecognizable by one who is thoroughly familiar with classical Greek, cannot be said to be "almost unchanged." Dr. Rose is not explicit, and usually drops into rhetoric where one would fain have facts, but we may assume that the language he is offering to scholars as a medium is not the barbarous hybrid revived Greek of the newspapers—a jargon which a classical scholar reads with infinite disgust. One piece of reasoning in this work is so characteristic of Dr. Rose's grasp of the issues involved that we cannot forbear to quote it. He has been told by a malignant professor of classical Greek that it is not worth while to acquire modern Greek except for the purposes of the tourist, since "there is absolutely no modern literature worthy of the name." His answer is that there is now being constructed at Athens "a work of monumental grandeur belonging to the noblest of the literature [*sic*] of any country in the world" (p. 276). What is this literary masterpiece? A work on craniometry and anthropology embracing facts "collected in voluminous manuscripts which I have had the pleasure, the delight, to examine. . . . Is there any literary production in any country at the present time which is superior to this?" (p. 276). How is one to meet in argument a writer who deliberately regards material for the study of anthropology as literature?

Dr. Rose's judgments on the attitude of the Powers are simply beneath criticism. The statement that "the Greeks incurred the displeasure of the European governments by their revival of the Olympian games in 1896" (p. 286) is one that every intelligent Greek will repudiate. His suggestion for an international language may be left to its fate. The *lingua philosophica* of Leibnitz died too. The "Volapük of the Rev. Mr. Schleyer" perished likewise. To us the real weakness of Dr. Rose's book lies not so much in his rather foolish suggestion, but in the tone he assumes, and his inadequate knowledge, which on almost every page leads him into blunders. The Renaissance of the classics was inspired by Greeks. It is probable that we are now facing a revival of the Dark Ages in which science will play the rôle once sustained by religion in discrediting literature. But we shall not owe to Greeks the future renaissance of Greek unless they are encouraged to see their language and modern literature in their true proportions.

On p. 68, in "Joures"—" a second Aristophanes with a strong Shaksperian vein, who shows a considerable resemblance to Chaucer's tenderness of disposition" (!)—we imagine that we recognize Soures, the editor and writer of a witty and rather scurrilous little comic paper at Athens.

Astronomy. By Agnes M. Clerke, A. Fowler, and J. Ellard Gore. D. Appleton & Co. 1898.

So many able men have entered the contest to produce the best popular astronomy that the standard of excellence for such works is now very high. At the same time, they have, on the whole, as one after another has appeared since Herschel's 'Outlines,' been growing less and less intellectual. The present volume is not as sensational as those of Flammarion; it contains nothing calculated to terrify the reader, nor any scheme for communicating with inhabitants of Mars. Those particular varieties of silliness are not this year in fashion. We read, p. 404, "According to the Book of Enoch the constellations were already known and named in the time of that patriarch." Since everybody knows that the Book of Enoch is not even admitted into the Vulgate, a stronger impression of the antiquity of the constellations, which undoubtedly go back to the very beginnings of astronomy, could have

been conveyed by mentioning that Alexander is said on good authority to have sent home from Babylon astronomical records going back to 2300 B. C.; and the "Phænomena" of the Macedonian poet Aratus, which, according to an ancient witness, depicts a globe, really describes the heavens as they were 2300 B. C. But this way of stating the minimum age of the constellations would not answer the purpose, because it supposes the reader to have sufficient logical power to follow an argument intelligently. There are no tables nor lists pretending to completeness (except that a list of the signs of the zodiac has been admitted, probably because the traditional methods of young ladies' academies make a good deal of signs of the zodiac); nor is there any attempt at summing up, or an account in any respect thorough of the present state of any branch of research. At the same time, the book reflects to-day's current opinions among English astronomers, and, touching most of the questions of descriptive astronomy now uppermost (and not too difficult), has its value, and will be used to advantage in schools of a certain character. There is no transcendental accuracy about the work in any particular.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Text-Book of Botany. Macmillan. $4.50.
Athey, H., and Bowers, A. H. With Gyves of Gold. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.50.
Bache, R. M. Life of Gen. George Gordon Meade. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co. $3.
Beaton, David. Selfhood and Service. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Bennet, W. H. The Old Testament Story. Retold for Young People. Macmillan. 60c.
Bernhardt, Wilhelm. German Composition. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.
Beyck, Ed. Bismarck. [Monographien zur Weltgeschichte.] Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Beyle, M. H. Red and Black: A Chronicle of the Nineteenth Century. 2 vols. G. H. Richmond & Son. $2.
Bourget, Paul. Antigone. Boston: L'Echo de la Semaine. 25c.
Bradlaugh, Charles. A Few Words about the Devil. Truth Seeker Co. 50c.
Brown, Alexander. The First Republic in America. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $7.50.
Bullock, Shan F. The Charmer: A Seaside Comedy. London: James Bowden; New York: M. F. Mansfield. $1.50.
Burns. Selected Poems. American Book Co. 20c.
Burrow, C. K. The Fire of Life. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Bury, Yetta Blaze de. French Literature of To-day. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Byron's Prisoner of Chillon. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 25c.
Cahan, Abraham. The Imported Bridegroom, and Other Stories of the New York Ghetto. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Capes, Bernard. The Lake of Wine. Appletons. $1.
Clowes, W. L. The Royal Navy. A History from the Earliest Times to the Present. Vols. I. and II. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Cowles, J. L. A General Freight and Passenger Post. Putnams. $1.25.
Crane, Stephen. The Open Boat, and Other Tales of Adventure. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.
Crockett, S. R. The Standard-Bearer. Appletons. $1.50.
Crouch, A. P. Señorita Monténar. Harpers.
Davidson, Thomas. Rousseau, and Education according to Nature. [Great Educators.] Scribners. $1.
Dickens, Charles. Little Dorrit. 2 vols. Barnaby Rudge. 2 vols. Bleak House. 2 vols. [Gadshill Edition.] Scribners. Each $1.50.
Directory of Directors in the City of New York. The Audit Co.
Ellis, E. S. A History of Our Country. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Essays of Elia. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 35c.
Ferry, Jules. Discours et Opinions. Tome VII. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Gerard, Dorothea. A Forgotten Sin. Appletons. $1.
Graham, J. M. The Son of the Czar. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Harris, J. C. Tales of the Home Folks in Peace and War. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Hickson, Prof. S. J. The Story of Life in the Seas. Appletons. 40c.
Hubbard, Elbert. As it Seems to Me. East Aurora, N. Y.: Roycroft Shop. $2.
Lord, Eleanor L. Industrial Experiments in the British Colonies of North America. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
Macdowell, H. C. Henry of Guise, and Other Portraits. Macmillan. $2.75.
Magruder, Julia. A Realized Ideal. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Moses, Thomas. Half-Hours with the Christ. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. $1.
Petrie, W. M. F. Religion and Conscience in Ancient Egypt. Scribners. $1.
Petrie, W. M. F. Syria and Egypt from the Tell el-Amarna Letters. Scribners. $1.
Reddaway, W. F. The Monroe Doctrine. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Roberts, A. W. Cæsar, Book I. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50c.
Rollin, H. J. Yetta Ségal. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.25.
Sanders, G. A. Reality; or, Law and Order vs. Anarchy and Socialism. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.
Sherwood, Mrs. M. E. W. Here and There and Everywhere. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Shoemaker, W. L. La Santa Yerba. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.
Stevens, B. F. Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773-1783. Vol. XXV. Index. London: B. F. Stevens.
Symonds, Margaret, and Gordon, Lina D. The Story of Perugia. [Mediæval Towns.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
The Rise and Fall of the United States. F. T. Neely.
Tilney, Robert. Gleanings from Poetic Fields. Philadelphia: J. C. Winston & Co. $1.
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Wallace, William. Robert Burns and Mrs. Dunlop. Correspondence now Published in Full for the First Time. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $5.
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Wordsworth. Selected Poems. American Book Co. 20c.
Wormeley, Katharine P. The Cruel Side of War. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Wylie, J. H. History of England under Henry the Fourth. Vol. IV. 1411-1413. Longmans, Green & Co. $7.
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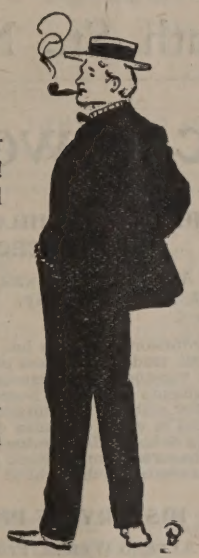

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 5, 1898.

The Week.

The first battle of the war has taken place where it was expected. Admiral Dewey has demolished the Spanish fleet, as he was expected to do, in the Philippine Islands. The completeness of the victory is acknowledged in Madrid. The only thing we need to know about it is the amount of damage Admiral Dewey has himself sustained. The importance of this, however, depends on the question whether it was his intention, or whether he had instructions, to do more than demolish the fleet. So confident were the Board of Naval Strategy at Washington of the superiority of our six ships to the Spanish nine or ten, even when the latter were under the guns of the forts, that they did not hesitate to detach the powerful battleship *Oregon* from the Pacific squadron. This looked like a reckless proceeding, but the result has vindicated the Board. All danger of raids on our Pacific Coast is now removed, and our navy has only to reckon up the remaining strength of the Spanish fighting marine in the Atlantic. While this is, of course, not to be underestimated, it is far inferior to ours even on paper, while there is good reason to believe that the demoralization of the Spanish service has not failed to reach the navy. It is asserted by experts, French and other, that squadron evolutions and gunnery practice are almost unknown to the Spanish fleet. With the exception of the *Vizcaya* and the *Oquendo*, it is maintained by those who ought to know that the Spanish war-ships are away below par in equipment, drill, and discipline. Coleridge asserted that the discipline on Spanish ships was, in his time, the loosest in the world, and that in the American navy the most severe. This may not entirely hold now, but everything points to its being still measurably true.

Before war was declared, it was suddenly turned into a war to avenge the *Maine*. Has not this object been attained? We are reported to have killed or drowned 400 Spaniards. Two hundred and sixty-six men are reported to have perished in the *Maine* explosion; this leaves us with 134 dead Spaniards to our credit, which surely ought to satisfy us, unless another fight should put the balance on the other side. We do not know whether this account is quite correct, because we have heard as yet no report of Dewey's losses. If he has had any, they will, of course, have to be deducted from our credit. We notice that Bishop Whipple has directed a prayer in his diocese for the protection of our soldiers in the field, but the Spaniards are praying busily for the protection of their soldiers. In every war between Christian nations these conflicting prayers have been a scandal, ever since the foundation of Christianity, and we hoped they had ceased. They are founded on the theory that the Creator takes a certain pleasure in watching fights, and that he gives the victory to the pluckiest and best drilled. It would be better for religion to have this view of the Creator's tastes drop out of sight. To the question why God permits war if he does not like it and does not take sides in it, we must answer by asking why he permits robbery, murder, and lynching, and lying? As we know we shall not get any authoritative answer to these questions, had we not better leave the subject alone?

Opinions differ very widely as to the probable total cost of the existing war. In the twelve months beginning with the real outbreak of civil war, in July, 1861, the War Department's expenditure was $289,173,562, the navy adding $42,640,353. In the last year of that war, army and navy expenditure combined reached the extraordinary total of $1,153,307,834. The Government spent, in fact, during that fiscal year 1865, no less a sum than $3,000,000 daily. Its normal expenditure in recent years, even with pension and miscellaneous appropriations at their highest, has been something short of $900,000 daily. With the $431,813,000 outlay for army and navy, even in the first year of the civil war, may be contrasted last year's disbursement of only $83,511,000 for the same two purposes. Of course, such an increase as that of 1862 or 1865 assumes pretty continuous fighting with a large armed force; and of course, also, in the long run, an army in active operation will cost more than a navy. There is not, therefore, any great probability that our "war budget," even with the present extensive preparations, could reach the level of the budget of those years. Until, however, the outlook as to the probable length of war is clear, the Government is right in making appropriations with a view to a costly contest. Mr. Dingley's proposed increase of $90,000,000 in the annual revenue is small enough, when it is considered that the present revenue law has run short of expenditure, thus far in the fiscal year, by $66,000,000. Besides, who is to guarantee Dingley's ninety-million estimate?

The amendment offered by Mr. Bland to the revenue bill in the House, for printing $150,000,000 new legal-tender notes to be used in payment of the public expenses, is significant of a drift of the Democratic party away from free silver towards free greenbacks. If anybody in the House might have been confidently reckoned on to stand by the silver dollar, that man was Bland. At any time during the past twenty years, when a question of finance was under debate, it would have been expected of him to propose free coinage as the rainbow of hope and a cure for all financial ills. But, lo and behold, in the face of war, when we are under the necessity of raising some hundreds of millions of dollars in one way and another, Mr. Bland comes forward with what? His proposed substitute for the tax and loan bill is so remarkable, when we consider its source, that we quote it entire:

> "That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized and directed to cause to be engraved and printed United States Treasury notes to the amount of $150,000,000. Said Treasury notes shall be a legal tender in the payment of all debts, public and private, and be issued in like denominations as is now provided by law for United States notes commonly called 'greenbacks.' That the Treasury notes herein authorized shall be covered into the Treasury and paid out from time to time in the discharge of public expenditures as the exigencies of the Treasury may require.
>
> "Section 2. That a sufficient sum of money is hereby appropriated, out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, to carry this act into effect."

We say that this is a remarkable measure when we consider its parentage, but it is not the only sign of the drift of the Democratic party towards Middle-of-the Road Populism. Congressman Kitchen of North Carolina, who stands in the nomenclature of that State as "Dem.-Pop.," introduced a bill the other day for $500,000,000 of new legal-tender notes. To this he attached a section for "coining the seigniorage" and another for the free coinage of silver, but these were quite secondary to the greenback feature of the bill.

It would be a gain to get rid of Bailey of Texas on almost any terms. He came forward last week with a proposition to "coin the seigniorage" of a lot of silver bullion in the Treasury, to the amount of $42,000,000, and to issue notes on the "untaxed credit" of the Government to the amount of $54,000,000. What is the untaxed credit of the Government? Is there also a taxed credit of the Government which constitutes a less favorable basis for note issues than the untaxed credit? We acknowledge that we cannot understand either of these terms. We only know that it means a fresh issue of greenbacks, and that "coining the seigniorage" means the same thing in its financial intendment and effect. Whatever form of paper is put out for public disbursements is an addition to the Gov-

ernment's demand liabilities, and the very first issue of such paper would precipitate a run on the Treasury which would be required to meet not only these new notes, but all the others as fast as they could be presented. So the Bailey programme may be defined as a scheme to get the country into a war and to get it into bankruptcy as soon as possible thereafter. Bailey says that "when the point of safety in that direction has been reached" (that is, in the direction of new greenback issues), "it will be time enough for Congress to authorize the issue of interest-bearing obligations." But the very first move in that direction would strip the Government of its gold or compel it to suspend gold payments, and that is what Bailey and his partisans want to accomplish.

We are in receipt of several inquiries as to what the "seigniorage" is which Bailey and his happy-go-lucky Opposition in Congress are proposing to coin. The answer is, that no such seigniorage exists or ever did exist. Governments sometimes, in their coinage of gold, reserve from the bullion tendered at the mint a very small percentage to defray the cost of minting. In other words, they give back in coin to the owner of the bullion a trifle less of gold than they received. Obviously, such a principle could not apply except under free coinage, which exists in the case of gold. What Bland, Bailey, and their fellow-fanatics mean when they talk about the "silver seigniorage" is the profit made by the Government, during the period of compulsory silver-dollar coinage, by purchasing silver at the market price and putting it out in dollar coins which were not intrinsically worth one hundred cents. Between 1878 and 1894 about 548,000,000 of such dollars were coined and issued. The bullion in these coins cost the Government from 50 to 90 cents for every dollar coined, but the coins were used to pay the Treasury's debts at the uniform rate of 100 cents apiece. Few people without an axe to grind would be so dense as to call this enormous difference a "seigniorage"; what it actually is can easily be discovered. The dollars thus coined were fiat money to precisely the amount of difference between their legal and intrinsic value. It is this fiat quality—this vacuum, as Mr. Hewitt aptly described it—which the profound economists of the Opposition wish to "coin." Of course, the process described above left no silver in the Treasury's hands, and, of course, the Government instantly used up its 10 to 50 per cent. book profit on the coinage, and a good deal more, by increased pension and river and harbor appropriations. Bailey, however, not only insists on "coining" this fund already spent by the Government, but on issuing new legal-tender notes with such coinage as a basis. The nearest parallel to such a business is the practice of certain railways, not very long ago, which entered their losses on the books as assets and declared cash dividends on the basis of it. Most people know what happened to the railways.

The Madrid correspondent of the London *Times* has unquestionably got hold of the diplomatic correspondence between McKinley and Sagasta. Whether by betrayal in the Spanish Foreign Office, or by a discreet official leak, with the aim of winning European sympathy for Spain, the documents he has secured are plainly authentic. It seems to us that neither Congress nor the Administration ought to wait for the successive revelations of this newspaper correspondent, but that the whole should be published here at once. That course will best comport with our dignity and with the proprieties of the situation. We really ought to have had the full correspondence before declaring war; but Congress did not call for it. The President, we think, should now volunteer it, and not leave us to learn via London what it was that turned him from his resolve, at the end of December, to give Cuban autonomy a fair trial, and led him to consent to go to war in April before even the first Cuban Parliament had been elected.

The *Tribune* argues that autonomy in Cuba must fail owing to the character and want of political training of the people. Therefore, it concludes, the Administration was not to blame for not allowing it to be tried. But this must mean simply autonomy under Spanish auspices. Our congressional resolution declaring war expressly recognizes Cuban capacity for autonomy. What could be broader than this?

> "(1.) That the people of the island of Cuba are, and of right ought to be, free and independent."

The resolution then goes on to say that we must set up an autonomous government in the island. The sole importance of the matter now is, that had we waited a little longer to let the Spaniards try their autonomous experiment, our moral position in this war would be much stronger than it is. We ourselves do not believe in the Cuban capacity for autonomy in our sense of the term, either under our auspices, or under those of the Spaniards. But in the Spanish-American sense we think they are quite capable of it. We have no doubt they will, if allowed, carry on a very respectable Spanish-American government—that is, a government saved from Anglo-Saxon monotony and dulness by an occasional civil war and assassination of rulers.

That Spain's colonial policy in Cuba was vicious, and that the island was never really pacified after the former rebellion, an exceedingly interesting memorandum lately published in Madrid shows most clearly. It is an account of the state of affairs in the island written in 1892 by Gen. Polavieja, then Governor-General. This was three years before the present insurrection broke out, yet Polavieja declared that even then "a conspiracy" existed, and had, in fact, existed ever since the so-called peace of 1878. There was no prospect, he wrote, of the conspiracy ever ending, "because the separatist tendency is ingrained in practically every home-born Cuban, including the sons of Spanish immigrants. The latter, in fact, hate Spain as cordially as the oldest families of the country." This is a significant confession, considering its source. Gen. Polavieja described the way in which roving bands of brigands were even then preparing for the later outbreak. They never molested the native Cubans; were at pains, on the other hand, to be on good terms with them, paying for everything they took, and coming down hard only on the Spanish planters and manufacturers, whom they blackmailed and robbed and carried off for ransom, with open boasts that they were in that way raising funds for the revolution. The Governor-General's remedy was characteristically Spanish: less home rule, more shooting.

An interesting exposure of the "fake" dispatches in the sensational newspapers about the withdrawal of the Americans from Havana three weeks ago is made in the *Independent* by a trustworthy correspondent of that journal in Washington, who had gone to Cuba expecting to spend Easter Sunday in Havana, but had to leave, with the other Americans, the evening before. It will be remembered that it was given out by "the yellows" that 2,000 Americans would be in danger if the President sent his message to Congress before giving the Consul-General time to get Americans away from Havana. As a matter of fact, there were not at the time 200 Americans in Cuba, including naturalized citizens. The Captain of the *Mascotte*, upon arriving at Key West a few days before Easter, on his regular trip to Havana, found a dispatch from Washington ordering him to proceed at once and bring over all the "American refugees" and everybody else desiring to leave Cuba, "without regard to numbers, if they could find standing-room on the steamer." All that the Captain could find ready to come when he reached Havana were seven native Americans, fifteen naturalized American citizens, and about fifty Cubans and Spaniards who were going North. When the *Mascotte* arrived at Key West, the Captain received orders by telegraph not to go on to Tampa as usual, but to coal at once, go back to Havana the same night, and "bring over everybody who wanted to get away from Cuba." The

second "crowd of American refugees" by this vessel consisted of seventy-four passengers, all of whom were Cubans and Spaniards going North—not a single native or naturalized citizen of this country. And yet a dispatch was sent from Tampa, and widely printed, that the *Mascotte* brought over on her first trip "920" passengers, and on the second trip "about the same number"; although the steamers of the Plant Line are by no means ocean liners, and everybody in Tampa knew that neither the *Mascotte* nor any other steamer of the line was capable of carrying "920" pasengers. As for the situation in Havana down to the very end, this writer testifies that "quiet and order prevailed in Havana and had been maintained all along, while reports to the contrary were printed far and wide in the United States," and that "while some Americans were anxious to get away, others felt no anxiety about staying another week or two, or, at any rate, until it was quite certain that war would be declared."

The attitude of the negroes in the South towards the war, as well as of the Southern whites towards the participation of negroes in it, is of interest. The colored people are by no means of the same mind in the matter throughout the South. In Virginia there seems to be comparatively little enthusiasm on the subject. A meeting at Norfolk decided to do nothing towards enlisting negroes for the war, and the *Planet*, a weekly journal published at Richmond by a colored man, pronounces it "an open question whether the colored people in Cuba will be better provided for under the American administration of affairs than they are under Spanish rule." The *Planet* expects to see the United States finally assist in setting up a government which either will be a "carpet-bag government," or will be headed by a man who will be a tool in the hands of the capitalists of New York; but "in no case will he be of African descent." In Louisiana, on the other hand, large meetings of negroes have been held at New Orleans, at which patriotic speeches have been delivered and resolutions adopted urging the colored men of the State, especially the younger ones, to organize into companies for the war. But trouble has always arisen as to how the negroes shall be led. The volunteers in New Orleans were angered by an order to go under the command of a white colonel, and insist that they ought to have a colored man at their head. In Georgia there is a discussion among the whites as to whether blacks should be accepted as part of the State's contribution to the volunteer forces. The indications seem to be that most of the whites regard the proposition with disfavor, but there are not lacking men who think and say that it would be the best thing for both races if the negroes were allowed to take part in the war as Georgia troops.

The experience of the Twenty-fifth Infantry of the regular army on its way from the Northwest to the seat of war, to help in freeing the negroes of Cuba, was very suggestive. This is a black regiment, and its chaplain, the Rev. Dr. T. G. Steward, writes to the *Independent* that, "on arriving at Nashville, the black chaplain and his family were given plainly and forcefully to understand, as they entered the railroad dining-saloon, that they could not eat with the other officers of the regiment under a Southern sky." When the regiment reached Chattanooga, the men were required to take cars separate from the whites. Before they reached Key West, the *Herald* of that city had warned the Government not to let them come to that place, and declared that their presence would endanger the peace—as soon proved to be the case. Commenting upon the separation of the races enforced in the Southern States of the Union, Mr. Steward remarks: "A glorious dilemma that will be for the Cuban negro, to usher him into the condition of the American negro."

It may not be generally known that under the treaty of 1834 Spain acknowledged herself our debtor in the sum of $600,000 for injuries inflicted upon our merchant marine during the war waged against her American colonies. Instead of paying the principal sum, however, she made it a part of her public debt, for which she issued stock bearing interest at 5 per cent. per annum. Our Government proceeded to ascertain, by means of a claims commission, which of our citizens were entitled to these funds and the amount to be distributed to each of them. For over sixty years this interest has been regularly paid by Spain and divided among the respective claimants by our Treasury Department.

The size of the enrolment of voters under the new primary-election law does not indicate a passionate popular desire to "go into the primaries." The total for the entire city is only 137,000 out of a population that cast 526,000 votes in the last election. This is only about the proportion that has heretofore taken part in the primaries. About one-quarter of all the voters have for years done all the machine party work, controlling primaries and nominating conventions, and really thus controlling the government of the city, State, and nation. It is said that many voters who desired to enroll were restrained from doing so because the law provides for the publication in the *City Record* of their names with their party affiliations. Small tradesmen and others whose business leads them to dread political persecution, were afraid to have it known to Tammany that they were working with the Republican party. There is undoubtedly something in this, but it is not sufficient to account for the abstention of the great body of voters from all opportunity to participate in the primaries. Probably the war excitement has had even greater influence. Then, too, the law has not had a favorable trial, for the enrolment under it this year is a special one, and is made in a different manner from what will be the regular method in other years. When every voter is given an opportunity on the regular days of registration to enroll himself for a vote in the primaries, he may improve it better than he has now done.

When the Comptroller read his report about the city debt at the meeting of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment on Thursday, showing that the constitutional limit had been exceeded by more than $50,000,000, the Mayor and the President of the Board of Aldermen complained that they did not understand it fully. The Comptroller said that the reason why he could not make the matter more clear was that he had not the exact figures, and could not get them within less than six months, and he begged them to consider that he had worked very hard upon his report. Everybody knows that the Comptroller made up his mind about the matter before he had examined the figures at all. He decided that the debt limit had been exceeded immediately after election, when Mr. Croker told him it had, and his subsequent examination has been directed solely to the purpose of finding figures with which to sustain Mr. Croker's view. His report shows this plainly enough. He includes in the city's indebtedness items which no Comptroller before him has ever placed there. He sets down as actual indebtedness contracts which will not be carried out for years, and the estimated cost of street and park openings which are now, and will be for years to come, before the courts. In the regular course of procedure, bonds for these proposed improvements would not be issued for ten or a dozen years. Without these unusual items, the debt limit of the old city at the close of the Strong administration was fully $40,000,000 away. By adding future contract liabilities entered into during the Strong administration, amounting to $64,000,000, the Comptroller claims that that administration exceeded the debt limit by $24,000,000. Adding to this an excess of more than $25,000,000 by other portions of the new city, figured out in the same way, he makes up his grand total of $50,000,000 of illegal indebtedness, and, after citing an opinion of the learned Whalen, Mr. Croker's Corporation Counsel, in defence of his method of figuring, he throws up his hands in despair, and fairly weeps over the "gravity of the situation,"

THE NEW POLITICAL FORCE.

The power of making war in a democracy must always, in the last resort, no matter what the constitutional arrangements may be, reside in the mass of the people. From them must come the demand which makes either war or peace inevitable. This, in a free state, there is no getting over. It is the popular will which puts armies in motion, or says there has been fighting enough. When war breaks out, therefore, it is really brought about by the influences which have acted most powerfully on the popular mind in its favor. When one sets about a minute examination of these influences, one is apt to be astonished by the number of them that are in some way irrelevant, such as misinformation about the causes of the war, about its cost, about its duration, about the character or doings of the enemy, about his motives in fighting, about the motives of our own public men, about international rights and duties, about the Government's state of preparation to fight. This can hardly be otherwise; it is so in every free country, when the war is an offensive one or is conducted at a distance from home. It is rare in any war, except a war of independence, that the public thoroughly understands what it is fighting about.

These influences are, in the main, the speaking and the writing which precede the war or bring it about. There is no other object ever submitted to a civilized human being for his decision so important as a proposal to go to war, or, in other words, to kill on a great scale the persons living in a certain country, and destroy their property. Our public men have long ceased to try to exercise this sort of influence. However much opposed to a war they may be, they dislike extremely to say so openly. They communicate their doubts or hesitations to their friends privately, but in public they shrink so much from the charge of want of "patriotism," which is the warrior's chief weapon, that their influence through speeches is almost always on the side of war, no matter what it is about. The days of Daniel Webster, and Calhoun, and Seward seem gone for ever. What the public man generally does now is to encourage war, if he speaks about it at all.

In default of other influences, the power of moulding opinion is passing—in fact, has long since passed—into the hands of the press. As a strange fate would have it, too, the subject on which the very worst portion of the press exerts most influence is war. The fomenting of war and the publication of mendacious accounts of war have, in fact, become almost a special function of that portion of the press which is known as "yellow journals." The war increases their circulation immensely. They profit enormously by what inflicts sorrow and loss on the rest of the community. They talk incessantly of war, not in the way of instruction, but simply to excite by false news, and stimulate savage passions by atrocious suggestions. On some days they seem to have issued from an Iroquois village in war time, rather than from a Christian city. Read this, oh fighting parsons! clipped from a recent number of one of them, which claims a circulation of over a million copies every day:

> "Occasionally we hear croaks from peace men. 'How sad to kill sons and fathers of sad-eyed women,' they say, etc. No sadder than to kill cousins and aunts of sad-eyed rattlesnakes. The man who would object to this war would object to the wholesale destruction of poisonous reptiles in India. And as for the American who has any feeling about the war other than a red-hot desire to hear of victories and Spanish ships sunk, all we can say is that he reminds us of the cannibal toad now on exhibition in the Paris Jardin d'Acclimatation."

Now the characteristic of these papers, which, as we have said, so powerfully influence opinion, is that they are, for the first time in American history, an irresponsible force, and the only one in the state. Every other influence in the community, not openly criminal, acknowledges some sort of restraint. The gamblers and policy-dealers live in fear of the police; the venders of obscene literature all have Anthony Comstock before their eyes; the dishonest business men live in dread of the loss of reputation or credit. Nearly every person prominent in any walk of life works under the control of something in the shape of a conscience. There are some things he does, or does not do, because his own heart tells him they would be wrong. Even our Congressmen stand in awe of their constituents. Statesmen recoil from violating the Constitution. Professional men dread the opinion of their professional brethren. In short, it would be difficult to name any body of men, pursuing a calling not openly criminal, who do not live and labor under some sort of discipline, seen or unseen, which constantly reminds them that they, too, have duties which they must perform, or suffer in some way.

From every such discipline or restraint, except libel suits, the yellow journalist is absolutely free. His one object is to circulate widely and make money. And he does circulate widely. He treats war as a prize-fight, and begets in hundreds of thousands of the class which enjoys prize-fights, an eager desire to hear about it or read about it. These hundreds of thousands write to their Congressmen clamoring for war, as the Romans used to clamor for *panem et circenses;* and as the timid and quiet are generally attending only too closely to their business, the Congressman concludes that if he, too, does not shout for war, he will lose his seat.

This is an absolutely new state of things. In none of our former wars did anything like the modern press play any part. In the Mexican war we even had a powerful anti-slavery press fighting vigorously for peace and justice, and, not to forget a great name, we had Lowell on the same side. The conservative, pro-slavery papers of that day, like the Washington *Intelligencer*, were gentlemanly, sober-minded sheets, still influenced by the old traditions of constitutional logic-chopping. In the civil war, too, the great newspapers were serious publications. Our cheap press today speaks in tones never before heard out of Paris. It urges upon ignorant people schemes more savage, disregard of either policy, or justice, or experience more complete, than the modern world has witnessed since the French Revolution. It is true it addresses the multitude mainly or only. The wise and learned and the pious and industrious do not read it. But it is the multitude mainly, and not the wise and learned and industrious, who now set fleets and armies in motion, who impose silence and acquiescence on all as soon as the word "war" is mentioned, and insist successfully that they shall not be interfered with, by either voice or vote, until they have had their fill of fighting. They have already established a régime in which a blackguard boy with several millions of dollars at his disposal has more influence on the use a great nation may make of its credit, of its army and navy, of its name and traditions, than all the statesmen and philosophers and professors in the country. If this does not supply food for reflection about the future of the nation to thoughtful men, it must be because the practice of reflection has ceased.

It is hardly possible to drop the subject without a word about the way in which men supposed to be thoughtful and far-seeing help these very agencies which are robbing them every year more and more of their legitimate influence on the affairs of the nation. There appears to be hardly a clergyman, statesman, or lawyer in the country who does not denounce the yellow journals, and deplore their influence on the young and ignorant, and yet, whenever a yellow journal finds it desirable for advertising purposes to give itself a look of respectability, it does not find much difficulty in getting our prominent public teachers and moralists to comply with a request, fortified by a yellow check drawn on the proceeds of humbug and villany, to sanctify their columns with discourses on morality, patriotism, and religion. This is due partly to fear, and partly to vanity. The fear is that the yellow journal may, as it says, "alter its opinion about them"—that is, blackguard them vigorously and call them names for a week or two. The vanity comes from a delicious belief that anything which appears from their pens anywhere is sure to convince the yellow reader of his sin. It is very like a discourse to Marat from the Duc de la

Rochefoucault, on "liberty, equality, and fraternity."

WAYS AND MEANS.

The cash balance in the Treasury March 5, 1897, was $212,725,207, of which $150,693,630 was gold. On April 22, 1898, the cash balance was $219,601,919, of which $180,924,570 was in gold. The principal transformation had been in exchanging paper for gold, and at the end of nearly fourteen months the Treasury is in no better position, even on the basis of peace, than it was when Mr. McKinley came in. It must be remembered that this showing includes the bookkeeping operation by which the deficit was covered up. This deficit was $49,648,335 on March 4, 1897, and $7,636,862 on April 22, 1898. Of course, at the end of June, 1897, the old deficit (only $18,052,254) was wiped out, and placed in the Treasury books as a closed transaction. On July 1 the new deficit began to accumulate, and is apparently nearly $8,000,000 to-day, in spite of the crediting of $58,448,223 obtained from the Union Pacific Railroad. The true deficit from July 1, 1897, to April 23, 1898, is $66,085,085. Some allowance may be asked on the ground of extraordinary war expenses. To show how large such an allowance is, we compare the expenditures from July 1, 1896, to April 22, 1897, and for the same period in 1897-'98:

Expenditure for	1896-7.	1897-8.
Civil and miscellaneous	$77,433,311	$82,314,799
War	41,003,513	52,881,883
Navy	27,881,267	38,856,978
Indians	11,357,876	9,832,678
Pensions	118,146,035	122,909,627
Interest	34,046,328	32,477,305
Total	$309,868,330	$339,273,268

Of this expenditure only that for war and navy and a part of civil and miscellaneous, or about $27,000,000, can be set down to war. Deducting this from the true deficit, we have $39,085,000 as the deficit that would have existed under normal conditions. In the face of the predictions so confidently made for the revenue features of the Dingley bill, this is a sorry showing, for it means a deficit of nearly $2,000,000 a month since the law went into operation. Comparing the revenue for the period of July 1, 1896, to April 22, 1897, with that for the corresponding period of 1897-'98, the result is very suggestive:

Source.	1896-7.	1897-8.
Customs	$130,046,531	$117,512,863
Internal revenue	119,669,861	134,133,598
Miscellaneous	19,800,410	77,989,647
Total	$269,516,802	$331,036,408

As the Pacific Railroad transaction is shown in the huge "miscellaneous" receipts, we leave it to others to figure out where the Treasury would have been but for that adventitious circumstance and the increase in internal revenue.

This has an immediate bearing upon the question now to be encountered in raising war revenue. Mr. Dingley proved himself such a mistaken prophet on tariff matters that any further estimates from the same source will be seriously questioned. Nor can it be said that the atmosphere pervading the ways and means committee is one to give confidence. Loudly protesting that this tariff only needed time to become a producer of a surplus, Mr. Dingley has frowned upon critics, whistled down facts that told against him, and, finding that "anticipatory importations" have ceased to silence inquiry, now seeks cover under "war expenditure" to conceal his failure. It is Mr. Dingley as a financier who is on trial, and it is as a somewhat discredited financier that he enters upon his new rôle of revenue provider.

The Treasury is not in a strong position for war expenditure, yet its credit is high, and there will be no limit to its ability to borrow, provided a due share is obtained from taxation, on the proceeds of which credit may rest with safety, and provided also the public credit is not shaken by the menace of free silver. As regards the latter, there will soon be a test of the feelings of the investing public when the expected loan comes upon the market. This is to be offered first to popular subscription. If it is rapidly taken by the people, that fact will be pretty good evidence that the public does not consider the menace of Bryanism serious. If it is not taken in that way, but is thrown back upon a banking syndicate, the latter will take it with the risk attached to it and will charge something for that risk in the way of added interest. The view of the bankers is that, being a part of the nation, they must take pot-luck with the nation. They were opposed to a war with Spain on account of Cuba, but, being in it, they must and will sustain the Government, and will take their chances of Bryanism hereafter.

Now we come to the revenue measure as a bill of items. Beer and tobacco are good sources of income, and it is expected that the pending measure will obtain $33,000,000 from the former and $25,000,000 from the latter, including cigars, cigarettes, snuff, and the license tax on dealers. The stamp duties on legal instruments, stock transfers, bank checks, etc., are expected to yield $30,000,000, and this is not an extravagant estimate when we recall that thirty-two years ago the same duties yielded $15,000,000 from the Northern States alone. Stamp duties are to be imposed also on chewing-gum, mineral waters, domestic wines, and beverages not now taxed under the internal-revenue laws. It is not an extravagant estimate that $5,000,000 will be obtained from this source. Here we have a probable revenue of $93,000,000, one-half of which will be needed to cover the previous deficit (the Dingley deficit), the other half serving as a basis for loans. If the war should last more than one year, another tax bill would be imperatively demanded following the lines of the civil war period.

The last item in the revenue measure is the tonnage tax on foreign commerce, which has caused some unfavorable comment abroad. The existing tonnage tax is three cents per ton on each entry of vessels at our ports from countries in American waters, including Bermuda and the Hawaiian Islands, and six cents per ton for all others. It is coupled with a proviso that the President shall reduce the amount of the tax on vessels of other countries, so that it shall not exceed the amount which is levied on our ships in the ports of such other countries respectively. The proposed bill increases these taxes to eight cents per ton in the first class, and twenty cents in the second, and repeals the proviso which authorizes the scaling down of the tax to correspond with that of other countries. In other words, the proposed tonnage tax, instead of being a method of equalizing burdens on shipping between our own and foreign countries, is to be made a permanent revenue measure, and it is justified by Mr. Dingley on the ground that nine-tenths of the vessels in this trade are foreign, and that, during the war now before us, all or nearly all will be so. He says that this is the rate imposed by France, and that it is only a little greater than that imposed by Great Britain. He thinks that this is a favorable occasion for imposing an increased tonnage tax, and that it ought to be kept even after the war ends. In this we think that Mr. Dingley is entirely wrong. Instead of the present being a favorable time for imposing taxes on foreign vessels, it is the most unfavorable that could be imagined. If the tax in question were ever so desirable and defensible (and we are not condemning it on its merits), we ought to do nothing now to irritate neutral Powers. We want all the friends we can have. The amount derivable from this tonnage tax is only $2,500,000 at the outside, a contemptible sum at best, and not worth incurring enmity for at such a time as the present.

SOME SPANISH ILLUSIONS.

The Spanish Government has undoubtedly suffered many cruel self-deceptions in the course of its negotiations with the United States. Some of these it has practically confessed. It hoped great things from the European Powers, and was bitterly disappointed at getting only platonic expressions of sympathy. On the Pope's intervention Sagasta staked the very existence of his ministry, as it seemed, but nothing came of it except fresh humiliations and hopes frustrated. Yet, in spite of these successive disappointments, Spain seems now to be leaning upon other supports which will also prove broken reeds.

One of these is the expectation of an active and effective sympathy from the

South American republics. Gen. Martinez Campos referred to this in the Spanish Senate the other day. Spain could count upon the good will, and something more, of 40,000,000 people in South America who still looked to her as the mother country. Of course, there is something in this. In language and in race traditions a bond, and a strong bond, still exists between Spain and her ancient colonies. The smallest Spanish-American republic has its "Academia" in correspondence with the parent institution at Madrid. From the Spanish capital the Spanish New World still takes orders in matters literary—though it must be said that, as regards contemporary writers, the French have a greater vogue in South America than have the Spanish. But the same might almost be said of Spain itself. There are also, no doubt, wealthy Spaniards all through South America whose loyalty is unquestionable, and who have already put large gifts at the disposal of the country to which they are proud to own allegiance. But when this has been said, all has been said. From the South American governments as such, from the South American peoples as a whole, Spain can look only for indifference or actual dislike and hostility.

This is quite apart from the obvious interest of those countries to avoid offending the United States. They have unhealed grudges of their own against Spain. Their own struggles to free themselves from her sovereignty are not forgotten; and Spain did not make war on them more tenderly than she has done in Cuba. Moreover, she recognized their independence only in a slow and sullen fashion. It was not till after 1840, if we remember, that she formally recognized the independence of Mexico and sent her first minister to that country. Chili and Peru were actually at war with Spain a little more than thirty years ago, and Spain's bombardment of unprotected Valparaiso, against the protests of the foreign embassies, is not likely to win her very warm Chilian sympathy just now.

Nor should it be forgotten that the class of Spaniards to be found in the cities of Spanish America are not exactly of the kind to engage the affections of the people among whom they dwell. We cannot do better than cite on this point a message from Minister Romero's recent book on Mexico. He writes:

"The Spaniards are a money-making, wonderfully frugal race, since they have been battling with hard conditions at home for centuries. The Spaniard in Mexico is—as Richard Ford, who spent thirty years in the peninsula, and who was a close observer, depicts him—a hardy, temperate man, well fitted, under favorable conditions, to become a dominant influence.

"In Mexico, the energy of the Spaniard is remarkable. He is forceful of word and phrase, energetic in his movements, immensely vital, tremendously persistent, and wonderfully enduring. After thirty years behind a counter selling groceries, he retires, a man of fortune, not always large, but sufficient, and is still a man of force, and ready for undertakings demanding good brain-power and courage. They come over mere lads, from ten to fifteen, toil and moil, feed frugally and sleep hardly, and they become millionaires, bank directors, great mill-owners, farmers on a grand scale, hot-country planters, and monopolists, for the Spaniard is born with the 'Trust' idea; while his sons are too often dudes and spendthrifts."

Unless human nature is vastly different to the south of us from what we know it here, Spaniards of the sort described by Señor Romero are not fitted to make either themselves or their country loved by the natives. We have only to recall the fury of our Populists against bankers—especially against bankers whose names they cannot pronounce with their anti-Semitic tongues—to be sure that a kindred dislike of alien blood-suckers and cormorants would be encountered in Spanish America.

Another illusion which Spain seems to have been ardently cherishing is that she would reap a great advantage from being the most Catholic country in the world. This was to be an added tie with South America; this was to insure the French alliance; this was even to detach the Catholics of the United States. But what are we seeing? Our most outspoken friends across the sea just now are the Irish, Catholic to the core. The voluble members from Cork and Tipperary are fairly raining pro-American questions upon Mr. Balfour in the Commons, all the while with the broadest of winks over-ocean, as who should say, "D'ye mind our noble attichewd?" And as for the Catholics in this country, their readiness to serve in the war is not a whit behind that of the most fervent and resolving Methodist.

No one need think, however, that Spain's certain disillusionment in the respects mentioned will make her any less stubborn in the fight which is now upon her. Her blood is up, and she will do her best. If the stars in their courses seem to be fighting against her, she will but the more proudly declare, in the words of her own Calderón:

—— "el hombre
Predomina en las estrellas."

THE SPOILS ON A CASH BASIS.

The revelations now making as to the sale of post-offices for cash by the Quay machine in Pennsylvania must not be overlooked through the engrossment of the public mind in news about the war. These disclosures constitute a most interesting and significant phase of the development of the spoils system in our politics.

On Tuesday of last week the Philadelphia *Press*, whose editor had just become Postmaster-General, made this brief but striking statement:

"The sale of post-office appointments in this State, in which some Congressmen have been concerned, has become an open scandal."

On Thursday night Mr. Wanamaker, speaking at West Chester, declared that, in some parts of the State, "post-offices are practically put up at a form of auction and knocked down to the political heeler who can pay the largest sum for the privilege of becoming postmaster, and who, at the same time, is capable of carrying the most votes for Quay"; pronounced it "a notorious fact, easily proven," that post-offices are offered for sale, and have been sold, in "at least two congressional districts"; and pointed out that "these offices are in districts whose members of Congress are Quay's warmest supporters, and they look to him to secure the offices for the men to whom they are sold." He then read the following letter:

"April 23, 1898.

"DEAR SIR: I have filed my application with the Postmaster-General for the post-office at T., but it is said that our Congressman is holding it for $3,000. Now, I do not think it right to buy the office, and have not the money to do so, and write, asking for your aid in the matter. Can you give me any, or suggest any course that will help me in securing it? If you can I will be greatly obliged. Yours, etc."

On Saturday the Philadelphia *Press* recurred to the matter, described the sale of post-office appointments to the highest bidder as having been "more or less of a scandal in some congressional districts of the State for nearly a year," and said that "this has been notorious in the Twentieth Congressional District, and in others many facts are known." The article in the *Press* revealed the identity of the town of "T.," and of "our Congressman" who was said to be holding its post-office for $3,000, by calling this sum "pretty high for a place that is little more than a railroad junction and had at the last census a population of but 4,705." Tyrone is the only town in Pennsylvania which had exactly 4,705 inhabitants at the last census, and it is little more than a railroad junction. It is in the Twentieth Congressional District, the representative of which is Josiah D. Hicks of Altoona, in the same county with Tyrone, a follower of Quay, who is now serving his third term.

The *Press* says that the significant part of this particular case is the personal participation of the Congressman, as the letter indicates. It adds that in some of the districts a different system is pursued: "The county bosses demand of the Congressman that their recommendations shall be listened to, and then they sell the offices for what they will bring, and the Congressman agrees to their choice." The *Press* deems it conceivable that under this system the Congressman may not know of the corruption for some time, but it rightly holds that "it certainly is impossible that he should not ultimately learn of it." It makes the further most encouraging statement that "it is most likely the whole scandal will get a full exposure

in a very short time, and no one who is guilty can be saved, and no one not guilty will be involved."

The revelation that post-offices are sold for cash by Congressmen or the local backers of Congressmen, seems to be a great shock, even to Pennsylvanians, hardened as they have become to political corruption. Yet it is really the most natural thing in the world. It is simply the logical development of the spoils system. This system begins by treating office, not as a public trust, but as a partisan asset. In its first stage the post-office at Tyrone, Pa., is regarded as belonging to the Republican or the Democratic party, according as there is a Republican or a Democratic President at Washington, and to be run for the benefit of the party in power, whichever it may be. The second stage in the development of the system makes the Tyrone office an asset, not of the Republican or Democratic party as an organization, but of that faction in the dominant party which controls its machinery. In this stage the office is given for services in promoting the interests, not of the party, but of this faction in the party, and of the representative of this faction who controls the appointment; and it is to be run in the interest of this faction.

In each of these stages there is a virtual sale of the office. In the first case, it is given to the appointee in return for his payment to the party of work and influence in getting voters to the polls, carrying doubtful districts, etc. In the second case, it is given to him in return for his payment to the dominant faction of work and influence in enabling that faction to beat the other faction in the caucuses and thus to keep control of "the organization." In each of these two stages the bargain-and-sale principle is recognized as governing the appointment. In the third stage the bargain-and-sale principle only undergoes a change in terms. The man who seeks the Tyrone post-office now cannot get it by paying services in work and influence either to the Republican party or to the Congressman who represents the dominant faction of that party; he must make his payment in cash.

All three stages in the development of the spoils system to this extreme are immoral. People have become so habituated to the sale of appointments for either party service or factional service that it does not cause the shock produced by their sale for cash, but, when the matter is analyzed, it is obvious that the same principles govern in all three cases. The Congressmen who peddle offices for cash ought to be denounced, but the reform which is needed will not be achieved by stopping the passage of money from constituent to Representative. It must be recognized that the whole theory of treating the offices as spoils is utterly wrong, and that it is morally a matter of comparatively unimportant detail whether a man gets a public place in return for partisan services, factional work, or cash.

THE PROHIBITION PLEBISCITE IN CANADA.

The bill which has just passed its first reading in the Dominion Parliament to take a plébiscite throughout the whole of Canada upon the question of prohibitory liquor legislation, is of considerable interest, not only to the advocates of temperance legislation, but also to constitutional theorists. It is certainly somewhat of a new departure from a constitutional point of view, for the bill proposes to submit to the vote of those entitled to the Dominion franchise simply the question: "Are you in favor of the passing of an act prohibiting the importation, manufacture, or sale of spirits, wine, ale, beer, cider, and all other alcoholic liquors for use as beverages?" Canadian legislatures, it is true, are not debarred from delegating their functions, for, as the English Privy Council, which is the final Court of Appeal for the whole empire, has decided, they are not in the position of mere delegates or agents of the Imperial Parliament, but are possessed of authority as plenary and as ample within the limits prescribed by their Constitution act as that Parliament "in the plenitude of its power possessed and could bestow." Therefore, doubtless, the Dominion Parliament, or any other Canadian legislature, could introduce the Swiss referendum system at any time with respect to matters within their respective jurisdictions, by enacting that acts should not go into force until a popular vote had been taken.

But in the bill under discussion we have something very different from the referendum, under which the entire law after being passed by the Legislature is submitted to the vote of the people; thus placing the latter, as Prof. Dicey has pointed out, in a position analogous to that which is still in theory, and was in former times actually, the position of the British monarch, that, namely, of possessing a veto power. But in the present case the question whether they are in favor of prohibitory legislation is to be submitted to the people without any information as to whether it is to be prohibition with compensation to those at present engaged in the liquor business, or as to the means to be taken to make up the immediate loss of Dominion revenue, amounting, we understand, to some eight million dollars, or any other particulars of the legislation to be enacted.

However, the historical explanation of the bill, no doubt, is to be found in the local-option acts to which Canadians have been accustomed for many years, notably the Canada temperance act, popularly known as the "Scott act," which has been in force since 1878, and which provides for the prohibition of the retail sale of intoxicating liquors in any county or city in which a majority of the electors vote in favor of bringing the act into force. But there the provisions of the act are, of course, explicit, and, in voting for it, any city or county knows exactly the particulars of the legislation for which it is voting. It has, however, though still on the statute-book, fallen into great disfavor, and under the provision in it enabling a fresh vote to be taken every three years in any district which has adopted it, it has been now rendered inoperative everywhere, excepting in a few places in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick.

Nevertheless, there seems no doubt as to the present bill passing, unless, indeed, by reason of the vagueness of the proposed question to be submitted, the Senate, a majority of whose members belong to the Conservative Opposition, sees another opportunity of asserting itself with a prospect of popular approval, as it has done in the recent case of the Yukon Railway bill. And if the bill does pass, it is certain that there will be a very strenuous campaign and contest over the plébiscite, and a great probability that a majority of voters will answer the question in the affirmative, except in the provinces of Quebec and British Columbia.

In Quebec the Roman Catholic Church is, of course, overwhelmingly predominant, and there, as everywhere, its influence is, religious matters apart, against infringements of personal liberty; while in British Columbia the large mining element of the population is little likely to vote for prohibition. In the other provinces, however, where the united strength of the Presbyterian, Methodist, and Baptist denominations is in favor of such legislation, there is a great probability of the affirmative vote prevailing. And indeed the matter has been to some extent already tested in provincial plébiscites held in Manitoba, Prince Edward Island, Ontario, and Nova Scotia, between 1892 and 1894. The question then submited in each of these provinces was very similar to that now proposed, namely, "Are you in favor of the immediate prohibition by law of the importation, manufacture, and sale of intoxicating liquors as a beverage?" and in each case the vote cast was in favor of the affirmative by very substantial majorities, although the total vote polled was not a very large one. In these provincial plébiscites the electors were informed upon their voting papers that in voting "Yes" on the question they would be considered as expressing an opinion in favor of prohibition to the extent to which the Legislature of the province or the Parliament of Canada had jurisdiction, as might be determined by the court of final resort. Thereupon a sort of armistice between the temperance party and their opponents followed,

pending the submission of a stated case, first to the Supreme Court of the Dominion and then to the judicial committee of the Privy Council, to determine precisely what the respective jurisdictions of the Dominion Parliament and the provincial legislatures were in the matter.

It may readily be believed that neither the Dominion nor provincial governments were sorry to have a reprieve from dealing with this troublesome question, in which legislation could not fail to alienate a large body of voters and disturb the party organizations. Indeed, the indefinite character of the question now proposed to be submitted to the electorate, although this is in accordance with the expressed desire of the powerful organization known as the "Dominion Alliance for the total suppression of the liquor traffic"—a federation of Canadian religious and temperance societies—is thought by many to be another example of the way in which governments in Canada have always fenced with this matter.

RENAN AND BERTHELOT.—II.

PARIS, April 15, 1898.

We left Renan in Italy. His first impressions have a surprising freshness, and are often interesting from an artistic point of view. I remember well having felt as he did in the Pantheon. "The Pantheon of Agrippa, one of the finest religious ideas of humanity, officially transformed into a church. This incomparable portico covered with pictures and indulgences revolts me." The portrait which he traces of the population of Rome would have to be very much changed now, since Rome has become the political capital of Italy. The prophecies which Renan made in 1849 have partly been verified: he announced the end of the temporal power, he perceived the effects of the French occupation and the presence of a French army (all the officers, he says, are Voltairians and democrats) in the midst of Italy. But he was chiefly occupied with the Rome of the past, with its monuments and ruins; and he describes them with much eloquence. In the midst of them, he is seized with the idea of a permanence which is in harmony with a continual transformation, and he anticipates that spiritual Rome will be transformed like material Rome:

"You cannot imagine how much modern Rome is composed of the fragments of old Rome. All the materials of the churches anterior to the sixteenth century are taken from the temples; the columns are all old; there has been very little marble imported in modern times. Everything you see in shops, all the furniture, chimney-pieces, etc., are old marbles taken from the catacombs, the cemeteries, the temples. This heredity of materials is one of the curious facts of this country. The singular Church of the Ara Cœli is entirely composed of the fragments of the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus. Its columns are those of the old temple, and the Romans themselves had taken them from the temple of Jupiter Olympius. Is it not so with religions? Construct with old materials new combinations; mix the old elements so that they will come out under a new form."

Writing some time after from Naples, Renan has very different impressions:

'I told you," he says, "that Rome made me understand for the first time the greatness of a religion which monopolizes the spiritual life of a people. I can tell you that Naples has made me understand for the first time the ridiculousness, the horribly bad taste of a degenerate religion, dishonored by a degraded people. You could never imagine, no, never, what religion is in Naples. God is as much unknown here as among the savages of Oceanica, whose religion is a mere belief in genii. There is no God for these people, there are only saints. And what are these saints? Not models of religion or morality; a kind of supernatural magicians, who can extricate you from an embarrassment, when you are sick or in difficulty. There are saints for thieves, and I have with my own eyes seen ex-votos in which the thief is represented as delivered by the saint. I cannot express to you the profound disgust which I experienced the first time I entered a church in Naples. It is no longer art, no longer ideality; it is the grossest sensualism."

Very different are his feelings in a visit made to the famous convent of Monte Cassino. There he feels a moral emotion. "If Sorrento and Posilipo, Baja and Miseno, could not diminish the sadness which was produced in my mind by the horrible degradation of this country, I doubt if the stern beauties of the Apennines would have found me more indulgent had I encountered here only coarse or stupid adepts of superannuated institutions." But at Monte Cassino he met with representatives of the best Italian intellect. He tells Berthelot the story of Father Tosti, a sort of Italian Lamennais, of Rosmini; he finds in the librarian's cell Strauss's 'Life of Jesus.' "They talk here of Hegel, of Kant, of George Sand, of Lamennais. Between us, my friend, the Fathers are philosophers like you and me; study has brought them to the point to which the modern mind tends perforce—to rationalism, to religion in spirit and in truth. . . . Garibaldi is the hero of the convent. [This was written in 1850.]"

Renan was not always a good prophet. I remember hearing him explain with much eloquence, at the beginning of the Italian war, that Italian unity was an empty dream. We see him defend the same idea in his letters:

"Centralization would be the death of Italy. Rome, Naples, Florence cannot be *chefs-lieux* of departments. It is well enough for Dijon, Bordeaux, etc., which have never lived. But Florence has lived; Florence would never accept that part. Give freedom to Italy, and Florence will secede, Siena will secede, Genoa will secede, Sicily will secede, Venice will secede . . . . It is true that Italy has a common sentiment of hatred of foreigners, and even a vague sentiment of intellectual and moral unity. Is this enough to create a compact state? No, a thousand times no. Would it suffice for a confederacy of Italian republics? I do not think so. All these cities would snap at each other, and at the end of a year would call in against their rivals France or the Emperor."

These letters, written from Italy in 1850, show well the uncertainties of a flexible mind like Renan's; he likes to generalize, but he is often doubtful about his own generalizations; he confesses that "the future of Italy seems, after all, an enigma." His portrait of Pio Nono, written after an audience he had with him, together with two other Frenchmen, is very delicately touched in: "It is impossible to find a more perfect type of the Roman who never has been placed, by his studies or by his relations, outside of the circle of Roman life. In France such a man would be called weak, ordinary; this sort of provincial *bonhomie* saves it all, with the result that when you leave him, you feel contented and are in a kindly state of mind." Renan is very much struck by the provincialism of the people he sees. "In general, the intellectual development of the people in this country (I speak now of northern Tuscany) is almost *nil*." He finds even the Catholic sense blunted, except among the common people, who are instinctive artists. "A people wholly antique, creating its costumes with an inimitable grace, improvising a village decoration with an admirably pure taste, better able than you or I to distinguish a picture, a statue, a church of bad style; but a people absolutely strangers to any political or patriotic idea. Speak to this poor people of the independence of Italy? Why, they don't know what independence is; nor Italy." Here again you have one of those rash judgments, written, as the French say, *au courant de la plume*—very interesting, nevertheless, as they always contain a particle of truth.

In 1860 Renan made his journey to Syria, accompanying the Anglo-French expedition which had been sent there after the massacres of Christians in the Lebanon, and he had a mission from the Minister of Public Instruction. His devoted sister Henrietta accompanied him; she fell ill in Syria and died at Amshit. Her letters to Berthelot are among the best in the volume; they speak equally well for her intellect and for her heart. I do not know what is the real value of Renan's archæological researches in Syria. The chief interest of his letters lies in the descriptions which he gives of the Holy Land. While he was copying old inscriptions, he collected documents for his 'Life of Jesus' and the lives of the apostles. He saw in Syria the patriarch of the Maronites—"a charming type; a combination of Italian education with the fine and mild spirit of this race. What is essentially wanting in the Syrians is fixity in ideas and rectitude in judgment. Their facility in learning everything, especially languages, is much greater than ours, but they have not the persistence for great creations. And then the odd, subtle, absurd idea always comes to them first. They do not understand good sense. All this with a charm which has seduced the world." At Sour he finds himself in a centre of Mussulman fanaticism:

"A fanatical party, shut up in the mosque and the bazaar, reigns by menaces of death and fire, annihilates the Turkish power and maintains a wild hatred of anything that has not the frenzied spirit of Islam. How well one understands here what a misfortune Islamism has been, what germs of hatred and exclusivism it has spread in the world, how a frenzied monotheism is opposed to all science, all civil life, all large ideas. What Islamism has made of human life is hardly credible. The asceticism of the Middle Ages is nothing in comparison. Spain has never invented a religious terror coming near it. But nature remains delicious and splendid. Syria, from one end to the other, is a garden."

In a letter from Beirut, written after a journey to Palestine (September 12, 1861), he writes a few lines which give us the true key to his 'Life of Jesus':

"I employed my long days at Ghesir in writing my life of Jesus, such as I conceived it in Galilee and in the land of Tyre. In a week it will be finished; I have only to write the account of the last days. I have succeeded in giving to the whole an organic movement, which is so much wanting in the Gospels. I believe that this time people will have under their eyes living beings, and not those lifeless phantoms Jesus, Mary, Peter, etc., changed into abstract types. I have tried, as they do in the vibration of sonorous

plates, to give the bow-stroke which ranges the grains of sand into natural waves. Have I succeeded? You will know. But I ask you not to say a word of this to anybody outside of our circle. This big thing in my portfolio is all my strength. It will come out in due time. Now that it is done, I care little for the Collège de France or for anything on earth."

In the year 1864 Renan visited Egypt, and we find some fine descriptions of the land in his letters. He learned in Syria of the publication of the famous Encyclical, which convulsed the Catholic world at the time; he predicted a schism which did not take place. "A national church in France," he said, "is impossible, and it is fortunate; for such a church would, in fact, be clumsier and narrower than the religious system which has existed in France for fifty years. A schism is therefore inevitable; I mean an inner schism. . . . There will be two factions of Catholics arrayed against each other; one mad with a reactionary spirit, the other entering the domain of change, Protestant in reality." We see no signs yet of such a division.

Renan had a genuine horror of Turkish rule. This is what he writes from Constantinople in 1869:

"Constantinople is certainly a marvel in its way. It is the city of the painter, of the picturesque. Its general views are unequalled in the world. But that is all; if you except Saint Sophia and one or two Byzantine remains, there is not one really fine building; nothing will bear analysis; the bad taste is extraordinary, everything being made to satisfy an ephemeral fancy. Never have human meanness, folly, complacent nullity created a more adequate image of themselves. The Turkish world, with two or three exceptions, is absolutely stupid or dishonest. . . . This city appears to me like a city of monkeys, a sort of capital founded by the worthy Constantine for ignominy, intrigue, and stupidity."

The last part of the correspondence extends from 1870 to 1872; we find in it the expression of the emotions felt during the terrible days of the war with Germany, and afterwards during the Commune, the period of the government of M. Thiers and of Marshal MacMahon. The letters become shorter and shorter as Renan more and more suffered from the gout. The last were dictated by him, and he merely signed them. It is only just to say that he bore his own sufferings with stoicism; his interest in the affairs of France was paramount to the end. He was haunted with the fear of a new war with Germany. A few days before his death, he writes: "The most important act of our life is our death. We generally accomplish it in the most detestable circumstances. Our school, of which the essence is to need no illusion, has, I believe, for this great hour, quite special advantages." The last letter is written from Perros-Guirec (Côtes-du-Nord) in Brittany (in 1892). A few days after, Renan came back to Paris, where he died.

Correspondence.

DEFINITIONS AND PHRASES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On going over the letter about the expression *in our midst*, which you lately published, it has occurred to me that it may be usefully supplemented by adducing some considerations there pretermitted.

In a book to be mentioned below, it is implied that the illegitimacy of *in our midst* is clenched by asking, "Would any one say *in our middle?*" The inconclusiveness of this interrogatory argument I purpose to make evident.

With a few exceptions, so-called synonyms are, admittedly, only pseudo-synonyms. As a consequence, when, alternatively to periphrases, they are propounded in explanation of words, they very seldom indeed go beyond defining them approximately, though, in practice, they often serve acceptably as their substitutes. In order, however, that they may do so, much depends, generally, on their context. To a notable extent, in fact, it is by verbal collocation that conformity to idiom is determined. In illustration, many a vocable is circumstanced more or less like the adverb *any*. *He is not any better* is unexceptionable, whereas *it did not hurt me any* is a rank vulgarism. *In any degree*, for *any*, would answer in both the sentences.

To come to analogues of *in our midst: I request it in his behalf*, that is to say, "in his interest," "for his benefit," is faultless, though nobody would now employ *behalf*, except phraseologically, as one with "interest," "benefit." Again, though there are connections in which *sake* is inadmissible, *for my sake* and *for mercy's sake* represent established modes of speech. With *we consult his behalf* and *this sake is to be regarded* closely accord *the midst of the crowd was impenetrable*, once English, but no longer so.

Any one must feel that by *in our midst* he does not understand *in our middle*. *Midst* is, for one thing, vaguer than *middle*, which signifies, strictly, a point equidistant from extremities, and, popularly, also something of its adjacencies, lineal or other. Superficial etymologists, it is pertinent to notice, gratuitously assert that *midst* denotes "the very centre," speculating that the word is a superlative of *mid*. The better informed know it to be a contraction of *middes*, the genitive of the early English substantive *midde*, with the suffixion of an excrescent *t*, seen likewise in *against*, *amongst*, *betwixt*, *whilst*, the old *alient* (alien), *margent* (margin), *orphant*, *yeomantry*, the still dialectal *alongst* and *anenst*, the illiterate *wonst* (once), the standard *ancient*, *pageant*, *parchment*, *peasant*, *pheasant*, *tyrant*, and so on. It is the *middle*, not the *midst*, that is markedly or confinedly midmost.

And now let us turn to the compound *amidst*, of old *a-midde*, *in middes*, etc., meaning, verbatim, "in middle." In this there is the same spatial indefiniteness that attaches to *midst*, together with its connotation of environment, surrounding circumstances, density, or movement; the differentia of *middle*, with respect to *midst*, being restrictedness of circumscription, with hardly any other appreciable property. An acquaintance is espied *amidst* strangers; a voluptuary lives *amidst* luxury; a deer is brought to bay *amidst* a thicket; a cry is heard *amidst* the rushing wind. The equivalent of *in the midst of*, in these phrases, is not replaceable, precisely, by *in the middle of*. From these details it is manifest that, philologically, *in our midst*, if we look to the sense of *midst*, is defensible on grounds additional to the fact that, from the point of view of analogy, it is liable to no censure. Its rhetorical repute I am not at present concerned with.

The writer who has been quoted above, mistaking attempt for achievement, ventures the position, touching the phrase under discussion, that "its incorrectness has been exposed again and again." To make good his reprobation of it, he goes on to say, well-nigh literally copying Mr. G. P. Marsh, but not naming him:

"The possessive pronoun can properly be used only to indicate possession or appurtenance. The *midst* of a company or society is not a thing belonging or appurtenant to the company, or to the individuals composing it. It is a mere term of relation, of an adverbial, not of a substantive, character, and is an intensified form of expression for *among*." William Mathews, LL.D., *Words: their Use and Abuse*, p. 349.

Take *of their own accord*, *on my account*, *at her bidding*, *in their default*, *in your despite*, *its equal*, *by our leave*, *in his stead*. None of the possessive pronouns thus used are, according to Mr. Marsh and Dr. Mathews, used properly, unless *accord*, *account*, and the rest are "things belonging or appurtenant to" so and so; figuring in which capacity, they offer themselves as exceedingly nebulous entities, to ordinary apprehension. The field of possessive pronouns approaches, in amplitude, the possessive case, with its subjective and objective divisions.

Moreover, as regards the description given of *midst* in "the *midst* of a company," how can it, so collocated, be adverbial in character, as *while* is in *the while*, "meantime"? And how can it be, simultaneously, prepositional, or even quasi-prepositional, matching *side* in *this side the sea*, since it governs nothing? A confusing tintamarre of scientific terminology is not ratiocination. In *about the midst of the feast*, *from the midst of the city*, *through the midst of the sea*, and *in the midst of heaven*, is not *midst* substantival? Whether taken rightly, or taken wrongly, its character, there or elsewhere, makes nothing either for or against the idiomaticalness of *in our midst;* and so an end. F. H.

Marlesford, England, April 19, 1898.

Notes.

Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole, not content with editing a variorum edition of the Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám, purposes getting out a delectable little pocket volume containing on opposite pages FitzGerald's version and a Latin translation of it made by Herbert Wilson Greene, Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford, and privately printed in 1893. Mr. Dole's reprint, for which permission has been cheerfully accorded both by Dr. Aldis Wright and by Mr. Greene, will also be private and limited to 950 copies (750 for this country). The Latin text will be in red. The binding will be a flexible green leather. Mr. Dole's address is Jamaica Plain, Mass.

William Ellis Jones, No. 5 South Twelfth Street, Richmond, invites subscriptions to a 'Word-Book of Virginia Folk-Speech,' compiled by Dr. B. W. Green of Warwick, chiefly from the "lower peninsula," but not exclusively. The appearance of the work depends upon the support promised.

So does that of the 'Vestry Book and Register of Bristol Parish, Va., 1720-1729,' with its register of births, baptisms, and deaths, which has been fully and scrupulously transcribed by Churchill Gibson Chamberlayne.

Mr. Chamberlayne is his own publisher, and may be addressed at Richmond (P. O. Drawer 927).

M. F. Mansfield will publish immediately four volumes in a series, "The Rise of an Empire," by Sir Walter Besant: 'Canada,' by Howard A. Kennedy; 'India,' by D. C. Boulger; and 'South Africa,' by W. Basil Worsfold.

John Matthews, Mechlin Mansion, Brook Green, London, W., is preparing an 'American Armoury and Blue Book,' to include American families of European descent bearing, or entitled to bear, arms, as well as families descended from eminent personages in this country.

The Clarendon Press will soon publish a digest, by Sir Courtenay Ilbert, K.C.S.I., of the statute law relating to the government of India, with historical introduction and illustrative documents; and a new edition of Sir George Cornewall Lewis's 'Remarks on the Use and Abuse of Some Political Terms,' edited by Thomas Raleigh, Fellow of All Souls.

George N. Morang, Toronto, will issue on June 1 his midsummer annual, entitled 'Our Lady of the Sunshine,' with colored and other illustrations of Canadian scenery.

After fourteen years of unrivalled supremacy in its field, Mr. Louis Heilprin's 'Historical Reference Book' now passes to a fifth edition (Appletons). It is a three-fold utility in a single duodecimo volume of about 600 pages, consisting of "a chronological table of universal history; a chronological dictionary [and gazetteer] of universal history; a biographical dictionary [generally one-line]." The handiness of all this information is equalled by the accuracy of it, in which particular few similar works can challenge comparison with Mr. Heilprin's. The 'Reference Book' is now brought down to the present year, revised and extended in the supplement as elsewhere, for the "men of the time" are still increasing in number. Roentgen, Max Nordau, Paderewski, Hauptmann, Sudermann, Guerrini, Duse, D'Annunzio, are some of the new lights reflected in these pages. There is no private library which would not be the richer for being provided with the 'Reference Book,' and it ought to be in every school.

'Who's Who' (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan) celebrates its jubilee in a fiftieth yearly issue, the second since the new turn given to it by its enterprising editor, Mr. Douglas Sladen. This, in its main bulk, is a condensed 'Men of the Time,' often autobiographical, and hence better reading than ordinary, as where Mr. Israel Zangwill itemizes his "Recreations" thus: "All forms of locomotion except the bicycle." Each person's address and clubs (if any) are noted. Marriages, published works, etc., are other particulars convenient to ascertain readily. To last year's list colonial, artistic, and journalistic biographies have been freely added, and we are glad to find Dr. Murray of the great Dictionary "covered in." The rest of this annual consists of a great variety of tables, useful even when not complete (as, to take the weakest, Magazines, with its imperfect attempt to distinguish the American, and its omission of the *Atlantic* and the *Century*). "Peculiarly Pronounced Proper Names," "Rulers of Civilized Countries," "Chairs and Professors in the Universities" (alphabetic), "Navy," "Infantry Volunteers," "Societies, Royal, National, and Learned," "Our Great Public Schools and their Masters" (with cost of tuition and board), are a few of the medley. Altogether, we could not afford to miss this new aid to current knowledge.

If we must hark back to sixteenth-century examples in our Morris typographical experiments, why not choose the best of that age? Messrs. Copeland & Day's ornate edition of Shakspere's Sonnets, just issued in Boston, gives a table of first lines, but in sequence not alphabetical, though Petrarch's verse was early indexed in the only proper fashion. Then, as the Sonnets are to be read, and closely because of the close-packed conceits, why treat the broken lines without indention, as if prose? Mr. Goodhue's initials not seldom almost compel this; but then that only proves that the design was not adapted to the font. Again and again, in fact, there is either no space between the words in these broken lines, or but the thinnest hair-spacing. The total result may be elegant black and white, but it is not good book-making, to our mind.

The Harpers reprint in book form the late George Du Maurier's articles on 'Social Pictorial Satire' which appeared recently in their magazine. Mr. Du Maurier talks lightly and gracefully of Leech, of Keene, and of himself, placing Leech first as social satirist, Keene first as artist, and leaving his own place to be determined by others. We Americans are sufficiently alien to take the "foreign" point of view, and to prefer Keene's technical mastery to Leech's veracity to English life and feeling, which we are not so well able to appreciate. Probably most of us of this generation love Du Maurier himself better than either. His range was certainly less than Leech's, and his technical power somewhat less than Keene's, while still very considerable; but he had more charm and more sense of beauty than either of the others, and his subjects are less merely English and more universal, for "good society" is much alike everywhere. The charm of style, the well-executed and, for the most part, well-chosen illustrations, and the attractive printing and get-up, make a pleasing volume, though it contains little of information and makes no pretence to serious criticism.

Señor Matias Romero's 'Geographical and Statistical Notes on Mexico' (Putnams) is a very gratifying addition to books of ready reference. Its full and up-to-date statistics of Mexican trade and finance, agricultural and mineral resources and production, railways, banking, schools and colleges, with much other matter of great interest, make his volume one to be consulted by all who would have the latest and most trustworthy figures. Minister Romero writes remarkably good English, though here and there the Spanish idiom breaks through—as where he refers to the "regularly correct" Mexican census. What he means by "regularly" (*regularmente*) is clear from his intimation that the census may be 2,500,000 wide of the real population.

Those who would learn how a few workingmen, with no resources save good sense and determination, founded what is now the greatest coöperative store in the world, will be interested in Mr. George J. Holyoake's 'Jubilee History of the Leeds Industrial Cooperative Store.' In 1897, this store completed its fiftieth year, and Mr. Holyoake was with great propriety selected as its historian. "I knew coöperation," he says, "when it was born. I stood by its cradle. In every journal, newspaper, and review with which I was connected, I defended it in its infancy, when no one thought it would live. For years I was its sole friend and representative in the press." Certainly Mr. Holyoake may triumph in the success of an institution which now has eighty branches, and numbers 37,000 members, and which has throughout been managed on enlightened principles. "It stands next to Rochdale as the foremost English coöperative association, and surpasses it in its valiant conflicts, its organization, its marvellous gains, and vast army of members who gather around its standard-bearers."

We have received from the Macmillan Company two more volumes of Prof. L. H. Bailey's 'Garden-Craft Series,' which may be recommended on a-priori grounds. The volume entitled 'The Pruning Book' is necessarily somewhat technical, but its directions are clear and its illustrations apt. The other volume, 'Garden-making,' as its name indicates, is of the widest interest, and every one who possesses a square rod of land will find here suggestions for its improvement which will commend themselves to his judgment and stimulate his enthusiasm.

Among recent French books of reference may be mentioned Henry Carnoy's 'Dictionnaire Biographique des Hommes du Nord' (Paris: Lechevalier), put together on a hand-to-mouth plan not unknown in this country, by which the notices succeed each other in complete disorder, and have to be sought, not alphabetically, but by means of an index. For one section of France this work is very comprehensive, filling 272 quarto pages in double columns. The Abbé Chevin's 'Dictionnaire Latin-Français des Noms Propres de Lieux ayant une certaine Notoriété' (Paris: Retaux), has been compiled chiefly from an ecclesiastical and monastic point of view. Its usefulness would have been much increased by a corresponding French-Latin vocabulary.

C. Benoist's articles in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, resulting from his observations in Spain, made expressly for that periodical, have been published in book form, under the title, 'L'Espagne, Cuba, et les États-Unis' (Paris: Perrin). They possess still some interest as forecast of our present troubles, and anticipate the annexation of Cuba to the United States in spite of the fact that the insurgents are not aiming for that, and in spite of our discredited protestations that our wishes are identical with those of the insurgents. The Cuban question the author judges to be the Eastern question of the New World.

The latest instalment of Hatzfeld's 'Dictionnaire Général de la Langue Française' (Paris: Ch. Delagrave) carries this valuable work to *proposition*. Compact as the articles are, they are very good reading, witness *prendre* and *prône*, in which the extensions of meaning are noticeable.

The eight essays by M. de Vogüé collected under the title 'Histoire et Poésie' (Paris: Colin) are all serious, full of thought, and written in elegant style—a matter of course. The blending of the real with the ideal in the first two ("Au Mont-Cassin," "À Ravenne") produces the effect of a revery arising under the direct influence of solemn surroundings. Most of the other studies ("Catherine Sforza," "Le Cardinal d'Ossat," "Le Moyen Âge," "J.-J. Rousseau," "La Renaissance Latine"), are suggested by

books published in the course of the last fifteen years. There is no preface, and in consequence no mention of the fact that everything in the volume has heretofore appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The article on the Middle Ages contains one of the wittiest thrusts at the philologists that have been delivered of late years. The study of Jean-Jacques Rousseau brings out as it deserves the fact that his influence has been far deeper and more lasting than that of the man who filled the eighteenth century with his personality. That on Defoe's masterpiece is none the less enjoyable for the suggestion of racial jealousy it betrays. The author is one of the numerous Frenchmen who are apt to consider the Anglo-Saxon incapable of delicate and subtle taste, but he recognizes in him the power of triumphing over obstacles and reaching the end he has set his heart on attaining.

Following the new list for 1897 of the "best fifty books for a village library," we read in the *Library Journal* for April Mr. Dewey's announcement that the New York State Library will hereafter print the list as an annotated bibliography bulletin as soon as practicable after January 1. More important still is the sensible conclusion: "We shall no longer be guided simply by the number of votes [of librarians] cast for each book, but shall give due weight to the ability of each to pass judgment, and make up the list in the way to give the best average selection."

The *American Naturalist* (Ginn & Co.) for March is notable for seven articles on Agassiz, by as many hands (including several of his first pupils), in commemoration of that naturalist's beginning his instruction at Harvard in March, 1848, which began "a new era in zoölogical science in America." Prof. Packard, who discusses his philosophical views, recalls a conversation at Penikese in 1873, when Agassiz declared: "I should have been a great fellow for evolution if it had not been for the breaks in the palæontological record."

The third number of volume i. of the *American Journal of Archæology* (Macmillan) is wholly given over to papers emanating from the Cretan expedition, Prof. Halbherr continuing his illustrated account of epigraphical researches in Gortyna, and adding a notice of some interesting Cretan sculpture in the museum at Candia. A chapter on a Mycenæan vase in connection with geometric vases in the same museum, by P. Orsi, and two papers on some curious Roman busts there and a statue of an Asclepiad from Gortyna, by L. Mariani, are likewise well figured in text and plates.

Lovers of "Lewis Carroll" will find in the May number of the *Strand Magazine* an interesting series of portraits from early youth, and a sympathetic sketch of his life by Beatrice Hatch, still further illustrated with facsimiles of Mr. Dodgson's MS. and drawings, and copies of his photographs of children in costume.

The "Klondike number" is the sub-title of the *National Geographic Magazine* for April, which contains much valuable information, chiefly by experts, upon Alaska and the goldfields of the Yukon. The most important article is that by Mr. S. F. Emmons of the Geological Survey, in which he describes the geographical features of the country, the principal routes into the interior, and the character and distribution of its mineral resources. Gen. Greely treats of its climatic conditions; Senator Perkins of California describes the civil government; Dr. W. H. Evans shows the conditions and possibilities of agriculture, which he believes could be "extended so as to supply local demands for many products"; and Mr. E. W. Nelson contributes some notes on the wild fowl and game animals of Alaska. Mr. W. H. Dall calls attention to the difficulties of transportation on the Yukon—the only practical route for food-supplies to the mining districts—and says that, while only seven trips were made by steamers from the sea-coast to Dawson last season, thirty-four trips may be made under favorable circumstances this season. This means, however, less than "half the number [of loads of provisions] required to keep the assumed influx of people on a next-to-starvation basis through the winter of 1898-'99."

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for April opens with the suggestive paper on the material growth and present condition of the United States, read by Mr. Henry Gannett at the Toronto meeting of the British Association. It is illustrated by numerous diagrams showing in a graphic manner the increase of the population and its divisions by race, birthplace, and occupations, the industries, manufactures, mineral products, transportation and commerce of the country. Its wealth at the first estimate in 1850 was placed at a little over $7,000,000,000, or about $300 *per caput*, in 1890 at $63,000,000,000, or over $1,000 *per caput*. This is followed by a lively description of the difficulties of a journey along a Shan road in Upper Burmah.

The accounts of three cruises to Novaya Zemlya and Spitsbergen occupy the first place in the *Geographical Journal* for April. They are followed by Mr. H. S. H. Cavendish's lively description of his adventurous journey through Somaliland and around Lake Rudolf. A part of the region traversed had been unexplored, and in it he came upon a lake some twenty-five miles long whose water, "near to the north end, where a smouldering volcano was situated, was just as hot as one would like to wash one's hands in." To the south of Lake Stefanie he found coal in large quantities—a valuable discovery in tropical Africa. This number also contains the conclusion of Dr. Sven Hedin's account of his crossing the plateaux of Northern Tibet, and a report of the Geographical Society's Antarctic meeting.

The latest volume of Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society contains three contributions of very solid merit. Prof. Jameson's "Political Uses of the Word Convention" we have already praised in another connection. Mr. Franklin's succinct "Historical Study of the Powers and Duties of the Presidency in Yale College," and Mr. Wilberforce Eames's careful historical and bibliographical survey of "Early New England Catechisms," are both the fruit of much labor and excellent for ready reference.

To be remarked in the current Proceedings of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin (December meeting, 1897) are a very sensible and suggestive paper, "How Germans become Americans," by Ernest Bruncken; a bibliographical history of the two Wisconsin constitutional conventions, with annotated lists of the delegates; and a sketch of the Rev. Ichabod Codding, an early and devoted abolitionist, by his widow, which was worth writing and printing.

War, which has been called a school for learning geography, also has some lessons in national history and character. Greater knowledge of Spain might have hindered us from our present folly, or at least saved us from some illusions about our adversary. Whether we shall now be curious—or have time to be curious—about Spain, remains to be seen. Mr. W. E. Foster, of the Providence Public Library, assuming that his patrons will (or should), has devoted to Spain his Reference List, No. 55, in his Monthly Bulletin for March.

All hitherto available maps of Cuba must now yield to the military map prepared in the War Department, Adjutant-General's Office, from the latest official sources, and beautifully executed in four sheets by Julius Bien & Co. of this city. The date, 1897, is significant. The scale is one inch to eight miles. Banks and shoals are indicated, but there are no soundings. Roads of all kinds, including projected railroads, are laid down. The topography is more or less definitely shown. The multitude of settlements is the striking feature of the map, petty as many of them must be.

Luzac & Co., No. 46 Great Russell Street, London, have acquired the Chinese library of the late Prof. James Legge, and are preparing a catalogue of it to be sent on application, their desire being to sell it *en bloc*. It comprises upwards of 2,000 volumes, many rare and some in series of eight to sixty-six.

As is well known, the students of Radcliffe College, Cambridge, have no dormitory or hall of residence, and the need of one for a portion at least of the students in attendance, or who might be attracted by it, has become so manifest that a movement is on foot to erect it by subscription. It is intended to provide for not more than twenty-five students, so that the scheme is only supplementary to existing conditions of life in scattered families. The sum of $50,000 is sought, and any contributions to it on the part of friends of the college or of the higher education generally may be sent to the Treasurer, Miss Leslie White Hopkinson, No. 22 Craigie Street.

From circulars emanating from the University of Geneva we learn that the vacation schools in modern French, already described in these columns by Mr. William Henry Bishop, will, for the coming summer, open on July 16; and autumn, October 1. Each course will have its conference for the correction of written work, its conversation groups, its pleasant song section, its lectures on special subjects in science, history, or literature. Admission is to matriculated students in a university, and to persons possessing a university degree or teachers in a public school (women included). Information in detail concerning the programme, lodgings, etc., can be had by addressing M. le Secrétaire-Caissier de l'Université de Genève.

The University of Grenoble, too, sends us its prospectus, its *cours de vacances* opening July 1 and closing September 30, unless prolonged to October 30 on request. Text-books will be loaned gratuitously. Particulars may be had of the Secrétariat de l'Académie, Rue Lesdiguières, 24. We perceive no restriction on the "jeunes gens" whose presence is desired. As at Geneva, they will be assisted to suitable lodgings.

—The May *Century* has a good illustrated article on "Railway Crossings in Europe and America," by Franklin B. Locke. This is

the country of grade-crossings and grade-crossing accidents. On the latter point the statistics given are curious. When railways were first constructed in the United States little attempt was made to protect the ordinary crossing. The familiar gate, or bar, still seen everywhere, made its appearance, while in some places flagmen and bells were resorted to; in others the notice "Look out for the Locomotive," etc., was considered sufficient. In Massachusetts it seems that there are between twenty-one and twenty-two hundred grade-crossings, of which about one-half are "protected"; yet the fatalities at these are "nearly half of all the casualties occurring at both protected and unprotected crossings." It is generally recognized now that the condition of the crossings in this country is full of unending danger, and we are gradually on the way to a separation of highways from railways at points where they intersect. In course of time, even the amusing sport of "walking on the track," once so common among American children, will be stopped. In Germany such amusements are contrary to law, and the law is rigidly enforced. It is not generally known that grade-crossings are an enormous hindrance to efficient railway service. We run trains at as high a speed as any in the world; but "if we compare the average time of the twenty-six fastest trains to and from New York, on all of its twenty-six important roads, we get only about forty miles an hour, against the average . . . of forty-six miles an hour for fifty-four trains running to and from London." Mr. A. D. White contributes an article on "A Statesman of Russia," with what looks as if it must be a good portrait. The statesman in question is Constantine Pobedonostzeff, the "Proctor-General of the Most Holy Synod," otherwise known as "the Torquemada of the nineteenth century." Mr. White, who had many interviews with him, found him an agreeable man, fond of reading Hawthorne, Emerson, and Lowell, and at the same time a tremendous reactionary. His "views" are those of Metternich, adapted to the present day, and, of course, he looks at everything as a Russian, objecting to any improvement in the wretched street conveyances in St. Petersburg because they are thoroughly national. Mr. White, on the strength of several personal interviews, acquits him of being a hypocrite, but how he knows, he does not say. Pobedonostzeff's smile is described as being "a gentle, kindly smile," with nothing "ghastly or cruel" in it; but in a Torquemada would not such a smile smack of hypocrisy?

—"East Side Considerations," by E. S. Martin, and "Awakened Russia," by Julian Ralph, are two leading illustrated articles in *Harper's*. The former deals with a part of New York formerly little known to the well-to-do, but now a scene of much devoted philanthropic work, which, having begun with the cleaning out of the "Five Points," is now producing parish houses, and parks, and university settlements, and generally a higher standard of living among the poor. It is not like the East End of London, for it is not English, and it has also the genuine New York transitoriness. As in all such quarters, dirt is described as one great enemy of improvement. When cleanliness becomes not merely the luxury of the rich, but the necessity of the poor, then general self-respect will have been attained. Mr. Julian Ralph has a good deal to say about Russia, and the curious changes now going on there, but his explanation of the attitude of the Government towards the Armenian massacres will hardly bear examination. It is that Russia has a great number of Armenians within her own borders, and therefore could not "permit the Armenian in Turkey to better his condition so as to have it envied by the Armenian in Russia." What he means is that Russia could not be expected to approve of Armenian reforms; but is the alternative of reform always massacre? It is, no doubt, so considered by many a pious Mohammedan, but is that the view of Mr. Ralph? He gives a by no means clear account of the great Russian transcontinental railway, which, according to "all authorities," is to be a "perfectly modern railway, equipped not only with sleeping and dining-cars" but even with a "church car" for emergencies, yet is said in places to be so hastily built that "the ties are being merely laid down on the grass." There is nothing in the article to show that the "awakening" of Russia means a new policy of the "open door"; a Russia of railroads and telegraphs can hardly be for ever the Russia of the past, but the railroad now under construction is chiefly a very long military road.

—In the *Atlantic Monthly* for May, ex-Secretary Olney's discussion of the "International Isolation of the United States" is the leading article. To this we have already paid attention on one side, but we may further remark that the address (originally delivered at Sanders Theatre, Harvard University) confounds two different kinds of isolation—that recommended by Washington in his farewell address, and that sort of isolation represented by high tariffs, anti-Chinese and anti-immigration laws. There is no evidence that Washington was in favor of the Dingley tariff, nor of keeping Chinamen out of the country, nor of requiring immigrants to read twenty-five words of the Constitution of the United States. What Washington warned the country against was a policy of connection with European "politics" and "permanent alliances." (These are his own terms.) On the other hand, the extension of our "commercial relations" was at the same time strongly advocated by him. Mr. Olney seems to think that we have outgrown the stage of existence for which Washington's policy was suited, and that it is high time for something finer and nobler; but he shrinks from saying precisely what it is to be. He squints at an alliance with England, but expressly declares that "it will not follow that formal alliances . . . will soon or often be found expedient"; he writes nearly a page about the Berlin (Congo) Act, without telling us what he would have. On the whole, he is opposed to too much "isolation." Is any one afraid to echo the sentiment? Prof. Münsterberg continues his articles on Psychology, but in "Psychology and the Real Life" he gets beyond our depth. This, however, is clearly our own fault; what he says about the "real life" is not meant for everybody. Stopping short at his positive psychology, the paper is a valuable explanation of the present position of that science, and to any one having even a superficial acquaintance with the subject, most entertaining. Is there anything new under the sun? "To doubt that anything at all exists is absurd, as such a thought shows already that at least thoughts exist," is surely the latest paraphrase of "cogito, ergo sum." There is something in the article for everybody, from the hardened sceptic and positivist to the seer who possesses the key to the absolute in the limited and the infinite in the finite. If any one can read J. T. Morse, jr.'s summary of "The Dreyfus and Zola Trials" without a longing to fit out a filibustering release expedition to the Isle du Diable, he may be sure that he is no gentleman; if, on the other hand, he is fired with this wild and wholly illegal idea, he may, by reading the paper on "The Evolution of the Gentleman," by S. M. Crothers, in the same number of the magazine, gain some insight into the genesis of feelings which do him credit.

—In *Scribner's*, "Undergraduate Life at Wellesley" is the subject of an illustrated article by Abbe Carter Goodloe. Among other things, it gives an account of a new exercise which promises much entertainment and instruction for young college women. It consists of a representation of a set debate in the House of Commons, given under the direction of the Department of Constitutional History. The subject of debate is some real question in English politics. Last year it was on the motion of Mr. Burns to abolish the House of Lords; one young lady taking the part of Mr. Balfour, another that of Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, another that of Mr. Labouchere, another that of Mr. Chamberlain, and so on. "The leader of the House was as imposing as it was possible for a very much frightened young girl in a white wig and black gown to be; and the *mise en scène* was excellent, the party in power being very properly on her right, the opposition on her left, while the Irish Nationalists and the Liberals" (apparently at Wellesley a fourth party) "sat and stood and cheered and groaned below the gangway." A widespread knowledge among women of the rules which govern the procedure of deliberative bodies would add a novel feature to their equipment for life; it is a branch of learning the general principle of which may be mastered very easily. In domestic life, feminine dialectics are usually different from masculine, but which system is the most successful has, we believe, never been settled. If women, in addition to their present resources, are to be provided with those hitherto monopolized by men, they will have great advantages. He would be a bold man who should attempt to argue with a woman having the right to choose between the system of Mrs. Caudle and that of Cushing's Manual. That the emergency may arise is apparent from numerous recent manuals by women, *e. g.*, Mrs. Shattuck's Boston 'Manual of Parliamentary Law' and her 'Advanced Rules for Large Assemblies' (now in press), not to mention such a straw as the little pocket folder, 'Parliamentary Diagram,' by Mary Urquhart-Lee, which has just been published in Chicago.

—Although most intelligent people recognize bacteria as agents intimately affecting human life, a clear knowledge of their character is not yet popularized. And it is not too much to say that even the scientists who devote themselves to a study of them are developing the horizon more rapidly than they can differentiate all that it includes. For instance, that widespread and serious disease, typhoid fever, is recognized as bacterial, and the *bacillus typhosus* is commonly regarded as the specific cause. It is the contamination of food and drink with this organism that completes the equation of cause and consequence. But to demon-

strate that bacillus out of the body, after the earlier stages of the disease, is most difficult; and while logically it should be found abundantly in the polluted water, very expert observers often fail in the search. Consequently, a considerable school believes that another bacillus *(coli communis)*, which ordinarily is innocent, is convertible into the *typhosus* under conditions not yet understood; another, that *typhosus* acquires its virulence only after cultivation in the human body; and the Swiss health officers stoutly maintain that the typhoid-fever cause is generated in water contaminated by the droppings of animals and free from human pollution, pointing to the disease as found in the higher Alps. There are conditions in this country, especially in the Rocky Mountains, to support this view. Notwithstanding that the great epidemics are those where the water has been fouled by a preceding well-marked case or cases, the possibility of a change of character, if not of morphology, by environment is theoretically good, and those who believe that virulence may be diminished in pathogenetic or be grafted upon innocuous bacteria, are increasing. We are led into this train by a most admirable 'Manual of Bacteriology,' by Drs. Muir and Ritchie (Macmillan). Not that these authors countenance the transformation of either of the two bacteria that we have cited into the other. They distinctly affirm that "there is no evidence that the one organism ever passes into the other." And this is true, for evidence of that kind is most difficult to reach. They admit that variations may occur, but explain that "variation as observed consists largely in a tendency in a bacterium to lose properties ordinarily possessed. Practically no case of a bacterium acquiring new properties has been observed." It is very proper that a text-book should be conservative and not yield to every wind of doctrine. Nevertheless, we believe that variability may be a feature of these living cells, as in higher orders. The manual is neither prolix nor cramped in matter or style, but is sufficient and clear and moves with an even pace. It may be received with confidence by any student seeking a knowledge of the principles of germ life and of the methods to observe it.

—Ramabai, born in 1858, a Hindu widow of high class and culture, early founded in Poona an association to encourage female education and discourage child marriage. Feeling need of better training herself, she made her way to England in 1883, became there a professor of Sanskrit and embraced Christianity, but found English ears too conservative or incredulous for harkening to her appeals. So, after learning English, she joined her cousin Joshee in Philadelphia, who graduated at the Women's Medical College there in 1886. She became well acquainted with kindergartens and all the American school system. Personal interviews, her book on 'The High-Caste Hindu Woman,' and her travels westward even to the Pacific Coast, resulted in the formation of a humanitarian association with Edward E. Hale and Phillips Brooks at its head. Leaders in all Christian denominations, as well as Jews, joined with these two men in responding to the appeals of Ramabai in behalf of a much-injured class, which she convinced them could be effectually relieved, elevated, and sometimes Christianized. So inspiring was the prospect that all funds called for were raised. In a work published in 1888, Ramabai computed that she should need about $15,000 to fully establish her school, and $5,000 annually afterward during each year of the ten through which she wished that pledges for its support should be given. Six years after leaving home, Ramabai stood again in Bombay, and within six weeks opened a school there early in 1889. Upon this establishment and its country annex Mukti, near Poona, the association has laid out $91,500, largely in a permanent plant —school-buildings, dormitories, etc.—now worth $50,000. Three hundred and fifty child widows have passed through its undenominational course. Fourteen have been trained as teachers, eight as nurses, seven as missionary assistants; ten have homes of their own; none of them married under twenty-one. The period of pledges has now expired. Bishop Brooks, Miss Willard, and many others who made them are dead, but there must be some to carry on their work. Ramabai, now forty, seems better fitted than ever for her merciful mission to her sex. "She hath done what she could."

JENKS'S LAW AND POLITICS IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

Law and Politics in the Middle Ages. By Edward Jenks, M.A., Reader in English Law in the University of Oxford. London: John Murray; New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1898. xiii and 352 pp.

Mr. Jenks gracefully records his obligations to Prof. Maitland, and a glance at the 'Law and Politics of the Middle Ages' shows that his book is an excellent piece of work produced by a student in the school of which Prof. Maitland is the acknowledged head. The true aim of this school is to trace out the history, and especially the early history, of laws and institutions, and of the ideas to which laws and institutions owe their origin; and Mr. Jenks's treatise is a bold and in many respects successful attempt to explain the development of legal and political conceptions during the Middle Ages—that is, speaking very broadly, from the time when Rome ceased to rule the Western world to somewhere about the period of the Reformation. The book is the work of a thoroughly trained English lawyer, who combines a practical knowledge of the laws of his own country with a keen interest in speculations as to the development of legal ideas, such, for example, as the idea of "the State," of "property," of possession, of contract, and the like. The work is so admirable a specimen of its class that its appearance gives a good occasion for considering what is the real worth and the true interest of the whole body of writings to which it belongs. This is a point on which there exists some confusion in the minds both of writers and of readers, and which, therefore, repays examination.

Mr. Jenks's book may be placed together with Pollock and Maitland's 'History of English Law' and with Maitland's recent 'Lectures on Township and Borough.' These are alike concerned with the origins of legal institutions; all of them may, therefore, be placed among the legal literature of England; they are each and all of them works which any lawyer who takes a generous and liberal interest in his science may study with interest. But Mr. Jenks's treatise (and the same remark applies to those with which we have coupled its name) is in reality not a contribution to our knowledge of law, but a contribution to our knowledge of history. His speculations, for example, are in themselves most interesting, but it is a mistake to suppose—and it is an error to which students are liable—that his theories, even when they touch more or less directly upon English law, can be of material help towards attaining a knowledge of the law of England, or indeed of the law of any definite country.

Let us, for the sake of illustrating this point, confine our attention to English law. The immediate object of any Englishman who wishes to become a good lawyer is to understand and then place in their due logical order all the principles enforced by English courts. He who has achieved this, if the achievement be possible, and who has also so thoroughly mastered these principles as to see their bearing upon all the combinations of facts—that is, on all the cases which may actually arise or which may be suggested by the ingenuity of theorists—has become a perfect English lawyer. Whether, under the present condition of the world and of law, such a complete master of English law can ever in fact exist, may be open to some doubt. We may suppose, however, that in every generation one or two men, endowed with very special genius as well as with indomitable industry, make a near approach to that complete mastery of law which every serious student at the opening of his career proposes to himself as an ideal. Now it is obvious that any such master of the law of England as is here imagined could not be indifferent to certain aspects of legal history; he could not understand the existing law, for example, of agency, unless he had traced a good way back the steps by which the rules governing the relation between a principal, a third party, and an agent have grown up; it is in strictness impossible that he should understand the law of real property without a considerable knowledge of the historical development of this branch of law. But, for all this, such a perfect lawyer will require but very little of the sort of knowledge supplied him by theorists whose main concern is the origin of ideas and institutions. When once the existence of a rule of law is ascertained, this rule is for a lawyer an ultimate fact, and the question how it originated is of little importance, while the inquiry what was the state of mind of the men who originally established the rule, or what were the mental perplexities or confusions which may account for its establishment, is, or at any rate may be, to a lawyer, of no importance whatever.

That this is so is patent in regard to enacted or codified law. The merit or demerit of a code is that it puts an end to the practical importance of the historical study of law. The latent hostility between codifiers and historians of law is no mere accident; but what is true of codified law is at bottom true of the rules of judge-made law, from the moment that they have become absolutely established—that is, from the moment they have become part of the law of the land. Take, for example, the law of contract. It is of importance for a lawyer to know what is meant by a contract—that is, by a legally binding agreement. It is of primary importance for an English lawyer to know what are, under English law, the constituents of a legally binding agreement. But it is of no importance, though it may be of considerable interest, for him to understand that, as Mr. Jenks and others have

amply demonstrated, there have been periods of the world's history in which men found it impossible to master the conception of a promise, an agreement, or a contract. Thus, to illustrate our meaning by another example, it is essential for an English lawyer to understand what is meant by a "consideration," and to grasp fully and follow out to all its consequences the principle that a promise for which there is no consideration is legally void; but it is of no importance whatever, from a merely legal point of view, that he should study the historical growth of the very curious doctrine that a promise which is gratuitous is in general not legally binding. Any one who has looked into the subject at all knows that writers of learning and intelligence have given different answers to the problem, How did the necessity for a consideration for the validity of a promise become part of the law of England? But every one also knows that the answer to this problem is to an English lawyer of no practical importance. The dogma that a gratuitous promise is invalid is now part of the law of England. Debates on the method by which this legal dogma has been developed cannot shake its authority. They are of intellectual interest, but possess no legal importance.

Take, again, Mr. Jenks's original and, if somewhat bold, yet most suggestive speculations as to the relation between the clan and the state. Let us assume that the truth of his conclusions may by further research be absolutely established. Still, his doctrines, however sound, will not affect a single rule of constitutional law in England or in any other country. To this criticism our author has at his command a complete reply. "I wrote," he may answer, "not as a constitutionalist, but as an historian." The conclusiveness of this retort is undeniable, but it is in effect a mere statement that a treatise on the origin of legal institutions is a contribution to our knowledge not of law but of history. It is the knowledge of history far more than the understanding of law which is being promoted by the historical school of lawyers. They have brought to light, not to say revealed, a forgotten aspect of human development. Politics, religion, art, and law are (if each word be taken in its widest sense) names for four different sides of the progress of mankind; taken together, they roughly cover the whole field of history. But historians for the most part have strangely overlooked the obvious fact that the laws of a nation at any given moment represent the conceptions by which it is governed. In the one case, indeed, of Rome, the importance of law forces itself into notice; to rule the world, and to rule it by establishing the supremacy of legal justice, was the one great achievement of Roman genius. Yet even as regards Rome it is only in comparatively recent times that men have realized the extent to which Roman law at once explains and gives a meaning to the history of Rome. Next to Rome, England is the country whose annals are most closely connected with its laws. Yet historians who have explored with care the minutest details of English party government have failed to grasp the full significance of English law and of English conceptions of justice. Macaulay was essentially a lawyer. His most permanent and his most original, if not his most brilliant, work is embodied in the Indian Penal Code; but his intense interest in Parliamentary conflicts seems to have diverted his attention from the mass even of Parliamentary legislation, and to have prevented his ever realizing either the singularity or the importance of the judicial legislation which has built up the greater and by far the best part of English law. His picture of the reign of Charles II. contains either no reference at all, or certainly no marked reference, to the passing of the habeas-corpus act, though Fox had already designated the Restoration as a period of bad government but good legislation; and nowhere throughout Macaulay's History or his Essays will there be found an attempt to explain—what he could have explained with greater lucidity than any other English man of letters—the process by which English courts, while deciding individual cases, in reality create new law. Freeman was from some points of view a disciple of Macaulay, yet he assuredly took a wider view of history than did his teacher. He appreciated the immense part played in the annals of England by the Church; but to the true importance of English law he was blind. He knew that lawyers had in some cases falsified history; he never perceived that the very errors of lawyers were themselves part of history, and that English law, from which, be it added, he himself drew his manly and generous ideal of justice, was the most original production of English genius.

In criticising authors of merited reputation, one should always remember that they live in virtue of their merits, which are their own, and deserve criticism, but not blame, for defects which belong to their generation or their training. But no future historian of England will, if he is at all equal to the performance of his work, be able to neglect the influence of English law. To have achieved this result is the glory of the historical school of lawyers. They have already, moreover, accomplished a good deal more than merely directing attention to the influence of legal ideas and of legal institutions. They have, in some instances at any rate, absolutely established, from their study of law, conclusions which must be taken into account by any one who wishes to understand or explain the progress of civilization. Mr. Jenks, for example, to recur to a point to which reference has been already made, has produced a great deal of evidence, which is new to English readers, of the difficulty felt by men who have reached only an early stage of civilization in understanding the nature of a contract. A transfer of possession or a transfer of ownership is in reality an idea which is more easily grasped than the conception of a promise or agreement. It is true that when once the idea of a promise or contract has been seized, it has, just perhaps because of the difficulty with which it was realized, an extraordinary hold upon the mind or imagination. The religious associations linked with the word "covenant," the political aspirations or convictions associated with the term "contract," show how great is the weight in some social conditions attributable to the conception of a compact; but it is nevertheless true that any inquirer who investigates the condition of early societies will find that men found it hard to understand the meaning of a promise. Even a "pledge," just because it was associated with some tangible thing which could be handled and felt, was more intelligible than the obligation connected with it; a marriage ring, the giving of an earnest, or shaking hands to bind a bargain, are all, in fact, survivals of a state of opinion in which men could hardly understand the existence of rights, duties, or obligations, unless you could connect them with something which could be seen and felt.

All that Mr. Jenks writes on this topic is excellent, but he avowedly does little more than illustrate or confirm doctrines propounded by other writers. Let no one, however, suppose that his book is deficient in originality. It is full of suggestions which are his own, and many of which well deserve consideration. He forces, for instance, on his readers' attention a view of the "Empire" founded by Charles the Great which assuredly is needed to complement the impression conveyed by the writings of Freeman and his followers. That Charles in a sense revived the Empire of Rome is true, but revivals are at bottom revolutions; and though it is an error to deny the connection between the Empire of Charles and the Empire of the Cæsars, it is almost the greater error to overlook the fact that artificial continuity involved essential dissimilarity. "In the end," writes Mr. Jenks, "the Frankish King assumes the sacred title of Imperator and is crowned at Rome, but, of course, the whole thing is a mimicry and a sham." The boldness of this language may provoke attack, but it contains an element of most important truth. We fully agree with our author that the revived Empire "had been a sham Empire from beginning to end, making pretensions which it could not support, using forms which it did not understand, undertaking duties which it could not perform." Readers, again, should consider with care Mr. Jenks's great generalization as to the constant conflict throughout history between the clan, founded on real or supposed connection of blood, and the state, created originally by military power and kept in existence by men's unconscious desire for the establishment of more or less equal and rational laws. No one will undertake to say—we doubt whether our author would himself assert—that the generalization he has suggested, and the inferences which he bases upon it, can as yet be regarded as more than very ingenious theories. Long and careful investigation of many obscure parts of the history of law will be necessary in order to turn these theories into established doctrines. Still, they are in the best sense suggestive; they point towards the direction in which we ought to look for the solution of many important problems.

A reviewer may be allowed to add one conjecture to the many ingenious suggestions made by our author as to the unconscious conflict between the state and the clan. Is the movement in favor of nationality at bottom more or less than a revival of the claims of the clan? Kinship is once more pitted against citizenship. Instinct comes into conflict with reason. If this be the case, the contest is no new one. But the glory of man is that, though an animal, he is a rational animal. The progress of mankind is in the long run the triumph of reason over instinct.

STRATEGY.

Letters on Strategy. By General Prince Kraft zu Hohenlohe-Ingelfingen. [Wolseley Series, edited by Capt. Walter H. James.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. 417, 345. Maps in pockets.

The plan of the 'Letters on Strategy' is

most excellent. They are written by a veteran of the campaigns of Sadowa and Sedan to a young military friend, in familiar discussion of three great European campaigns, those of Jena, Magenta, and Sedan. In these France was victorious in two, against Prussia and Austria respectively, and an impartial analysis is made of the merits and defects of the leadership on both sides. In the great struggle of 1870 a fuller examination becomes possible, and the discussion fills nearly three-fourths of the whole work. Its thesis is that Moltke and the German staff systematized and improved upon the principles and practice of the great Napoleon.

The author avoids the assumption that strategy should rank among the sciences. He says: "Strategy is not a science, but an art which must be practised"; and as to the master strategist, he adopts the ancient maxim regarding poets, "He must be born, not made." For those having a natural adaptation for the work the best theoretic instruction is the inductive, going through the history of campaign after campaign, "and then to marshal the facts we shall thus arrive at, and from them derive rules of conduct of the widest and most certain application." In summing up his work the author shows that the analytical comment on the several campaigns has developed the very rules which the favorite German authorities have systematically stated, and that his conclusions are therefore in harmony with those of Clausewitz, Blume, Bronsart, and Goltz.

He finds, however, that there are a very few maxims so general and so fundamental that they may be laid down as the axioms which will be assumed in all strategic discussion, and must be ever present in mind with commanders. They apply to armies and navies alike, and will be so profitably suggestive to every intelligent reader of war news to-day that it is well to quote them. They are five in number:

"1. National policy must be closely allied at every point with strategy.

"2. At the onset the destruction of the enemy's army must form the objective. Everything else, the occupation of cities or territories, is only of secondary importance.

"3. It is impossible to be too strong for a decisive battle. The whole efforts of strategy must be directed to this end, not diverting more forces for secondary objects than are absolutely necessary.

"4. No rigid system must be adhered to; the object should be to choose by sound judgment the shortest path to the desired goal.

"5. Changes in the plan of operation lead to incalculable losses of strength and time. Unless, therefore, the enemy or the elements enforce such alterations, they are to be avoided. Sudden changes of intention in the leader have often produced the greatest misfortunes."

The working of systematic and complete arrangements was well shown in 1870. The plan of beginning the campaign had been fully settled for two years. The place of concentration of the German forces made Rhenish Prussia and the Palatinate the base of active operations. The local depots at home for each corps were fixed and everything needed for taking the field was there. The reserves all knew just where to go when the order to mobilize should come, and the peace establishment was at once expanded to the war footing. The railway time-tables were all made out with the maximum number of trains which the several roads could put in motion. The only order needed was the brief telegraphic one, "Mobilize according to regulation." This put all the wheels in motion. The reserves streamed to the depots, were clothed, shod, and armed, their field transportation was there ready for them, the railway trains came as if by spontaneous intelligence, and a perfectly organized army of half a million disciplined soldiers was on the French border in less than twenty days.

Louis Napoleon supposed his own army was "archiprêt," and Moltke had been willing to concede that the French, if really ready, might cross the Rhine before the Germans could reach the Mosel Valley; but the practical drill of the Prussian staff proved its value, and the speed with which the "strategic deployment" on the frontier was made surpassed anything the world had seen. To say nothing of the unreadiness of the French in equipment, they lost a week in concentration, and that week gave the Germans the initiative with preponderant force at Woerth, where one wing of Louis Napoleon's army was shattered. It secured also the union of the whole German army before Metz, kept the French on the defensive without the ability to complete their concentration, and led by logical methods to the great disasters which culminated at Sedan. The meaning of the object-lesson is that the perfection of organization of a great standing army may be such that, with superior system and speed in mobilization, the fate of a campaign between contiguous nations of equal power may be determined in effect before a battle has been fought. The days of going rashly and gayly into war with any but a very inferior Power, in the expectation of getting ready after the war begins, are over. A nation so exceptionally situated as ours may yet be practically invincible in self-defence; but from a military point of view it would be ridiculous to undertake aggressive war with a really first-class Power. Our traditional policy of careful non-interference with other nations is in no small measure the result of sagacious recognition of the facts by our real statesmen from Washington downward.

A second practical lesson, applicable to our present situation, is the success of the German leaders in making their subordinates so intelligent and expert in the work of a campaign, and so zealous in carrying out the general purpose, that very brief and general orders were all that was required for very important movements. "A commander," says our author, "must never enter into more details than is absolutely necessary. He should never interfere without good cause with the sphere of the subordinate. By these means subordinates are trained for spontaneous and independent action. . . . It is only thus that dead, mechanical obedience is avoided, and self-acting obedience combined with initiative is produced." The most striking illustration of this is the fact that the attack on the Sedan position was made by the armies of the Crown Prince of Prussia and the Crown Prince of Saxony, on September 1, 1870, without orders from the royal headquarters, and when the Saxon Prince had asked for a day of much-needed rest for his troops. The Prussian Prince learned in the night of a probable effort of the French to force their way out towards Mézières, and gave the information to his Saxon comrade with notice of his own purpose to advance decisively on the left at the break of day. The Saxon Prince at once issued his own orders for an attack by the right at the same time, and both thus anticipated orders from Moltke which came after the movements were in full progress.

There can be no such initiative when there is the least doubt of the readiness at general headquarters to approve and applaud such assumption of responsibility, if it is done intelligently and in real comprehension of the general plan and object. It has more commonly been the reproach of modern armies that spontaneity is so snubbed by jealous superiors that "dead, mechanical obedience" has been the rule, and zealous initiative the exception. Yet the first is the prolific source of delays, cross-purposes, and failures, while the other, when used with intelligence, is the spring of energy that seizes the fleeting opportunity without hesitation, and brings triumphant success. Among the lessons taught during the last thirty years, let us hope that our officers have not forgotten to learn this.

Prince Hohenlohe-Ingelfingen avoids every appearance of mere technicality in his study of the campaigns he has selected as examples, and his lucid and familiar style makes his work entirely intelligible to the general reader. He points out examples of error as well as of correct strategy, and shows how simple are the principles on which a campaign is conducted. But he reiterates the truth that while the whole seems the most natural application of common sense, the execution often involves the most terrific difficulties. Here the highest qualities of mind and will, of courage and perseverance, of self-possession and of resource are demanded. It may be doubted whether any other book on the subject better deserves to be a vade-mecum with the military student than this. The English edition is in excellent form, and the maps enable us easily to follow the text.

MRS. STANTON'S MEMOIRS.

Eighty Years and More (1815-1897): Reminiscences of Elizabeth Cady Stanton. New York: European Publishing Co. 1898.

Mrs. Stanton has had a busy and eventful life, and she tells its story in a manner that is engaging, both because of the variety of her experience and because of her satisfaction and delight in the recital. But her narrative is often overweighted with trivial minutiæ. She was born November 12, 1815. She represents herself as suffering much from a repressive training, and more from the theological system in which she was brought up; declaring that all the cares and anxieties, the trials and disappointments of her whole life have been light in comparison with her sufferings in childhood and youth from her religious experience. This was intensified when, upon going away to school, she became subject to the revivalism of Finney and was converted in the manner then approved. The account of her school life is the more interesting because the school, that of Mrs. Willard in Troy, was a famous one, a step in the direction of the better education of women. The first attack Miss Cady planned upon the laws unfavorable to women was an amusing one. As a mere child she was impressed by the injustice done to women as she listened to their complaints in her father's law-office. The banter of the students there as to her own prospective disabilities increased her indignation, and, thinking that, if she could cut the obnoxious laws out of her father's law-

books, they would be annulled for ever, she set out to accomplish her great design, but it was frustrated by an accomplice. Thereupon she had her initiation into the business of her life, her father explaining to her how laws were made, and saying to her, "When you are grown up and able to prepare a speech, you must go down to Albany and talk to the legislators. . . . And if you can persuade them to pass new laws, the old ones will be a dead-letter."

On p. 60 Mrs. Stanton tells us that she was married May 10, 1840, but on p. 71 the happy day proves to have been May 11, the bridegroom's detention on his journey making a postponement necessary. Seven children were born of this marriage, six of whom are still living. The wedding journey was unique. It took Mr. and Mrs. Stanton to England in company with James G. Birney and others, delegates, like themselves, to the World's Anti-Slavery Convention. It was probably her game of "tag" with her brother-in-law, just before sailing, that impressed Mr. Birney with Mrs. Stanton's superabundant vitality. We have very interesting glimpses of different members of the convention. When it rejected the women delegates, Garrison went outside the camp with them, sharing their reproach. "After coming three thousand miles to speak on the subject nearest to his heart, he nobly shared the enforced silence of the rejected delegates. It was a great act of self-sacrifice which should never be forgotten by women." Mrs. Stanton and her husband had already agreed to differ on some things; he was joined to the Liberty party, which had broken with Garrison, and her sympathies were with the followers of Garrison; his devotion to the rights of women counting much in his favor in her eyes. In their later life Mrs. Stanton and her husband found themselves differing widely in their political opinions, she cleaving to the Republicans even in 1884, and he long before that becoming a Democrat, after the manner of the New York *Sun*, for which he was a writer for some years.

To return to the World's Anti-Slavery Convention, we are told that Elizabeth Fry was studiously contemptuous of Lucretia Mott because Lucretia was a Hicksite Friend, while Mrs. Fry was stiffly orthodox: "If Mrs. Mott was on the lawn, Mrs. Fry would go into the house. If Mrs. Mott was in the house, Mrs. Fry would stay out on the lawn." One evening, when they were all crowded into the parlors, Mrs. Fry found herself impelled by the Spirit to pray for the schismatic Americans, that they might be brought to see the error of their ways. Mrs. Stanton urged Mrs. Mott to make a devout retort, but Mrs. Mott felt that one breach of hospitality was quite enough. Tennyson's applausive reading of his own "Maud" is capped with a difference by Thomas Clarkson's getting his wife to read before a company an article which he had written against colonization, and interrupting her with "Hear! hear!"—so absorbed in the matter that he forgot himself as the writer.

In chapter vii., "Motherhood," Mrs. Stanton gives abundant proof that her interest in great public affairs has not slackened her interest in her home affairs. She has been an enthusiastic housekeeper. As to the proper treatment of new-born babies and nursing infants she has much to say on which only experts can decide. One of her ideas is, that babies are born tired and need immediate rest. One is tempted to say, if Mrs. Stanton was born tired, the condition was one she seldom experienced in her maturity. She seems to have been always "going to and fro in the earth," and to have been always fresh and ready for each new adventure.

In 1843 Mrs. Stanton's home was established in the vicinity of Boston, and she had much pleasant contact with the anti-slavery people there, and listened with warm approval to the preaching of Theodore Parker. Writing of "the first volume of Whittier's poems, published in 1838," she takes no account of the volume of 1837, published by Isaac Knapp and issued from the office of the *Liberator*, of which Knapp was the printer at that time. Her ninth chapter brings Mrs. Stanton to one of the important stages of her life, the first Woman's Rights Convention. This was in 1847, when, on account of her husband's health, they had left Boston and settled at Seneca Falls, N. Y., where they lived for sixteen years. The convention originated in a chance meeting of Mrs. Stanton with Lucretia Mott and other liberal Friends. A month later there was another in Rochester, and Mrs. Stanton was fairly launched on a career of many labors and anxieties, in which, nevertheless, she has taken great satisfaction and delight. To her true yoke-fellow, Susan B. Anthony, she devotes two chapters of generous appreciation. To the more serious and humorous elements in her friend's career Mrs. Stanton has done equal justice. There was much need of the humorous elements to make the ridicule and abuse endurable. Emerson wrote of Phillips that a course of mobs made him the best stump-speaker in America. Miss Anthony's training was as good. It is written of her and Mrs. Stanton that they are of the most opposite characteristics, and that "each does not so much supplement the other's deficiencies as augment the other's eccentricities."

In 1854 Mrs. Stanton made that first speech to the Legislature which her father had prophetically intimated many years before. Before making it, she read it to him, an unsympathetic listener, and her success gave her courage for the ultimate event. Of that speech Miss Anthony printed 20,000 copies. In 1860 the new easy-going divorce laws of Indiana attracted Mrs. Stanton's warmest sympathy, and she entered heartily into the discussion which they aroused throughout the whole country. In a chapter upon marriage and divorce she makes a frank avowal of her sentiments. They will be shocking to the ecclesiastical and conventional moralist, and few, we hope, will range themselves beside her in her contention that the state has nothing to do with either marriage or divorce, and that if only "divorce were made respectable and recognized by society as a duty," there would be no further trouble. Another reform in which Mrs. Stanton took an active part was that of the Bloomer dress. It was not, she reminds us, originated by Mrs. Bloomer, but by Mrs Miller, the daughter of Gerrit Smith. The trials of this reform are set forth with much feeling. Evidently the loose Turkish trousers were not happily conceived; and in general the dress was not an attractive one. After a time the hearts of the bravest failed them, but Mrs. Stanton is able to record many hygienic improvements in the dress of women, and might, if she had chosen to do so, have gloried in the bicycle as doing more to effect a certain correspondence between fashion and convenience than the dress-reformers have been able to do at any time.

It is impossible for us to follow Mrs. Stanton into the various activities of her later life. The "journeyings often" of the great apostle were few compared with hers. From 1869 to 1873 she and Miss Anthony made many raids upon the West in the interest of their dearest hope; in 1891 going to California and making their work an important factor in a political campaign. In 1861 they were foremost in the organization of the Women's Loyal League, which had for its principal object the economizing of the rebellion for the emancipation of the slaves. The Centennial of 1876 was utilized as leverage for the woman's-suffrage agitation. During the next four years Mrs. Stanton wrote her 'History of Woman's Suffrage.' A task which subsequently engaged her interest was 'The Woman's Bible,' the second volume of which has recently appeared. This was an attempt to make on every text in the Bible bearing on the position of women its appropriate comment in the interest of women's wider liberties and fuller rights. It is not a little strange that Mrs. Stanton should have cared, with her purely rationalistic conception of the Bible, to engage in such a task. The more natural course would have been for her to ask, Why should the Bible present an adequate conception of the social position of woman in the modern world, and why should we be troubled in any way if it does not? To those holding the traditional opinion of the Bible, Mrs. Stanton's comments will appear irreverent and blasphemous; to those who regard it as she does they must appear superfluous.

In her concluding chapter Mrs. Stanton details with honorable pride the circumstances of the celebration of her eightieth birthday anniversary. It is clear that she has troops of friends, outnumbering all the enemies that she has ever made. And she has other satisfactions. If the suffrage has been extended to women only to an extent discouraging to her fondest hopes after so many years of agitation, the disabilities of women have been much ameliorated in many particulars, or have entirely disappeared, and their efficiency in the social organism has been much increased. Mrs. Stanton's temperamental happiness is, consequently, reinforced in her old age with gratitude for the victories already won, and with the assurance that the future has yet better things in store.

Die Kritik in der Englischen Literatur des 17. und 18. Jahrhunderts. Von Paul Hamelius. Leipzig: Th. Grieben's Verlag (L. Fernau). 1897. Pp. 207.

The present generation of scholars and readers is showing a remarkable increase of interest in the history and theory of literary criticism. Not only is the press sending out a growing stream of books on 'The Principles of Criticism,' 'The Evolution of Criticism,' and 'The Theory of Literature' (a score or more in this class within the last five years could easily be named); not only is the school of French criticism in practice, theory, and history captivating the judicious; not only is Aristotle's 'Poetics' (and many of its progeny) continually seeking new editors and printers, but the colleges also (Oxford, Harvard, Chicago, California) are beginning to treat the History of Criticism, and especially of English Literary Criticism, in their regular literary curricula.

The history of English literary criticism

has never been thoroughly written. Involving, as the writing of it would, the reconstruction of many points in English literary history, and the consideration of so vast an amount of material, as yet undigested, it is doubtful if it can be adequately written as a whole until its parts have been thoroughly worked up in a series of monographs. Several of these monographs have already been attempted, but the work of Dr. Hamelius is, in our opinion, the most important contribution yet offered in the field. It is essentially an account of English literary criticism in the neo-classical period, especially in the years from about 1650 to 1725. The literary criticism of the Elizabethan period is sketched, but the author's picture is considerably out of focus, and it is evident that he lacks a thorough comprehension of the literary history of the period. Want of acquaintance with the studies of previous workers in the field, and especially with Prof. Schelling's monograph on Poetic and Verse Criticism in the Reign of Elizabeth, is unfortunately noticeable here, as elsewhere in the volume. So the account of the revival of Spenser's influence in the eighteenth century (pp. 111 ff.) might have been improved by reference to Prof. Phelps's 'Beginnings of the English Romantic Movement,' as might the account of the Return to Nature (pp. 155 ff.) by reference to Miss Reynolds's study of the Treatment of Nature in English Poetry between Pope and Wordsworth. Moreover, there are a few points in which Miss Wylie's Studies in the Evolution of English Criticism, as well as Prof. Vaughan's Introduction to his 'Selections in English Literary Criticism' in the Warwick Library, would doubtless have been of service. As it is, however, the author, by neglecting his *Mitstrebenden*, has followed Goethe's maxim, and has thereby perhaps been better enabled to cover a large amount of hitherto neglected evidence, and to present a more independent and original view of the subject. On the other hand, he has neglected a certain amount of evidence which should have been covered. Both points might be illustrated from the various novel entries, as well as from the omissions, in his interesting Bibliography (pp. 188-201). And as the work is less satisfactory for the larger Elizabethan period, so for the last half of the eighteenth century, in the still obscure and inadequately traced criticism of the nascent Romantic movement, it is incomplete and inadequate. Its strength is in the discussion of the criticism of the neo-classical period.

In spite of these and other necessary reservations, it must be said that Dr. Hamelius has accomplished a delicate and difficult task with considerable success, producing a monograph which comes near to serving the purpose of a full history of the subject in its period, and presenting evidence which should help very materially in that revision of many of the old and conventional views of English literary history which has begun in recent years, especially since the enunciation by Mr. Gosse of the thesis contained in his work 'From Shakspere to Pope,' and since later special studies in the closing of the Classical and the beginnings of the Romantic movement. The more important of his new views the author summarizes at pp. 185-187: first, that neo-classicism in criticism as in poetry is to be dated from Ben Jonson rather than later—other forms of it, of course, are to be found in the 'Areopagus,' in Webbe, Campion, Daniel, and others before Jonson; that in the criticism of Dryden's later period is to be found the germ of a new Romantic criticism, developed to some extent after Dryden also by Dennis, Addison, and especially Steele; that the classical criticism and views represented by Pope and his party never gained undisputed supremacy in England; that Dr. Johnson, in upholding the classical standard, supported a cause already lost; that the welcome of Ossian and of Percy's 'Reliques' was not the cause but the consequence of a change in taste which had been long preparing; and that the Romantic poetry which began soon after 1730 was a direct consequence of the earlier critical activity, as is exemplified in the case of the Wartons, father and sons. Points of novelty and interest also are involved in the author's treatment of Ben Jonson, Hobbes, Dennis, Steele, and the Wartons (although Joseph Warton's thoroughly modern and Romanticist criticism on Pope is hardly accorded the importance that belongs to it), as well as in the demonstration of the fact that the older English (Elizabethan) taste in poetry never completely disappeared even in the height of the classical reaction, but lived and held its own away from the court and the city in many a corner of England where old books were read and old customs were cherished—as with Sir William Temple, for example. Valuable, too, is the exposition of the moralistic interest in criticism and literature which became prominent as a new historical tendency in the early years of the eighteenth century, "so that it was clear enough to people of penetration that neither a Return to the Renaissance nor a conversion to French forms was impending."

The author displays a considerable power of historical generalization, especially in indicating the varying separate or opposing currents of tendency in his periods, and this lends interest to his remarks explanatory of the failure of most writers properly to distinguish these currents:

> "The chief reason why the historians of literature have not more precisely exhibited them is because they have preferred to fix their attention on single writers of prominence, overlooking or neglecting the lesser critics whose works must serve as commentaries on the greater. The aversion of many English investigators to abstract considerations, together with their predilection for biographical particulars, is responsible for the errors that still prevail."

In accordance with the point of view herein implied is the main defect in the author's general method—a somewhat too schematic arrangement, and a tendency to introduce groupings somewhat too set and formal. A thread is easily secured, and the material is vastly simplified by reducing everything to the incessant antithesis of "Classical" versus "Romantic"; but is not the arrangement at some points somewhat arbitrary and artificial? Or, again, for instance, must the man who wrote the "Letters on Chivalry and Romance" be denied a position among Romantic critics, and Bishop Hurd be treated as a Classicist only, because he wrote the essay on the "Province of Dramatic Poesy"? In summarizing the historical bearing and significance of theoretical views on literature Dr. Hamelius displays much acumen; it is, however, a defect of his study that applied criticism is subordinated throughout to critical theory. After Addison, the former begins far to outweigh the latter in historical importance.

In minor points, we question whether "Puttenham" can fairly be ranked as a critic with Bacon and Sidney (p. 18); whether Spenser is really to be classed with Webbe and Campion as one of those who "were for confining English poetry to the model of ancient verse-forms" (p. 20); the propriety of the application of the term "Romantic" in even the loosest sense to Cowley (p. 48); and the attribution to Steele, "almost exclusively" (p. 97), of the inception of the critical Return to Nature—Worsfold in his recent work seems to find the first of the new Romantic doctrine in Addison. Nor is the account of the "Rules" and their place in English criticism (pp. 119-122) quite adequate.

The author's style is compact and severe, but logical and clear—all points of great merit in German prose. The book badly needs an index.

How to Play Golf. By H. J. Whigham. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.

"There was a time when golf was played as a recreation," says Mr. Whigham, but the observer of manners and customs who reads newspapers and listens to general conversation in these United States, will be disposed to doubt the assertion. It is but a few years ago that we called attention to the merits of the game, and expressed surprise that it had not attracted the notice of the increasing number of people in this country who are interested in field sports. And now it has suddenly become almost as universal as bicycling, and vast numbers of men and women of all ages seem to regard it as the most serious business of life. People who never before played any kind of game are now intensely interested in the comparative merits of the mashie and the lofter, and there is danger that the final disappearance of the art of conversation at dinners and other social meetings will be due in a great measure to the melancholy fact that the golfer can talk of nothing but golf.

Of course the popularity of the game has resulted in the production of considerable literature. The great Badminton volume, of which Mr. Whigham truly says that it is rather an aid to experts than a consolation to beginners, has already passed through several editions, and will probably continue to hold its own as a sort of golfer's Koran. But inasmuch as the conditions surrounding the game in this country differ from those encountered elsewhere, and Mr. Whigham devotes considerable space to the important questions of making and improving links in our climate, his work cannot be considered superfluous. On the contrary, American players will find it very useful. Being on a much smaller scale than the Badminton book, it naturally appeals to the beginners for whom it is mainly intended; and the numerous instantaneous photographs of experts making the different strokes come very near to making the reader a spectator on the links where these strokes were played, and challenge his imitation. We entirely concur in Mr. Whigham's statement that "the most frequent fault which assails all golfers consists in standing too much in front of the ball," but for this very reason it seems unwise to discourage, as he does, the method of driving from the left leg. Doubtless it does not suit the average man; but if a beginner finds that he cannot learn to drive in the open style, let him try this method,

and, even if he does not become a second Laidlay, he may surprise himself and immensely improve his game. Again, we approve the recommendation of a short swing for those who begin golf comparatively late in life, as tending to greater accuracy, but we confess to being puzzled by the direction to "stand erect with the weight of the body equally distributed between each leg." Mr. Whigham wisely prefers the mashie to the lofter, and considers a cleek an excellent instrument for putting; thus, inferentially, reducing the number of necessary clubs to three. This is a desirable method of simplifying the practice of the game, and it is a method that has been found to work admirably on many courses. The advocates of the brassey will probably scout such an idea, but a little experience of the virtues of a well-balanced cleek for the second shot may change their views.

The drive is no doubt the easiest stroke in the game, and it is certainly the stroke that most players like best. It is, therefore, interesting to know that in this respect we are not far behind the Scotch and English records. Last year Mr. H. M. Harriman, in a long-driving competition, drove a ball 240 yards, and other American players have done nearly as well. Mr. Blackwell, who is probably the longest driver in England, has driven the long hole at St. Andrews (about 500 yards) in two strokes *twice in one day*, which is certainly an extraordinary performance, though not quite up to Mr. Tate's record drive of 340 yards. In this latter case, however, it should be stated that the *carry* was about 250 yards, and the nature of the ground caused an additional roll of nearly 100 yards. On level ground, 250 yards may be regarded as the maximum.

Through the Goldfields of Alaska to Bering Straits. By Harry De Windt. Harper & Bros. 1898. 8vo, xii, 314 pp. Illustrated.

Mr. De Windt's intention was to make a journey, in the main overland, from New York via Bering Strait and Eastern Siberia to Paris. In this he failed. He succeeded in travelling with a companion from the head of Lynn Canal over the Chilkoot Pass and down the Yukon to St. Michael's, as many had done before him. Thence he was transported by sea to Cape Chaplin, the Indian Point of navigators, on the western side of Bering Strait, by the United States revenue cutter *Bear*. Here he remained about six weeks, being taken off by the whaler *Belvedere*, which carried him to Unalashka, where he was transferred to the *Bear* and taken to San Francisco.

Books of travel may be roughly classified in two categories. In the one the traveller endeavors to add to the world's stock of knowledge about the region visited. In the other he endeavors to purvey for the lovers of sensational reading such a combination of fact and fancy as may stimulate a vitiated taste for excitement, and thereby earn a living. Admitting that the line between the two is not clean cut, there is usually little difficulty in assigning its place to any particular book. In the present case there is no difficulty whatever, as Mr. De Windt's narrative is, in both text and illustrations, sensational, and contains no new information of any value. It is the sort of "copy" one might expect an hysterical reporter to furnish to a "yellow" newspaper. Its usefulness, if any, will consist in the fact that a contemplation of the picture of two men climbing a cliff with a slope of sixty degrees, entitled "Nearing the Summit of the Chilkoot," may have a deterrent effect on some would-be Klondiker. Although many accounts of the Yukon trip have appeared in the daily press, the present one, if written in a calm and sensible manner, and illustrated by authentic photographs, might have been welcomed. The author is so intent on emphasizing the horrors of the Pass, the mud, the mosquitoes, etc., that he has wasted what a more sensible person would have recognized as a real opportunity for a good bit of work.

On the Asiatic side his ignorance of existing literature, and his extraordinary incapacity for dealing with a turbulent lot of drunken Esquimaux, resulted in what was for him a most uncomfortable six weeks. When it is remembered what excellent work for geography and anthropology was done on this very shore by the brothers Krause a few years ago, the contrast between the genuine explorer and the "reportorial" variety points an evident and much-needed moral.

So long as cheap paper and "process" engraving make the path of the bookmaker easy, we may expect a pretty large percentage of worthless publications annually. Nevertheless it is probable that the good sense of the reading public will soon grasp the distinction between real and sham exploration, and publishers will find it unprofitable to issue books which have no just title to be considered as contributions to either science or literature.

The Land of Arthur. By Marie Trevelyan. London: John Hogg; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

There appeared some time ago two books about Wales by Marie Trevelyan, 'Glimpses of Welsh Life and Character' and 'From Snowdon to the Sea.' Then, to complete the triad inevitable in all things Welsh, a quasi-historical work was published, entitled 'The Land of Arthur.' The first two volumes are popular and entertaining; the latest, popular and exasperating. 'The Land of Arthur' is a well-indexed but ill-digested mass of facts, fables, and fallacies, so uncritically and inextricably intermingled that the book seemed at first unworthy of serious notice; but the excellence of the index carried the day. The consecutive perusal of these 423 pages is an unremunerative and irritating task, but, by a skilful use of the copious index, the reader can obtain much misinformation mingled with many truths relating to Welsh history. Even these truths must first be verified by reference to less emotional works, for the atmosphere of this book is charged with a fervid patriotism and a turgid enthusiasm of phrase that give an unveracious coloring to the best established facts. A stately array of authorities, prefixed to the volume, lend it an air of historical solemnity, but there has been no sifting of evidence, no attempt to distinguish between trustworthy sources and legendary lore, and, worst of all, the author's own crude imaginings have added to the general confusion. The book seems to be a part of the great Celtic revival, and can be read with profit only by adherents of that cult.

The treatment of the Arthurian age is full but bewildering, and it is impossible for the humble seeker after truth to extricate the few facts from the entangling mass of fiction. The tale of the heroic struggle between Llewellyn and Edward I. has a most suspicious *ex parte* coloring. The English are uniformly described as fierce and malicious minions, "hungry panthers," etc., and Edward I. is "eternally disgraced," whereas the notorious and nationally characteristic treason and discord among the Welsh themselves are apologetically slurred over. The hard conditions of peace exacted by the English King are given in detail, but it is not mentioned that the heavy fine of 50,000 marks was afterward remitted. It is, however, a matter for gratitude that the old story of the slaughter of the Welsh bards by King Edward is not revived, and this is all the more to be commended since in most matters the credulity of the author is almost unbounded. The legend of the founding of Oxford by Alfred the Great is implicitly accepted (p. 53), although the paragraph in Asser's 'Life of Alfred' has been shown to be an interpolation, and the whole myth has been effectually disposed of by Messrs. James Parker and Hastings Rashdall. The story of the discovery of America in the twelfth century by Madog, the hero of Southey's "Madoc," kindles the author's enthusiasm, although she admits that there is some controversy about it. We learn, also, of certain edifying conversations between Caractacus and St. Paul at Rome. In the chronicle of Zonaras, not quoted by this author, we have some information about the sojourn of Caractacus in Rome which may be authentic; the Briton, gazing upon the stately structures of the capital, wondered why the occupants of such palaces should covet the humble huts of his countrymen. Beyond this, all information concerning Caractacus at Rome rests upon the untrustworthy testimony of the Welsh Triads. Caractacus died probably in the year 54 A. D. St. Paul went to Rome not earlier than 62 A. D. But this does not trouble our author; we do not know the exact dates about these two men, and consequently they must have met, and "a warm friendship between the great Apostle and the Cambro-British commander was the result." Moreover, since we know little about the movements of St. Paul and Caractacus between the years 60 and 67 A. D., it is "highly probable" that they were together in South Wales engaged in introducing Christianity. The author also accepts the late legend as truth that Joseph of Arimathæa went to Britain. Thus, with sufficient pride of race and an irresponsible imagination, we may, by accepting as historical truths the legends of a land, prove any statement about anything, if only no authentic information to the contrary can be obtained.

Again, a chapter is devoted to "The First Sailor King." This is Carausius, who, on the doubtful authority of Richard of Cirencester, likewise not quoted by the author, is made a native of St. David's. Now Carausius was a German, and Gibbon, who calls him "a Menapian of the meanest origin," admits that the account of his birth is untrustworthy. This man secured the title of Emperor during the reign of Maximian, who is in this work, and in the ever consistent index as well, persistently referred to as Maximinian, an error due, it would seem, to an injudicious combination of the real name with that of the later Emperor Maximin. But our author hints at no doubt concerning the origin of Carausius, and boldly claims him as one of the incomparable Welsh heroes. The authentic history of the Welsh is too distin-

guished and noble to require this disingenuous treatment.

The English of this work is unpardonably slip-shod. "The science of military superiority superseded native courage" is a sentence, not to be corrected, but to be destroyed. "In a letter from Roger Lestrange to King Edward I. his death took place on the 11th of December 1282." As a general thing year-dates are profusely omitted, and only the days of the month given, but now and then, in a fine fit of exactitude, the date is furnished twice in full within the limits of a single page (pp. 362-363). But the worst offence is the rhetorical padding: descriptions of imaginary sunsets and other sky effects on the eve of battles centuries ago, and reveries of great commanders not quite in the style of Thucydides. For this one need not cite the list of authorities consulted. But, as has been said, the index to this badly written and exasperating book is excellent and useful.

Montaigne et ses Amis, La Boétie—Charron—Mlle. de Gournay. Par Paul Bonnefon, Bibliothécaire à l'Arsenal. Nouvelle édition. Paris: Armand Colin et Cie. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. xv, 339, 413.

Five years ago the students of Montaigne were pleased by the publication of a handsome quarto volume entitled 'Montaigne, l'homme et l'œuvre.' It contained more than eighty well-chosen and interesting illustrations and a well-written compendium of the familiar facts regarding Montaigne's life and writings. The reprinting of the text in these two commonplace volumes makes rather more evident than before the absence in it of any original views or any personal investigations; but it remains an excellent summary of what has been previously noted and what has been frequently said, while the somewhat monotonous style is vivified by a very agreeable tone of feeling. M. Bonnefon is always on the large and generous side of disputed questions and uncertain points of view.

The study of Estienne de La Boétie, now inserted in the middle of the Montaigne chapters, was originally the introduction to an edition of La Boétie's works published by M. Bonnefon in 1892. These chapters have somewhat more the stamp of research than those concerning Montaigne; the editor of La Boétie's works naturally became more familiar with the details of his life than any one but a few students had been before, and the general reader is here informed of interesting facts whose interest is increased by the intelligent sympathy with which they are narrated. The chapters about Charron added at the end of the volume (with a sketch of Mlle. de Gournay) are less important. M. Bonnefon has not edited Charron's works; and in any case the vacillating old canon is a less interesting figure than the high-thinking young lawyer. Besides, when Sainte-Beuve has written thirty-five pages about a man—such a man—there is little occasion to say anything more on the subject.

M. Bonnefon, fortunately, in writing about Mlle. de Gournay, attains the same position as Sainte-Beuve in this respect. His sketch of her, though comprised in such a small frame, is full length, and has almost the effect of being life size. Moreover, in portraying her, he has given proof of admirable discernment of character. She has at last received from the hands of a competent judge complete justice, respectfully and admiringly rendered; and to do her justice is to do her honor. Sainte-Beuve, a half-century ago, in his early volume on sixteenth-century poetry, wrote in high terms of Mlle. de Gournay's abilities in literary discussion. M. Bonnefon, while fully recognizing her defects, sets forth the dignity of her life and the nobleness of her character, her loyalty and her candor, her generosity and her kindness, and shows himself touched with sympathy by the passionate enthusiasms of her nature. These passions, these enthusiasms, these vehemences brought upon "la docte fille," while living, much caricaturing ridicule, the echoes of which have not yet died away. M. Stapfer, only a year or two ago, spoke of her as "a virago of literature." No one can again justifiably use such language—unqualified—about her.

To represent Mlle. de Gournay truly is to dignify the judgment of Montaigne regarding her and to free it from detracting comments. This service M. Bonnefon's volumes render to the great Moralist.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aldrich, T. B. Baby Bell, and Other Verse. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.
Atherton, Gertrude. American Wives and English Husbands. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Barlow, Dr. C. Daydreams of a Doctor. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co.
Besant, Sir W. The Rise of an Empire. New York: M. F. Mansfield. 50c.
Cornell Studies in Classical Philology. No. VI. Macmillan. $1.50.
Douglas, R. B. A French Volunteer of the War of Independence. Appletons. $1.50.
Elder, Prof. William. Ideas from Nature. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. 75c.
Fleming, W. H. How to Study Shakespeare. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.
Gibbon, Edward. Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. Vols. IV. and V. London: Methuen; New York: Macmillan. $4.
Griffith, Mrs. Harriet P. R. Ursula at Home. Morristown, N. J.: Vogt Bros. $1.
Heilprin, Louis. The Historical Reference Book. Fifth ed., revised to 1898. Appletons. $2.
Herrick, A. B. Modern Switchboards. Philadelphia: Cutter Electrical and Manufacturing Co.
Hutton, Laurence. A Boy I Knew, and Four Dogs. Harpers. $1.25.
Huysmans, J. K. The Cathedral. New Amsterdam Book Co.
Kidd, Benjamin. Social Evolution. Revised edition, with additions. Macmillan. $1.50.
Lambert, M. B. Lessing's Minna von Barnhelm. American Book Co. 50c.
Lewis, C. M. The Foreign Sources of Modern English Versification. Halle: E. Karras.
Moody, Mrs. Helen W. The Unquiet Sex. Scribners. $1.25.
Myers, Minnie W. Romance and Realism of the Southern Gulf Coast. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $1.
Nansen, Fridtjof. Farthest North. Popular edition. Harpers. $3.
North, F. H. The Awakening of Noahville. New York Publishing Co. 50c.
Oppenheim, Dr. Nathan. The Development of the Child. Macmillan.
Packard, Prof. A. S. A Text-Book of Entomology. Macmillan. $4.50.
Peabody, F. G. Founder's Day at Hampton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50c.
Pestalozzi's Letters on Early Education. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. $1.
Pope's Homer's Iliad. Books I., VI., XXII., and XXIV. Boston: Ginn & Co. 40c.
Riley, J. W. The Flying Islands of the Night. Scribners.
Royce, Prof. Josiah. Studies of Good and Evil. Appletons. $1.50.
Schuette, W. E. Her Place Assigned. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. $1.50.
Scott, Sir W. The Bride of Lammermoor. London: Dent; New York: Scribners. 80c.
Simmons, E. S. A Solution of the Race Problem in the South. Raleigh, N. C.: Edwards & Broughton.
Sladen, Douglas. Who's Who. 1898. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Smith, Harriette K. The History of the Lowell Institute. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.
Spurgeon, Rev. C. H. Autobiography. Vol. I. 1834-1854. F. H. Revell Co.
Stephens, R. N. The Continental Dragoon. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Stern, H. I. The Gods of Our Fathers: A Study of Saxon Mythology. Harpers. $1.50.
Stockton, F. R. The Girl at Cobhurst. Scribners. $1.50.
Stories by Foreign Authors (French). 2 vols. Scribners. $1.50.
Stump, Rev. Adam. The Secret of the Cañon. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. $1.25.

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THE MACMILLAN COMPANY, No. 66 Fifth Ave., N. Y.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 12, 1898.

The Week.

Not the least important result of Commodore Dewey's brilliant stroke at Manila is the instant revelation which it forced of Spain's internal weakness and political instability. The necessity of putting Madrid and other points of the country under martial law; the unchained passions and tumult of the Cortes; the rumors of a change of ministry, possibly of a change of dynasty—these are blows to Spain no less crushing in their moral effect than that delivered at the Philippines by our quiet but daring and successful Commodore. The Madrid *Liberal* has already begun to discuss the kind of government necessary for "the Spain of the future, if," it says, "God has decreed that ancient Spain shall fall." It is well if leading minds in Spain are already turning to this problem. "Ancient Spain" has already fallen. The threatened loss of all her colonies is only an outward revelation of the inward decay which had made the fall and the loss inevitable. For some years it has been an open question if Spain has not been more weakened than strengthened by her colonial possessions. The Philippines have been a source of wealth, though not one-tenth what England would have made them produce; but insurrection has been chronic there, and the vast sums spent and stolen of late years in the islands have made the account a losing one for Spain. Cuba is obviously a millstone around her neck; Spaniards have long confessed this privately. Porto Rico has been less troublesome because less important. Spain, if stripped of all these foreign dependencies, might conceivably pull herself together and enter upon a new era of stability and prosperity in the peninsula. Her territory there is a splendid one for a great nation, rich and varied as it is, within its encompassing seas. Her population is hardy and homogeneous, and only needs a good government in order to become wealthy and strong. But the elements of a good and lasting government are precisely the things which, as the *Liberal* confesses, are nowhere visible in Spain to-day.

All the accounts received from Manila agree in representing the Spanish officers and soldiers as brave to the point of rashness and even of desperation. They must have known that they had no chances of success, and very little chance of life, yet they went into the battle without the least sign of flinching. Their ships were a slaughter-pen from the first fire, while ours were exposed to more danger from the heat of the weather than from the shot and shell of the enemy. The only life lost on the American side was from sunstroke. This detracts nothing from the valor of Commodore Dewey and his subordinates, while it adds much to their reputation for prudence and foresight. The art of war consists in doing the greatest possible damage to the enemy with the least possible injury to one's self. Gauged by this rule, Commodore Dewey's feat is almost without parallel. His humanity after the action was equal to his bravery and skill in it. The wounded Spaniards received all the attention that his own men would have had if they had received the same hurts. Now, why should not we extend our sympathies to these brave men, and to those who mourn for them and their dead fellow-heroes across the water?

Spain's unpreparedness for war, because she believed war would not come, was confessed by Minister Moret in his speech in the Cortes last week. Surely never was a nation less ready for the appeal to the sword. With finances toppling, with a government uncertain what a day might bring forth, with an army at home in open discontent and in Cuba depleted by terrible losses, with the fleet poorly equipped and poorly drilled, Spain yet fronted war in the spirit of the sad remark made by a prominent Spanish public man to Benoist, "We do not know how to govern or to organize in peace or war, but we know how to die." The ineffective valor of the Spanish sailors at Manila deserves the plaudits it has received. Caught unprepared in a way that seems to argue almost criminal negligence on the part of the Spanish Admiral—it is asserted that his ships had not even steam up—the men fought with a bravery that nothing but death could quench.

The forecast of a speedy reconstruction of the Spanish cabinet is likely to prove correct. Sagasta's ministry was not considered a strong one, even at the time it was announced. His Minister for Foreign Affairs was not well known; his Minister of Finance did not command the confidence that Gamazo, for example, would have enjoyed. His cabinet was, in fact, distinctly made up for the one great purpose of establishing autonomy in Cuba, and so averting a war with the United States. That aim having failed, it is not strange that the ministry should be counted a failure. Any readjustment that may be made will be only temporary, looking to a strengthening on the military side and to conciliating national sentiment, and intended to last the war through if possible. After that, Spaniards themselves cannot guess what will happen, but appear to be shrugging their shoulders and comforting themselves with their favorite proverb, "To-morrow will be another day."

One of the extraordinary things about the Spanish government of the Philippine Islands has been its strongly marked ecclesiastical character. The prominence of the friars as practically civil governors as well as religious leaders has been remarkable. It has not been altogether pleasant for the friars. They have been the object of the intensest hatred by the natives, and have been the first ones to be killed in insurrections. Missionaries in other lands have often suffered from the violence of natives, but never elsewhere, we believe, has there been such marked and inveterate hostility against Christian teachers in a pagan land as in the Philippines. This has sprung, of course, from the identification of the religious with the civil government in the minds of the natives. Even at Madrid, in the office of the Minister for the Colonies, the most powerful personages in waiting are ecclesiastics. M. Charles Benoist describes the way in which one desiring to get a hearing from the Minister had to run the gauntlet of rows of bishops and cardinals and friars.

We have been imitating, as closely as possible, the old Spanish methods in filling our embassies and consulates. We are now, perhaps, at last, on the eve of having colonies, a consummation for which our politicians have been longing for many a day. We have formed no plan for their government. There is no sign that we know of that any public man has ever bestowed a thought on the subject. In the midst of war it would be difficult to get the problem even discussed. But the crisis is nearly upon us. We shall probably be fitted out with a full line of colonies before the summer is over. Well, how are they to be governed? We have not a particle of doubt that most of our politicians look forward to governing them in the old way, through the Quays, through the Forakers, through the Gallingers, through the Lodges, through the Masons, and so on. We shall enter on our colonial career with a fine stock of corrupt practices, already got up for home use. If we go any further in that direction in our new career, we cannot do better than send over a congressional commission to find out how the Spanish politicians "made their pile" when they were let loose on the South Americans, on the Cubans, and on the Philippines, or whatever they are called. If so, Quay ought

to be the first Governor of the Philippines, and Lodge ought to show the Cubans how to "run the machine." This will give us a glorious colonial, but thoroughly Spanish, future.

Coincidently with the determination, now announced at Washington, to land 60,000 men of all arms in Cuba as soon as may be, comes news from the island which shows why such a decision was necessary. The insurgents are found to be more of the nature of men in buckram than was dreamed of at Washington. Gomez is in immediate command of less than 200 men, and has not more than 3,500 within call. But if they were all brought together in one army, it would simply starve before it could ever come to close quarters with the enemy. The only chance of the insurgents is to maintain themselves in widely scattered bands of small numbers. They could not feed an army of 3,000 men for a single day. This Gomez himself admits. What he asks of the United States is more arms, and, above all, rations. Without food and a commissariat, the arms might as well not be sent. The old General says that if we will arm him and feed him and give him time—a good deal of the latter—he will yet drive the Spanish into the sea. He wishes to do this with his own right arm, being distinctly cool over the proposal to aid him with United States troops. Gomez has a natural ambition to remain in chief command, with an eye both to his fame and the good things that may come after the war. So he sends word to Washington not to expose precious American lives to the deadly Cuban climate, but to supply him with all he needs and wait a year or so to see him finish the business.

But the President's military advisers have apparently concluded that this is nonsense. It is our war, and we must depend upon ourselves to conduct it. So the first plan of landing a small expedition, to seize and hold a base, and to get into touch with the insurgents, while rushing in supplies to the reconcentrados, has been abandoned. It was humanitarian, but it was not war. It bordered on the ridiculous, moreover, to be starving with one hand, through the blockade, and feeding with the other, by sending in provisions which the Spaniards were almost certain to capture. So now, we are told, there is to be aggressive military action, on a large scale, with the aim of promptly expelling the Spaniards from Cuba. Gomez's picture of the American army destroyed by yellow fever is held to be exaggerated. Competent army surgeons say that sanitary conditions in camp will reduce this danger to a minimum, which is probably true. But, at any rate, the insurgents are to be practically ignored, and we are to send men enough to do the work in hand. This is an awful blow to Gomez, the Cuban republic and Cuban bondholders.

There is little fault to be found with the President's selections for the volunteer generalships, announced last week, particularly in view of the tremendous pressure exerted upon him by politicians and the Governors of many States to appoint place-hunters, well brought out by Gen. Miles's remarkable telegram to Col. John S. Mosby: "I should be glad to have your services, but think it will require some influence. Suggest that you communicate with your Senator." It will be particularly pleasing to the army to realize that, with the exception of four major-generalships, all the coveted appointments have gone to regular officers, who have earned them, as everybody must admit, by years of faithful, arduous, and unappreciated service in barrack, camp, and field, and in many a hard-fought Indian battle. Even the civilian appointees have excellent war-time records to justify choice of them. There is general satisfaction with the course of the President in dividing his four appointments as major-general equally between men who served with distinction in the Union and in the Confederate armies during the civil war. It was not until the 31st of March, 1896, that the way was opened for President McKinley legally to nominate Fitzhugh Lee and Joseph Wheeler as major-generals in the army.

That war upsets all existing conditions, even about matters outside its sphere, is illustrated by the new developments regarding the annexation of Hawaii. This proposition was fully discussed in time of peace, and was practically defeated. The scheme of carrying it by treaty was abandoned because a two-thirds vote could not be secured in the Senate, and everything indicated that a joint resolution could not command a majority in the House. In short, annexation was beaten a month ago. But all authorities at Washington now say that it is likely to carry within a very short time. The only reason assigned for the change is that the war with Spain over Cuba makes it necessary for us to acquire these islands in the Pacific in order to have a coaling station and base of supplies. This is absurd, for in the first place we already have the right to establish a coaling station at Pearl Harbor, and, in the second place, there are no Spanish vessels left anywhere in the Pacific Ocean to worry about. The truth about the matter is very well put by the Philadelphia *Ledger* when it says that to annex Hawaii under the present circumstances "would be a plain notice to the Powers that we have branched off into the policy of colonization, which has been religiously abstained from heretofore, and which is so contrary to the teachings, and heedless of the warnings, of the fathers of the country"; and that it would be "followed logically by the retention of Cuba, the Philippines, and Porto Rico, and the quartering upon the public Treasury of a huge military establishment in times of peace."

The question of an income tax came up in the Senate on Wednesday week in an unexpected way. There was pending a proposed amendment to the Constitution to provide for a vacancy in the office of President in case the person elected to that office should die before his inauguration. This is a contingency not hitherto provided for. The proposed amendment makes the Vice-President-elect the successor in that case, and provides that in case of the death of both President and Vice-President-elect before inauguration Congress may provide for filling the vacancy. When the amendment came up for consideration, Senator Mills offered a further amendment, providing that direct taxes need not be levied in proportion to the respective numbers of the inhabitants of the States, but may be assessed in the same manner as other taxes, duties, imposts, and excises. This means that an income tax may be levied by Congress in proportion to income, not in proportion to population. Mr. Hoar raised the objection that it was not germane to the subject before the Senate, and that it was calculated, if fastened as a rider on the pending amendment, to endanger the latter, and, indeed, to endanger both. He considered it a great subject, one engaging the thoughts of many of the most intelligent citizens of the country, and too important to be yoked with matter of an entirely different kind. In order that it might be taken up by itself and considered on its merits, he moved to lay Mr. Mills's amendment on the table. At the end of a half hour's debate this motion prevailed by a vote of 32 to 29. The vote was on party lines, except that Senator Caffrey voted in the affirmative.

It was evident from the course of the debate that some Republicans would have supported a resolution for an income-tax amendment to the Constitution if it had been offered by itself. Mr. Hoar did not say whether he would have done so or not, but he said he should be glad to have it brought before the Senate in a proper manner. Why Mr. Mills should have declined the request made to him by Mr. Hoar, and repeated by Mr. Chandler, to let the Senate vote upon it as a separate proposition, is not explainable on any other ground than that of politics. What the Democrats want to obtain is not so much an income tax as a public record that they favor it and

that the Republicans oppose it. If Mr. Mills had adopted the simple and rational advice tendered to him, to offer his amendment separately, it is not at all unlikely that it would have received a sufficient number of Republican votes to give it the requisite two-thirds majority, in which case it would probably pass the House also, as a war measure. But in that case it would no longer be an issue in national politics. It would go to the State Legislatures for ratification, and would cease to be available on the stump for the time being. It might give us a constitutional income tax, but that is only a secondary matter.

Some months ago it was rumored that the McKinley Administration was contemplating the removal of the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, in order to make way for a political favorite. This report called forth immediately such a storm of protest, in letters from the highest authorities in private life on questions of statistics, that the scheme was temporarily abandoned. There was sufficient reason for the protest. Mr. Worthington C. Ford, who succeeded to the office in 1893, found the bureau in something like a state of chaos. It is this bureau which collects, compiles, and prepares for publication those exceedingly important returns of the country's commerce, industry, and finance on which the future plans of merchants and financiers are based. The vital necessity for thorough and accurate work on such statistics is obvious, and thorough and accurate work can be done only by a trained statistician. The work of Mr. Ford was remarkably successful; the Government's statistics, previously regarded with much suspicion, became a recognized authority, and its publications rose at once to the rank of the publications of the British Board of Trade. Thoroughly impartial in his investigations, as becomes an expert statistician, Mr. Ford's assistance was invoked by Democratic and Republican Congresses alike, by the committee on the Wilson bill and the committee on the Dingley bill. The reputation of his work, meantime, had extended even to European circles, to the credit of our Government. Mr. Ford is now at last summarily removed, by a crafty violation of the civil-service law under whose shelter his office was long ago, and very properly, placed. Our readers will no doubt suppose that a Republican statistician of high repute is named as his successor. The country and its records will enjoy no such fortune. An obscure Washington newspaper correspondent, who has for some years shifted about from the employ of one paper to that of another, who is not known to possess the slightest knowledge of his future work, is the happy man. To any who desire to know the reason for this grotesque appointment, it may be explained that Mr. Austin compiled for the benefit of Mr. Hanna the protection "dodgers" sent out to voters by the Republican national committee in the campaign of 1896.

A report comes from Pittsburgh that Matt Quay and Chris Magee "have reached a definite understanding on the gubernatorial situation, which will go far toward controlling Pennsylvania politics during the next five years." The Philadelphia *Ledger*, which presents the report upon the authority of a Republican contemporary, does not vouch for its accuracy, but says that all the political conditions seem to establish its correctness. The revolt against Quay is serious enough to render it prudent for him to make alliances with party leaders, like Magee, who have been hostile to him. Moreover, so long ago as January, 1896, the boss proposed a compact with the Republican managers in Pittsburgh, the text of which became public and is now revived by Mr. Wanamaker. It was the most extraordinary proposition ever put down in black and white, among the conditions being that until 1900 "Mr. Quay is to have the absolute support of Allegheny County in State and national politics, and is to sustain through his friends all regular Republican nominees and the straight Republican organization"; that, if he shall be a candidate for Senator in 1899, he shall "have the united support of the Senators and members of the Legislature from Allegheny County"; that "in every other case his leadership is to be followed by united support in the Legislature and in national and State conventions, except where a bona-fide candidate appears in Allegheny County"; that State senatorships and other positions shall be apportioned according to a plan fully set forth; that the Republican candidate for Congress in the Pittsburgh district shall be named by the Magee element, without opposition from the other faction; and that "no legislation is to be had at Harrisburg the enactment of which will be to injure the character and business interests of the Pittsburgh parties hereto."

The only reason why the compact was not signed and sealed was that the parties could not finally agree upon the division of the plunder. The draft of a proposed agreement from which we have quoted was made in Pittsburgh, and the *Ledger* says that, "stringent as were the provisions of this proposition to make Quay the dominant power in the government and politics of Pennsylvania, it failed of realization because of his contention that it was not sufficiently stringent." Under the present conditions Quay may be willing to grant larger concessions to Magee, and Magee will doubtless be as ready now as then to make an alliance if he can get the terms he wants. The proposed agreement of two years ago was published in March, 1896, and Mr. Wanamaker says that "of all the papers in Pennsylvania that published this story of treachery, but one to my knowledge commented upon it adversely"—this exception being the Philadelphia *Ledger*. The *Ledger* is equally ready to denounce such bargain and sale now. It remains to be seen whether the party organs will be as silent in 1898 as in 1896.

The correspondence relating to Chinese affairs was laid before Parliament on April 23, and is confessed by the strongest supporters of the Government to be "not pleasant reading." It shows the most childlike and bland innocence on the part of Lord Salisbury in accepting every successive "assurance" of the Russian Government, and discovers Count Muravieff proceeding from one degree of cynical contempt for Great Britain to another. The chief interest of the papers relates, of course, to the terms on which Russia was to hold Port Arthur and Talienwan, and a little diary marking the steps by which the Russian Foreign Minister advanced to his object is instructive. The leading dates, with the "assurances" given Salisbury on each, are as follows:

December 23—Occupation of Port Arthur only temporary.
January 12—Above promise repeated.
January 19—No designs on Chinese territory.
January 27—Any ports acquired to be open.
February 9—No *written* assurances had been given.
March 9—Talienwan to be open. Port Arthur not to be fortified.
March 13—Port Arthur would be fortified, and not open.
March 16—"Formal assurance" that both ports would be open.
March 28—Only Talienwan to be open.
March 30—Adhered to earlier assurances.
April 3—Port Arthur not open. No *assurances* had been given.

Some of Count Muravieff's explanations of his backing and filling are delightful in their impudence. Salisbury had declared in the Lords that he had "written assurances" from Russia that both ports would be open. But the Russian Minister at once reminded him that the assurances were not written, and that whatever was written was not an assurance. He plaintively observed that "the ideas which I may have expressed very confidentially . . . ought never to have been interpreted as 'assurances.' It was evidently impossible for me to make the slightest engagement on this subject before the conclusion of the arrangements." One of his finest strokes was the remark that "respect for the sovereign rights of China" forbade any alteration in the status of Port Arthur—except handing it over to Russia! There may have been no assurances, but there was plenty of assurance. No wonder Salisbury flung over the whole negotiation in disgust, and seized Wei-hai-Wei so as to have something to show Parliament after having been so overreached.

DEMOCRATIC WAR MEASURES.

The Democrats in Congress, with a few honorable exceptions, insist that the war expenses shall be paid by the issue of new legal-tender notes and by "coining the seigniorage." These two things, although passing by different names, mean the same thing. Both of them provide for the issue of Government paper to pass into general circulation—paper which must be redeemed in gold at the demand of the holder. What the advocates of this plan really desire is that the paper so put out shall not be redeemed at all. It is not silver redemption that they want. They know that the Government has no silver dollars to redeem such notes with. Moreover, Mr. Bland said in his speech, when he proposed the greenback amendment to the revenue bill, that the word "coin" as now interpreted meant gold coin or its equivalent, and for that reason he and his friends were utterly opposed to the issue of bonds payable in coin. The conclusion is inevitable that they want to have so much Government paper put out that it cannot be redeemed at all. This is their unavowed programme for carrying on the war.

Their avowed purpose was set forth by Mr. Bailey of Texas in his speech in opposition to the bill on the 27th of April. He said, first, in reference to the proposed new taxes, that he would vote for them if the Republicans would add an income tax. Then, if money were wanted for immediate necessities, before the new taxes could be made productive, he said:

> "We have an asset in the Treasury of more than $42,000,000, which we will place at your disposal. We will not only direct the Secretary of the Treasury to coin the seigniorage into silver dollars, but we will authorize him to anticipate that coinage by issuing silver certificates to defray the expenses as they are incurred. If that is not sufficient—and according to your estimate it will not be—we will go further, and we will authorize the Secretary of the Treasury to provide the balance of the $100,000,000 which you say is immediately necessary by issuing $58,000,000 of United States legal-tender notes. There is no man who doubts that this government can with perfect safety extend its circulation $58,000,000. I am as far from believing in fiatism as anybody in this House; I have never subscribed to the doctrine that Congress can make something out of nothing; but I know that this government, in a time like this, can easily and safely increase its demand notes $58,000,000, and there is not a gentleman on the other side who would be willing to assert the contrary."

Such assertions are liable to gain currency and credit by force of impudence, and for this reason they need to be met at the very outset. It is rather late in the history of nations, and of our own nation in particular, to propose fresh issues of Government paper as an instrumentality of war; but when party leaders solemnly advocate that policy, not as a matter of necessity, but as a matter of choice and preference, they must be met and answered. Thirty-six years ago two Congresses were in session, one in Washington and one in Richmond, considering the question how to obtain means for carrying on war. Both of them, with extreme reluctance and under the plea of necessity, decided to issue Government notes for this purpose. The Washington Government notes were legal tender; those of the Richmond Government were not legal tender, but they entered into circulation, and since public opinion required that they should be accepted in trade, they were practically legal tender. Both began to depreciate as soon as issued. All creditors were required to take them at par. Consequently all such persons were defrauded of a part of their just dues. The loss fell most heavily on the soldiers themselves, whose pay, very small at best, was given to them in a currency of less value than the two governments had agreed to pay them. Prices of commodities rose. The two governments were obliged to pay higher and higher rates for arms, ammunition, food, clothing, horses, wagons, forage, ships; indeed, everything except wages. The cost of the war on the Union side was demonstrably increased more than $800,000,000 by this means. It would have been increased still more in the Confederacy had not the whole debt, both bonds and Treasury notes, been wiped out by the destruction of that government.

One would suppose that an experience of this kind, taking place within the memory of men still living, would suffice to condemn that method of providing means to carry on war. But Mr. Bailey says that he is not a believer in fiatism. He means that the country is capable of absorbing $100,000,000 more of fiat money without danger of being called on to redeem it. In other words, he realizes and admits that a greenback is not money, but a promise to pay money—that the note put out to-day may be presented for redemption to-morrow, and that if not redeemed the holder is a loser, the Government's credit is impaired, prices of commodities begin to rise, and that we begin to travel the road which both the Union and the Confederacy began to travel in 1862. His expectation, however, is that none of those notes would be presented for redemption. That is what his scheme of finance rests on—the belief that the public will accept this new paper in addition to what they now hold, and not ask the Government to redeem any of it. What would happen if they should take a different view he does not say. He asks us to entertain full confidence that he is right. As no responsibility rests on him in the premises, he can safely and cheaply do so. But his opponents are carrying on a war which he is only looking at. They are charged with the task of keeping the public credit good as well as putting down the enemy. Indeed, their ability to do the latter depends upon their success in the former rôle. There can be no war without the sinews of war. Under Bailey's cool and irresponsible way of looking at things, the holders of the Government's demand notes might begin to present them for redemption at any time; Congress might not then be in session, or, if in session, might not consider redemption advisable or necessary; the Treasury might suspend specie payments, and the road of 1862-'65 might be travelled over again. We have not the smallest doubt that the issuing of new demand notes at this time would precipitate a run on the Government for gold and would lead to an early suspension. We have no doubt that this is what Bailey and his party friends desire and intend, and that this is what they hope to bring to pass in one way or another.

THE SCARCITY OF WHEAT.

Rise in the price of grain, on the outbreak of a war, is one of the most familiar phenomena of trade; therefore, few people were surprised when the wheat market began to advance with some violence last month, immediately before and after our rupture with the Spanish Government. What did, however, surprise many people who had not kept close track of the world's current grain statistics, was the failure of the market to decline again after Commodore Dewey's victory, when sentiment rather generally rushed to the conclusion that the Spanish war would certainly be short.

Not only would such reaction have been natural, if the advance had been occasioned wholly by the war, but it had already penetrated the minds of most people that in this war the influences which sometimes make wheat dear in such a contest could not operate. Grain may advance, on the outbreak of a war, through belief in a possible blockade of grain-producing states, or misgiving that their grain-carrying ships may be plundered by the enemy. Such expectation would, of course, lead foreign importers to increase their orders for quick delivery of wheat, and thus advance the price. But the notion of a blockade of the United States coast by Spain was immediately seen to be absurd. Moreover, our grain is sent to Europe in neutral bottoms, and is, consequently, exempt from capture. It might, therefore, have been imagined that if the "war argument" alone were forcing up the price of wheat, a little reasonable afterthought would start the market moving in the opposite direction.

Nothing of the sort happened. Taking as a measure the cash price of wheat for immediate delivery at New York, we shall find that it actually fell nearly five cents a bushel between the day of the *Maine* explosion and the close of March, that it rose 13 cents before the outbreak of hostilities, advanced some 8 cents further between the departure of our Atlantic fleet and the victory at Ma-

nila, and then, instead of yielding after the Spanish overthrow in the Philippines, started last week on a fresh and exceedingly violent advance, which brought the price by Tuesday of this week from the $1.26½ per bushel of April 30 to the extraordinary figure of $1.93.

On the market for wheat contracts deliverable in May, the advance was equally violent, and the price has touched $1.90 in Chicago, the highest record since a speculative "corner" brought it to two dollars in September, 1888, and with that exception the highest since 1877, before the resumption of specie payments. That our non-commercial readers may not suppose this recent extraordinary movement to be a matter outside their own concern, it may be worth while to add that, in consequence of the steady rise in wheat, flour is selling this week on the wholesale markets two dollars and a half a barrel above the price of a month ago, and three dollars and a half above its price a year ago this month. That they may not suppose the movement to be a matter of concern to the United States alone, attention may be further called to the fact that recent mob uprisings in the peninsula, which may play an important part in the Spanish-American controversy, partake quite as much of the nature of "bread riots" as of a popular revolt against an unsuccessful war ministry.

The undoubted truth of the matter is, that the so-called "war scare" in the wheat market has played this season an infinitely less important part than the extraordinary situation of the world's grain-producers. The deficient foreign harvests of 1896, followed by the partial or complete crop failures of last year in France, Austria, India, Argentina, and Australasia, left the consuming world necessarily with a very small margin of supplies in storehouse wherewith to tide over the interval until another harvest. The world's total wheat crop of 1897, as estimated by commercial experts, fell short more than a hundred million bushels of providing enough of new supplies to meet the average annual needs of wheat-consumers. The inevitable result was that the so-called "visible supply" in home and foreign granaries was drawn down to the smallest volume in a generation.

The price advanced to a higher steady level, and the advance drew into market a good part of those secondary supplies known to the wheat market as the "farm reserves." In particular, demand increased abnormally for export wheat from the United States, which had the extraordinary fortune, last year, of raising one of the largest wheat crops in its history, in the face of the extreme European scarcity. Usually, our export of grain slackens in the spring. But during April our wheat exports rose to a magnitude quite unexampled for the season. The weekly estimated shipments from this country last month were double or treble the average shipments of the same weeks during the past dozen years; week before last, for instance, the estimate was 4,160,000 bushels, against only 1,155,886 in the closing week of April, 1897, and 2,773,000 even in 1894. In March the country shipped abroad, by the returns of the Bureau of Statistics, very nearly twice as many bushels, in wheat and flour, as it sent out in the same month of 1897. The question began to be asked, with some uneasiness, how long even the heavy surplus left over from last year's wheat crop in the United States could continue to supply the needs of Europe. The Indian and South American crop, which is harvested between November and April, has this year again turned out disappointing. Our own winter-sown wheat and the crop of Southern Europe do not move until June, and meantime, on top of the almost or quite unprecedented volume of wheat exports from this country thus far in the season, the American visible supply has within a fortnight been shrinking at the rate of more than three million bushels weekly. Under the circumstances, it is not surprising that the mere suggestion, however illogical, of a war blockade of American supplies, should have started an advance in wheat prices which gathered force as it continued, and which was not checked even when the "war scare" itself was dissipated.

We shall not undertake any prediction as to the probable course of wheat prices during this extremely interesting interval before the new crop of 1898 is harvested. To judge such probabilities with any accuracy the exact size of last year's American harvest must be known, and, unfortunately, all the estimates in that regard are more or less discredited. The forecasts of our growing crops, on the other hand, are a matter of unusual interest. That a very much larger acreage should have been planted by our wheat-farmers—14 per cent. increase is estimated—is certainly not surprising, in view of the high level of prices now so long maintained by the wheat markets. It is gratifying on all accounts to observe also, from current commercial estimates, that the promise of the American crop is at the moment decidedly better even than it was at this time a year ago. While it is highly improbable that any such shortage of new supplies could exist as that of 1897, it is at the same time pretty certain that the demand from European wheat-importers will continue very heavy. The London *Mark Lane Express*, a recognized authority in the grain trade, lately published a summary of the world's crop as ascertained for 1897 and estimated for 1898. There is room for wide misjudgment in such estimate; but, taking it as it stands, our authority reckons that while the world's crop of 1897 fell short some 132,000,000 bushels of actual consumers' wants, the crop of 1898, at the present outlook, will exceed such annual needs by only 68,000,000 bushels. In other words, the normal excess supply in storehouse would not, on this reckoning, be restored, even at the close of 1898.

PRIVATE PROPERTY IN WAR.

Lord Russell, in his address before the American Bar Association in 1896, paid our statesmen and jurists a high but not undeserved compliment when he declared that it was largely due to their policy and moral influence that the horrors of war had been mitigated and the area of its consequential evils narrowed. We were so fortunate as to have in Europe as diplomatic agents, when our first treaties were negotiated, some of the most liberal-minded men that this country had then or has since produced. It is to them—notably to Benjamin Franklin and Thomas Jefferson—that we owe the incorporation into our early treaties of certain principles which, as Washington justly said, marked a new era in negotiation. Pointing out the harmonizing influences which had been in operation in the field of international law for centuries, they insisted that this law should go on improving.

The maxim mentioned in the treaty of Utrecht of 1713—that free ships make free goods—which during our Revolution was supported by force of arms on the part of Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and Holland, found in them hearty advocates, and Franklin's prediction that it would become the law of nations was practically realized in 1856, in the well-known Declaration of Paris. Not stopping with this, they urged that in time of war merchant vessels of the enemy, exchanging the necessaries and conveniences of life, should not be disturbed, and that even contraband of war, when taken, should be paid for. We have already shown that they included in the treaty of 1785 with Prussia the proposition that private property should be exempt from capture in case of war between the two Powers. This rule, though not meeting with a favorable reception in every quarter, and having now, perhaps, but a small prospect of general acceptance, was qualifiedly observed by Austria in 1866, and absolutely by Prussia in her war of 1870; and when it was agreed to in our treaty of 1871 with Italy, President Grant informed Congress with undisguised pleasure that it was one which the United States had spared no opportunity of incorporating into the obligations of nations.

Unfortunately, we have no such compact with Spain, and as the State Department cannot control the adjudications of prize courts, this noble principle, which should be considered unalterable and not dependent upon any momentary

interests, will doubtless be held as naught during the present war.

As to contraband of war, it may be said that the rule of nations should never be altered so as to allow its introduction into hostile ports. By excluding such aid the enemy is sooner reduced. By allowing it the neutral, as Mr. Manning well says, would have the power to injure a belligerent which he would not possess if he were an enemy. But is there any necessity for the confiscation of such goods? Franklin thought there was none, and he and his associates in the treaty with Prussia made an agreement on the subject which has been regarded as among the curiosities of diplomatic negotiation. By its provisions military stores and other contraband of war were not to be confiscated and condemned, but the vessels and articles might be stopped, the captor paying a reasonable compensation for the loss which the owners might thereby suffer. Or if the captor chose to do so, he could use the stores so retained, paying the owners their full valuation at the place of their destination. On the other hand, the master of the detained vessel was allowed by this treaty to proceed on his voyage if he would deliver over to the captor whatever articles were supposed to be of contraband nature. Klüber contends that this provision is really a part of the international code of Europe, but it would seem that the authorities are clearly against him.

This liberal article in our first treaty with Prussia has been adhered to in all subsequent agreements with that government, and is operative between the two countries to-day. It does not seem to be such a startling innovation when it is remembered that the ancient law of Europe, which made the ship itself liable to confiscation for carrying contraband, had already in Franklin's time been relaxed. In the treaty between England and France at Utrecht in 1713 not only was the vessel saved from confiscation, but the doctrine that the rest of the cargo was *infected* by the prohibited goods was abandoned. Of course, in the absence of treaty stipulations, the law undoubtedly is that the owner of the contraband loses also whatever interest he may have in the rest of the cargo or in the ship. In the treaty of 1778 with France, negotiated by Franklin, Deane, and Lee, this penalty, however, as was to have been expected, was expressly denounced, and it was further agreed that if the commander of the ship would deliver up the contraband goods, the captor should immediately discharge the ship and allow her to prosecute the voyage. In case all the contraband merchandise could not be received on board the vessel of the captor, he was allowed to carry the ship into the nearest port for adjudication. The manner of ascertaining the presence of contraband was by means of the exhibition of certificates. The breaking up of hatches and opening of chests and casks were forbidden. John Adams made a similar treaty with the Netherlands in 1782, and Franklin with Sweden in 1783. This provision was retained in our treaty of 1816 with Sweden-Norway.

So far as the countries of this hemisphere are concerned, the rule seems to be that all merchandise not included in the articles of contraband, which are always explicitly enumerated in the treaties between the United States and the other American governments, may be freely carried to belligerent ports, except those besieged or blockaded, and that in no case is a vessel of any of these nations allowed to be detained on the high seas on account of having on board articles of contraband, whenever its captain will deliver up such articles to the captor, unless, indeed, their quantity be so great or of so large a bulk that they cannot be received on board without great inconvenience, in which case the vessel may be sent to the nearest port for trial. We have treaties containing this provision with Bolivia, Brazil, Central America, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Guatemala, Hayti, Mexico, Peru, San Salvador, and Venezuela. They are founded, as will be seen, on one of the clauses of the Prussian treaty, advocated by Franklin and Jefferson, and are intended to encourage the greatest possible freedom of commerce in time of war.

PERIL TO FOREST RESERVES.

It will be an unspeakable pity if, under the overshadowing influence of the war, Congress shall consent to abolish the new forest reserves created by proclamation of President Cleveland on February 22, 1897, yet this is likely to happen unless vigorous protest is made at once.

These reserves, it will be remembered, were designated in accordance with the recommendation of the Forest Commission of 1896, appointed at the request of the Secretary of the Interior by the National Academy of Sciences, and consisting of Prof. Charles S. Sargent, chairman; Prof. Wolcott Gibbs, ex officio; Alexander Agassiz, Prof. W. H. Brewer, Gen. Henry L. Abbott, U. S. A. (retired); Arnold Hague of the Geological Survey, and Gifford Pinchot, practical forester. An appropriation of $25,000 was made by Congress for the travelling expenses of this commission in its study of forest problems, but the members served without salary, and a more competent and disinterested body it would be hard to find. The commission made an extensive and thorough inquiry, including a personal investigation of most of the territory involved, and promptly embodied its conclusions in a report which is a model public document, and of which the recommendation of the reserves was but a prominent incident, a first suggestion in the line of a large, conservative policy towards our disappearing forests. Congress is now asked to throw away all this money, time, and effort, and again to face about towards chaos.

In proclaiming these reserves President Cleveland simply carried forward the policy adopted by President Harrison. He added thirteen new reservations to the seventeen previously existing, raising the gross area from about 20,000,000 to 40,000,000 acres. Sixteen of the thirty reservations, embracing about 13,000,000 acres, were made by President Harrison; but the largest single one—the Cascade Range reserve—was made by President Cleveland early in his last term. The tracts embraced in his final proclamation were all on mountains except those in the extreme northern part of the West and those in a belt near the Pacific. Their uses would be of the utmost importance. In the interior reservations there is almost always a forest on a mountain and an agricultural region in the near foot-hills needing irrigation. This irrigation the mountain forests will give, and experience has shown that the water supply would be diminished 40 per cent. were the forests cut away. The forests on the reservations will not, as a rule, grow again when destroyed, and the Forest Commission has long been at work devising a careful plan for their preservation.

The purpose of the reservation system, be it remembered, is not to withdraw the reserved lands absolutely from occupation or use, but rather to increase their usefulness and productiveness and make them tributary to a large surrounding country; to minimize the destruction of our forest resources by fire or wasteful and unscientific cutting; to maintain and improve the timber industry by preparing for a permanent and continuous yield of forest products, developing new growths as the old trees are gradually removed; to protect the sources of water supply for the neighboring country, and for distant parts reached by rivers having their origin thereabout; and finally, by preventing the cutting of only the best timber and subsequent abandonment of the wooded lands, to encourage the bona-fide settlement of the contiguous agricultural sections, the abundance and cheapness of the local forest products being a great inducement. Much care has been taken, moreover, to avoid anything which should interfere with legitimate prospecting for minerals and development of mines.

Now Congress, under the inspiration of the opponents of a scientific forest-reservation scheme, threatens to step in and upset nearly all that has been accomplished by abolishing half of the total reserves. This is not attempted directly, but indirectly, by means of an amendment to the sundry civil bill. This

amendment, having been approved by the Senate and rejected by the House, is now in conference, and there is not the shadow of an excuse for yielding on the part of the House. Last summer, in deference to their claim that settlers and miners would be prevented by President Cleveland's proclamation from taking up valuable agricultural and mining land, that order (except so far as concerns California, which has had its eyes opened as to the value of forest reservation) was suspended by Congress until March 1, 1898, and the mineral land laws, we believe, have also been extended to the reservations. All these concessions having been made to "local sentiment," it is difficult to understand on what grounds the opposition can be based. It is rumored that the grievance of the radicals is that the surveys of the reserves have not yet been completed, but to abolish the reserves because of the necessity of rectifying the frontiers hereafter would be like burning down a barn to catch the rats.

George P. Marsh, in his admirable volume, 'Man and Nature,' which may be said to be a grammar of geographic modification, quotes a certain authority as saying that the deterioration of Spain from its position as a first-class Power was largely due to the reckless destruction of its forests, and adds: "I believe Spain is the only European land which has not made some public provision for the protection and restoration of the woods—the only country whose people systematically war upon the garden of God." It is over thirty years since Marsh in this volume warned us that we were rapidly approaching the time when the fate of Mediterranean countries would be ours. Would it not be a strange, sad comedy if Congress should at this time vote to return to the antiquated Spanish policy from which the Forest Commission bade fair to rescue us?

FRENCH PROGRESS.

The progress France is making along the line traced by the recent anti-Zola proceedings is really very remarkable. The whole Dreyfus affair seems, in fact, to have given a great stimulus to two closely allied things—intolerance and protection. The *Indépendance Belge* reports, through its Paris correspondent, that the anti-Semitic rage has penetrated even the dressmakers' work-rooms. He says there are two leading dressmakers or milliners in Paris, one of whom employs mostly Catholics, and the other mainly Jewesses. The one employing the Jewesses called her hands together the other day, told them she could no longer have Jewesses on her premises, and discharged twelve of them. The discharged girls then went to a Jewess who employs Catholics, and she promptly discharged twelve Catholics to make way for the Jewesses. The Catholics then went and took the vacant places at the other shop. So the good work of spreading "the ideas of '89" goes on.

In Algeria, as we all know, there have been terrible anti-Semitic riots and some loss of life. The *Réveil Algérien*, commenting thereon, says that if war breaks out, there will be only one thing to do, "in order to produce a powerful moral effect and to reassure public opinion." That would be, when the announcement of the beginning of hostilities was made, "to put Zola, Clémenceau, Labori [Zola's counsel], Rothschild, and all the principal Jews of the French republic, up against a wall and lodge twelve balls in each of their carcasses."

Side by side with this comes a fresh and furious outbreak of protectionist feeling. A certain M. Adrien Melville writes to the *Éclair* that on the Ivory Coast the French whites cannot any longer put up with the competition of the blacks. It appears that the blacks are displaying an outrageous aptitude for trade directly with Europe, without the intervention of French merchants, which constitutes, he says, a "real danger." A number of blacks, he observes, now possess small steamers employed in trade, with their own colors flying at the masthead, and during a recent visit to Assinie he had received a call from a black who, in nine years, had made three millions of francs dealing in mahogany. "Think of this, dear countrymen," says he. He goes on to argue in favor of differential duties on English goods, which, he intimates, are bothering the French colonists a good deal. The *Journal des Économistes* contrasts this with the English practice of throwing open the trade of their colonies to all the world. It points out also that this French practice of closing colonies to foreigners makes it the interest of all the white merchants of Europe, and of all the yellow races of Asia, to desire the extension of English dominion, to the detriment of that of France.

Along with all this came the demand in the Chambers, before their adjournment, for more duty on lead to protect still further the one French lead mine, and on all products of industry into which lead enters. There was also a demand for increased duty on silk, but only for the benefit of those manufacturers who employ French labor exclusively. A society called the "Association of French Industry and Agriculture" had a meeting recently, at which a series of what the French call "vœux," or demands, invited, first, a protest against the McKinley tariff, with additional duties on American goods coming into Madagascar; next looked for more duty on raw silk, and again for more duty on ships built abroad; protested against any reduction in the duty on linens; suggested more duty on American cotton oils and oleaginous grain, and a rise in the duty on horses; and, finally, denounced any international conference on the beet-sugar bounties. The French "Société des Agriculteurs" has also demanded that the teaching of free trade in the colleges should be prohibited, and that the public instruction should thus be made to accord with public policy as expressed in legislation.

All this indicates a lamentable retrogression from the earlier days of popular government in France, and it is difficult not to ascribe it all to the same cause—the spirit of hostility to foreigners bred by the late war, the consequent rise of the army into overmastering importance, and the decline of civil interests and considerations. What the Dreyfus affair has revealed is, that the army really rules the state, that none of the existing statesmen dare to gainsay it, and that the phrase "chose jugée" really means the will of the generals in command. It is not now denied that Dreyfus never saw the document on which he was convicted, and that, if the War Department said he ought not to see it, this was enough to satisfy the claims of justice. Asking for such a doctrine as this the respect which ought, in a constitutional country, to be accorded to the *res adjudicata*, is a sure sign that the famous "principles of '89" have lost their old place in the popular mind. Such is the usual result of love of war and prolonged preparation for war in a free country. The story is so old and well known that it seems almost absurd to recall it. The Dreyfus trial, with its acceptance by the public as fair and just, is the most significant thing which has occurred in France since the overthrow of Napoleon—more significant by far than the acceptance of the Third Empire by popular vote. That vote was made under the terror of anarchy. The attack on Dreyfus occurred in the midst of republican peace, and yet it was characterized by the same bigotry and ferocity as the Calas case in the middle of the last century.

THE AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY.

May 6, 1898.

The tragic death of Georg Bühler had not yet been published when the Oriental Society held its annual meeting at Hartford, last month. One of the duties inseparable from each foregathering of the Society is to tell the tale of those who have died since the last reunion. On this occasion there were very few to commemorate, and when the short record was read and the names of Dr. Drisler and Dr. J. H. Trumbull, both of whom had been corporate members for forty years, had been fittingly recalled, it was not supposed that there remained still unmentioned another name, already, in fact, removed from the roll of those whom the Society is proud to have upon its list of honorary members. But only a few days before this, Georg Bühler, the genial and highly endowed professor of Sanskrit in the University of Vienna, had been drowned; a fate that recalls the death of Bergaigne, the brilliant French Sanskritist, who perished

in a glacier ten years ago. Both were men of rare ability, and both died just when the world expected most of them. Bergaigne was only fifty, but his exegesis of the Veda had placed him in the front rank of Sanskrit scholarship. Bühler was just sixty, and, despite the great amount of valuable work which he had done, that which he had at heart to do, and for which he had already laid the foundation in wide-reaching preliminary studies, promised to be the masterpiece of his life. This was nothing less than a history of India before the Mohammedan invasion, a work for which Bühler was peculiarly adapted, as is attested by the mass of material which he so easily controlled, not only on the side of literary records but elsewhere—material supplied by his studies in mediæval geography and his thorough knowledge of inscriptions. For many years he was the Commissioner of Education in the Gujarat district, and distinguished himself as official purchaser of manuscripts for the British Government. In Indian epigraphy he was easily first, and has left in his 'Grundriss' and 'Indian Studies' the invaluable results of that patient investigation, combined with acute insight, which makes the master scholar. The different provinces which his genius traversed were many. History and geography became the delight of his later years, but he has left behind him the evidence of his broad interest in all things pertaining to India in his 'Digest of Hindu Law,' and in his contributions to the body of legal literature translated in the 'Sacred Books of the East.' His death will be felt deeply, not only because of the loss to Sanskrit scholarship, but by many on account of the sincere personal friendship they entertained toward him. For he was not only a great scholar; he was a very broad-minded, whole-souled man, ever ready to render assistance in suggestive thought and material act, and the younger scholars on both sides of the Atlantic who will mourn truly for him are many in number.

It seems proper, as it is pleasant, to acknowledge this debt of learning and of kindliness before speaking of the regular meeting of the Society. But the meeting itself was not without features of unusual interest. For the first time an attempt was made to group the large number of papers presented in such a way that the general public might know in advance at which session to expect the most intelligible information. For it cannot be denied that many of the papers are too technical to interest any save specialists, and it seems a pity to admit the eager throng of outsiders, who are tempted to come to the meetings on the strength of their interest in things Oriental, and then have them yawn through the dreary lengths of statistics which some of the good members think necessary to present. So Friday afternoon, the middle session of the meeting, was set apart for the pious function of reading "papers of popular interest," and if the audience were not gratified it was not the fault of the scholars who labored to please them. Prof. Haupt's criticism of criticisms of the Polychrome Bible was intended to amuse as well as enlighten, and the able editor succeeded in both aims. The same scholar also contributed an interesting account of tattooing among the Semites, which he had recently written for the Folk-Lore Society. Prof. Bloomfield presented as his offering a plan for a proposed photographic reproduction of the unique and famous 'Pâippalâda Samhitâ,' and Prof. Lanman added to his list of learned essays a paper on Hindu lyric poetry, which seemed especially suitable to the exercises of this afternoon. That there might be few parts of the Orient neglected, the Rev. Mr. Blodget described the "Worship of Heaven and Earth by the Emperor of China," and Prof. Jackson expounded a new theory in regard to the death of Zoroaster. Perhaps the most "popular" paper, in tone, was that of Mr. Scott on the simple savage, though it contained as much thought as wit. But to describe all the general papers would leave little space to speak of the more special essays presented at the three other sessions.

One of these sessions, in accordance with the arrangement made at the last annual meeting, was devoted to papers on the history of religions. A new branch of the Society, called the Section for the Historical Study of Religions, has just been created, and some of the *Nation's* readers may be glad to know that any properly accredited person interested in the history of religions may join the section without becoming a member of the Society, though all members of the Society are *ipso facto* members of the section. Such members of the section pay a small annual fee, and in return receive such publications of the Society as have to do with the history of religions. One of the most important papers read at this session was contributed by Prof. Toy. It professed to be a mere notice of the newly published *Archiv für Religionswissenschaft*, but it was in reality an able critique of the "science of religion," in distinction from the history of religions, and was particularly well-timed in coming at the first session of the section.

The Society (for the whole Society attended the session of the section) was so interested in Prof. Jastrow's paper on "Adam and Eve in Babylonian Literature," that he was unanimously requested to exceed his proper time limit, that the Society might hear the whole essay. To permit this, some other papers had to be read "by title," to which decapitation their respective authors gladly consented; but this brought to the fore one of the distressing factors in a crowded annual meeting—the necessary suppression of many papers owing to the few hours actually at command. Even the sacrifice of three hours on the altar of "popular interest" really made little difference, for there were more papers presented than could possibly have been read in full. Next year the meeting, in view of this, will have one session more; but it looks at present as if, with the growing number of yearly papers, four days instead of the usual three will soon be required, if justice is to be done to the papers and to their writers. For one of the chief objects of the meeting, mutual friendly criticism, is entirely suppressed when papers are read in five-minute abstracts or shelved "by title." To the older scholars this is of little consequence, as they are generally willing enough to be heard in print alone, and rather look on the reading of a paper as a bore. But the new members who are young scholars, and are more subject to new theories, deserve and should get a hearing, if only that the elders may suggest, criticise, and encourage or discourage, as seems needful.

There were many papers read at the two general sessions devoted neither to religion nor to the public at large. Prof. Gottheil spoke on Syriac folk-medicine; Prof. Bloomfield made some remarks on the myth of Purûravas and Urvaçî; two young scholars and new members, Messrs. Gray and Remy, presented careful studies, on the metres of Bhartrihari and the equation "*jana* is *sana*," respectively; Prof. Haupt had a budget of papers, one on the Sumerian question and two on points of Semitic grammar; Prof. Hopkins contributed as many on Village Communities, the history of Hindu guilds, and epic diction; Prof. Jackson sketched the dramatic elements in Sanskrit plays, and made new Indo-Iranian contributions; Dr. Torrey located "Bethulia"; Prof. Oertel read a new paper on Brahmanical legends; and Prof. Lanman brought up fresh data in regard to the curious beliefs in milk-drinking swans and the efficacy of "walking the deasil." Prof. Macdonald, though his time must have been well taken up with his duties as "Committee of Arrangements," had found time to write on the religious attitude of Averroes and on Poe as an Orientalist. Other papers were by Prof. Ward, on Hittite art; by Prof. Prince, on prepositional usage in Assyrian; by Mr. Scott, on Polynesian words in English; while still others were presented by title or in abstract, their writers being absent. Altogether, there were more than fifty papers, ranging from mere notes to solid treatises.

The sessions naturally took up most of the members' time, nor did the weather favor excursions; so that Hartford, except for the street from the hotel to the Seminary, remained unseen. A complimentary reception in the Theological Seminary building, on Thursday, gave the members an opportunity to see the rare collection of Arabic manuscripts in the library and enjoy at the same time the bountiful kindness of the theological faculty. On Saturday afternoon, with a vote of thanks for the hospitality received, and for the exertions of the committee of arrangements, the Society dispersed, most of the members taking the train south, others leaving for Boston, where the next meeting, in April, 1899, will be held.

PICTURES IN LONDON.

LONDON, April 30, 1898.

That any one should have time to show pictures, or think of pictures, or write about pictures at a moment when war has been declared, and such tremendous national issues are at stake, seems on the face of it absurdly, almost wickedly incongruous. And yet it is curious to remember that it is to just such crises in the history of the past that we must look back to the greatest periods of art, and to the making of many of the masterpieces now preserved among a nation's treasures. To take but a single instance, but one especially appropriate at this juncture, have we not the "Lances" of Velasquez as a record of Spain's cruellest and most vindictive wars in the days of her might and power? And it is as curious to consider that while the wars have passed and gone, while the evils they brought in their train have been long since righted and forgotten, while incidents that were the most stirring and important at the time have become the dry facts of history or the myths of romance, the art alone has survived. Philip and Alva are now but names, but memories, but shadows. The picture of Velasquez is, and will be until the last bit of paint has faded or dropped from the canvas, a supreme possession not only for Spain, but for the whole world. It is no

wonder that there have been many men to believe that art is the one reality in life. Art alone lives, while the artists who created it, and all things with them, perish.

I am not sure, however, even if this truth justifies our interest in exhibitions opening in London at the very moment when newspaper posters are announcing the bombardment of Havana and the premature invasion of New York—in other words, that much in either the New Gallery or the Royal Academy is destined to outlive the generation that produced it. The painters are many, but the artists are few; and work fairly pleasant and often very skilful somehow seems more trivial than usual this spring. I have looked carefully through the two exhibitions, and I have found nothing really of vital importance, nothing to which one could imagine students in the future turning with delight and interest and profit, but the portraits by Mr. Sargent and an occasional landscape. Mr. Sargent, however, has never been seen in such force. He has no less than eight portraits at the Royal Academy, four at the New Gallery. Critics of late years have been pointing out the great gulf fixed, on the mere question of physical power, between the old masters, like Rubens, and the many moderns with whom one or two small paintings represent a fruitful year's work. But Mr. Sargent is not to be counted with these. And it is not only in the quantity of his productions that he towers over most of his contemporaries, but in quality—that is, in England. At the Champ de Mars he is not quite such a giant; and one always would like to see just how he would stand the test if his portraits were hung, say, in the National Gallery, side by side with those of Rembrandt, or Franz Hals, or Velasquez. One knows that at the Luxembourg the "Carmencita," in all the golden splendor of silk and lace, pales before the picture of the old lady in simple black gown against a quiet gray wall, that hangs opposite. But at the Royal Academy Mr. Sargent must be judged by Academic standards, and, thus judged, his triumph is complete.

His most striking, his most distinguished work this year is the portrait of a man, Mr. Wertheimer. His women are less successful, or certainly less original. In the case of the finest, the "Mrs. Thursley" of the New Gallery, beautiful as is his treatment of the gown—the very latest confection from Worth's, one would say—marvellous as is the vitality of the figure, one feels in the pose, in the very alertness of the lady who sits in one corner of the wide arm-chair, her dainty purple skirts wrapped tight about her crossed legs, the influence of M. Boldini, that was also but more faintly suggested in the Mrs. Myers of last year's Academy. And as M. Boldini has done this sort of thing so much better, one can but regret that Mr. Sargent has not been satisfied to remain simply himself. But there is no such fault to find with the "Asher Wertheimer, Esq." In this amazing portrait Mr. Sargent has been influenced by no one. He has seen the character of the man and has reproduced it in paint, relentlessly, uncompromisingly. Before you stands the rich, prosperous, powerful Jew, with all the mercantile genius and cunning of his race stamped upon the strange Eastern face. He holds a cigar in one hand; to his left you just see the head of a poodle, with great pink tongue lolling out, and for background there is a dark screen, with its folds lost in shadow. And you know not at which to marvel most: at the firm, free modelling of the face (as in the "Mrs. Thursley" the vitality of the figure), the wonderful way the dog's head is put in, the quality in the many blacks, or at the masterly portrayal of character. In his rendering of the faces of the two children in his "Mrs. Myers," Mr. Sargent showed that he too had felt the strange fascination the Hebrew type has had for so many painters. But the tentative suggestion of that picture has developed into perfect realization in the Mr. Wertheimer. There are two or three other portraits of men almost as good, but not one really to equal it, for in none other did his subject give him such a chance. I wish that Mr. Sargent would do for the commanders and generals of our navy and army what Velasquez did for those of Spain, and that some day we might have in Washington a series which, though they could not compete with the portraits of the Prado, would, like them, serve as a great record of great and stirring times.

After Mr. Sargent's, the other portraits pale, the other Academicians simply disappear; always excepting Mr. Orchardson, whose portraits invariably have a refinement and individuality that make them notable where so much is either feeble in its commonplace or vulgar in its attempt to force attention. The two most ambitious efforts are by Mr. Herkomer and Mr. Solomon, who have sought, on a large scale, to commemorate incidents of the Jubilee. But both have succeeded in missing the splendor and dignity of the pageant; each has given a dull, prosaic, photographic presentment of scenes that would have been a glorious inspiration to Veronese. It is a pity that the commission could not have been intrusted to Mr. Abbey, who certainly has genuine feeling for the beauty of color and composition; and, as I have so often said before, I think it a mistake for a painter to devote his powers to reviving a past about which he knows next to nothing, when the present, which he does know, affords him quite as fine opportunities. As it is, in Mr. Abbey's pictures—a "King Lear" at the Academy, a "Poet" at the New Gallery—we are all too conscious of the studio. His arrangement of models and costumes, excellent as it may be, savors of the stage rather than of life. He has been obliged to rely upon his own imagination for the court of King Lear; he could have seen for himself the Lord Mayor in gorgeous robes, mounted on a magnificent horse, surrounded by pompous officials, as he waited at Temple Bar to receive the Queen—the special moment in the day's spectacle chosen as motive by Mr. Solomon.

If from the portraits I turn to the landscapes that promise to be remembered when Cuba may be forgotten, I find but one among all the two thousand exhibits at the Royal Academy, the five hundred at the New Gallery. There are many excellently painted, many interesting as experiments, as impressions. But the only one that haunts you afterwards is Mr. Peppercorn's "Common." A "sublime creation" a London critic not too lavish with his praise has called it, and he scarcely exaggerates. There is a rolling stretch of green open land, with a clump of trees to the right, and a few sheep wandering under a gray, sombre sky. Nothing could be simpler, less sensational. But the painter has seen it as a whole—as a picture—not as a bewildering, restless collection of petty details. It is complete in its solemnity, its great peace. As powerful, though not with the same poetic charm, the same rhythmical harmony, is a picture called "The Harrow," by Mr. George Clausen, at the Royal Academy. There is in this a very beautifully suggested landscape, a wide expanse of brown and green fields, upon which lie broad lines of sunlight, under a brilliant blue cloud-swept sky. The landscape is simply a background; it is subordinated to the study, almost ugly in its beautiful brutality, of a big white horse. You can fancy people looking at it some day as we look now at Paul Potter's "Bull" at The Hague, wondering at its skill, marvelling still more that the painter should have wasted himself upon so uninspiring a theme. But in Mr. Clausen's picture there is a splendor of color and a beauty of light and atmosphere that saves it from the hopeless prose of the Dutchman.

These are the few pictures that stand out with anything like distinction, that can rouse a strong emotion. It seems paradoxical, therefore, to add that the general average of the Academy is higher than of old. And yet it must be so, for while Frenchmen like Bonnat and Carolus-Duran and Benjamin Constant, whose technical ability is beyond question, are among the exhibitors, their work passes all but unnoticed. But this fact only proves, as we have long since learned in the old Salon, that technical dexterity, essential as it must ever be, does not alone suffice to the artist. English painters are better trained than they used to be. That is all.

It is worth noting, too, that this higher average is attained without the aid of many of the more accomplished of the younger men. The Glasgow group, who have been so discourteously treated in the past by the Academy, have reserved their forces for the International Exhibition that opens in London early in May. Nor is so fine a landscape-painter as Mr. Peppercorn to be found at Burlington House, nor so able a portrait-painter as Mr. Furse. And so one might go on counting up notable omissions. For the rest, I shall content myself by saying that in the sculpture room there is a fine bust of Mr. Lionel Smythe, one of the new Associates by Mr. Gibert, and also some very charming enamels by Mr. and Mrs. Nelson Dawson; that the water-colors are as feeble and inconsequent as usual, and that nothing could be less representative than the black-and-white.

N. N.

Correspondence.

INDEMNITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A recent letter from Washington makes the statement that there is a strong feeling in Congress favoring the retention of the Philippine Islands by the United States after the close of the war. It is, of course, taken for granted that the close of the war will see the United States in a position to make its own terms.

It is of no use to object to Congress stultifying itself by announcing at the outbreak of the war the terms upon which it will consent to make peace, as the French so blatantly did in 1870, but it is not too soon to protest in the name of the national honor and national self-respect against any idea

or intention on the part of this country of profiting by a war undertaken avowedly in the cause of humanity, and for the purpose of delivering a weak and grievously wronged people from the hand of a cruel master.

Congress has openly and before the world disavowed all intention of exercising any form of sovereignty over Cuba after the Spanish troops shall have been withdrawn. If we expect our action in forcing the war to be approved by the nations of the world, and our motives to be vindicated in history, not only must this engagement be kept to the letter during all time, but also the honest and honorable corollary that, should we be victorious, as every American confidently expects that we shall, we must retire with absolutely clean hands, and, if need be, empty pockets, demanding no indemnity whether in gold or in territory; conscious of having acted a humane and manly part, of having won for a million and a half of our fellow-creatures the right to enjoy life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, and for ourselves no material advantage whatsoever.

It is true that Russia demanded a war indemnity from Turkey after the war of 1877-'78, undertaken, ostensibly at least, for reasons similar to those of the United States for bringing on the present war. Russia was the aggressor, as, rightly or wrongly, the United States is now the aggressor; but no number of precedents will convert an indefensible action into one which is high-minded and honorable.

A favorite illustration of the position of this country has been that of likening it to a man who sees his next-door neighbor beating his (the neighbor's) apprentice into a shapeless mass. If he were to interfere and rescue the apprentice from the brutal master, he would have the same right to demand recompense for a torn shirt or a broken arm gotten in the scuffle as the United States would have to claim an indemnity for its war expenses. If, instead of sending ships and troops to fight the Cuban battles, we should send the necessary millions in gold, should we have a claim upon Spain for repayment when Cuba became free?

Let us beware of placing ourselves in the position of doing a noble and generous act, and then demanding that a bankrupt and humbled enemy shall pay our expenses.

Very truly yours, J. H. K. BURGWIN.

PITTSBURGH, May 9, 1898.

OF PRAYERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of your recent criticism of the prayers offered in American churches for "the protection of our soldiers in the field," why do we never hear in our churches a prayer offered for Spain? She is our enemy, for she has refused to give up Cuba at our demand, and her citizens will send cargoes of merchandise over the sea, carrying her offensive flag, and her war-ships shoot cannon at ours when attacked. Prayer for enemies is one of the first of Christian duties. How can our clergymen reconcile it with their consciences, then, that they are not praying for Spain, that she may be forgiven for disobeying our mandate to relinquish her possessions in Cuba, and for using deadly weapons against those who are punishing her for this refusal and for the blowing up of the *Maine* by slaying her seamen and appropriating the private property of her citizens? Why are they not praying that she may repent of her crimes under the suffering which, as the instrument of Providence, we are reluctantly inflicting?

They are under the more urgent obligation to do so from the fact that the American Board has lately withdrawn its missionaries from Spain. We have no other means of contributing to the religious and moral welfare of this benighted people than our prayers offer, except, indeed, the example of Christian self-sacrifice which we set before them in waging this war—an example which only supernatural power will make their darkened minds appreciate. H.

ANDOVER, MASS., May 6, 1898.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You will, I hope, let me say how thoroughly your sensible position on this war question is appreciated by *some* non-fighting parsons, at least. The facility with which men allow themselves to be dragooned into compliance with the ravings of a corrupt press is, alas! one of the most discouraging and ominous signs of a sure moral decadence. To cheer for country, "right or wrong," is of a piece with cheering for *party*, "right or wrong"; and that is the partisan bane of our times.

I believe that a citizenship in the heavenly country has some precedence over even that in one's own country.

Yours, etc., JOHN H. CONVERSE.

RECTORY OF THE CHURCH OF THE MESSIAH, GWYNEDD, PA., May 7, 1898.

THE CASE OF THE *BUENAVENTURA*.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On April 20 President McKinley telegraphed an ultimatum to Spain demanding her withdrawal from Cuba, and an answer to this demand by noon of the 23d. Before the delivery of the ultimatum by our Minister in Madrid, the Spanish Government sent him his passports; notifying him at the same time that Spain considered the signature to the joint resolution of Congress "as equivalent to a declaration of war" (I have not the exact words at hand). On April 22 the Spanish vessel *Buenaventura* was captured by the *Nashville*. Whether this capture was illegal, on the ground that war did not exist at the time of the capture, is a question that must be decided by a prize court.

It was very wrong in the United States not to await the expiration of the sixty hours given by the ultimatum before authorizing any captures, because, until then, it could not be known whether, at the last moment, Spain would not decide to comply with the ultimatum. But the prize court should nevertheless hold that war had already commenced. All Spaniards are represented in the acts and declarations of their own Government, and, by her notification of April 21 to our Minister, Spain is estopped to deny that war existed on April 22, when the capture was made; and the owners of the vessel are bound by that estoppel.

FRANCIS J. LIPPITT.

WASHINGTON, May 8, 1898.

"FAKE" MAGAZINE ENTERPRISE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The May number of the *Cosmopolitan* contains an article entitled the "Autobiography of Napoleon Bonaparte." The article is prefaced with an editorial introduction which is carefully worded to convey the impression, while avoiding the explicit statement, that the manuscript which it is the purpose to publish was secretly sent by Napoleon from St. Helena to America in 1817, that it has been unknown during all the ensuing period, and is now to be published for the first time. It says the article and those to follow "purport" to be "The Autobiography of Napoleon Bonaparte, sent out secretly from St. Helena, brought to America in 1817, and, by a series of mischances, held in obscurity for eighty-one years." The editor comes dangerously near *suggestio falsi* in the statement that the autobiography is "unlike many old papers unearthed in modern times."

In a further editorial note in another part of the magazine—the article is of such importance as to justify two—the editor gives some account of the "autobiography," including the fact that "it had appeared mysteriously in London in 1817," but that "both the English and French Governments were interested in its suppression," and stating that "the matter was permitted to drop out of sight, . . . and it has so remained for three-quarters of a century." The regular publication of the manuscript is to commence next month, but, meanwhile, to whet the appetite of the reader, a section is now published, "which will," the editor says, "we feel sure, excite the intensest interest of students."

Language could scarcely come nearer stating explicitly that the manuscript is now about to be published for the first time. In 1817 there was published in New York by Van Winkle & Wiley, No. 3 Wall Street, a book with the title, 'Manuscript Transmitted from St. Helena, by an Unknown Channel. Translated from the French.' The foreword in this book is one that might appropriately accompany the first publication of such a manuscript; it comments upon the conjecture that it was written by Napoleon, and is strongly suggestive of the statements made by the editor of the *Cosmopolitan* eighty-one years later. While this book is apparently somewhat rare, a copy of it is in my own possession, and copies can undoubtedly be found in the libraries of many collectors of Napoleoniana. The section of the autobiography given is copied from this book, and the copy of the manuscript which "by chance recently came into the hands of the editor," is a copy of the book described. Lowndes, also, under "Napoleon I.," notes the publication in London in 1817 of a book under the title 'Manuscrit venu de St.-Hélène, d'une manière inconnue.' PLINY B. SMITH.

CHICAGO, May 1, 1898.

TENNYSON AND CATULLUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the new Memoir of Alfred, Lord Tennyson (vol. ii., p. 239), there is recorded a curious misquotation of one of the most familiar lines of Catullus. Mr. Gladstone had compared the poem "At Midnight," which was written as a preface to Charles (Tennyson) Turner's 'Collected Sonnets,' to Catullus's elegy on his brother, and the late Laureate replied:

"I am glad, too, that you are touched by my little prefatory poem, so far as to honour it by a comparison with those lovely lines, 'Multas per terras et multa per aequora

vectus,' of which, as you truly say, neither I nor any other 'can surpass the beauty'; nor can any modern elegy, so long as men retain the least hope in the after-life of those whom they loved, equal in pathos the desolation of that everlasting farewell, 'Atque in perpetuum frater ave atque vale.' "

This quotation from memory of the noble "Multas per *gentes*," etc., is the more interesting in view of Tennyson's lifelong admiration for Catullus, for which we have not only his own express statement in the Memoir (ii., 400), but also some scattered evidence in his poems.

The closing section of "Eleänore" is a free translation either of the "Ille mi par esse deo videtur" of Catullus, or of the ode of Sappho from which that poem was itself translated. The allusion in "Edwin Morris,"

> "Shall not Love to me,
> As in the Latin song I learnt at school,
> Sneeze out a full God-bless-you right and left?"

is to the charming love-idyll of Acme and Septimius,

> "Hoc ut dixit, Amor, sinistra ut ante,
> Dextra sternuit adprobationem."

The lines in "In Memoriam," lvii,

> "And 'Ave, Ave, Ave,' said
> 'Adieu, adieu,' for ever more,"

seem to be a reminiscence of "Atque in perpetuum, frater, ave atque vale," and Prof. Tyrrell has recently maintained ('Latin Poetry,' p. 115) that in the noble passage of "Tithonus," where the horses of the Sun

> "shake the darkness from their loosen'd manes,
> And *beat the twilight into flakes of fire*,"

Tennyson must have had in his mind the passage in the "Attis" where Catullus says of the rising Sun,

> "And he smote on the dim dawn's path with the hoofs of his fiery chariot-steeds"—

"pepulitque noctis umbras vegetis sonipedibus."

The metrical experiment entitled "Hendecasyllabics" is "all composed in a metre of Catullus"; the metre of the "Boädicea" is an echo of the metre of the "Attis"; and a great part of the "Jubilee Ode" is written in the metre of the "Collis O Heliconii."

In 1880 Tennyson visited Sirmio, the peninsula of Catullus, and there he made his "Frater Ave atque Vale." The "O venusta Sirmio" of this poem, the "Lydian laughter of the Garda Lake," and the "sweet Catullus's all-but-island" are quoted from the exquisite lines in which the ancient poet expressed the delight of his home-coming after his year's absence in Bithnyia; the "'Ave atque Vale' of the Poet's hopeless woe" refers to the pathetic invocation offered by Catullus at his brother's tomb in the Troad.

And lastly, to the "sweet Catullus" and the "tenderest of Roman poets" of the "Frater Ave atque Vale" we may add the dainty reference to the dainty "Lugete, O Veneres Cupidinesque," in "Poets and their Bibliographies," where Catullus is ranked as a lyrist above the "old popular Horace"—

> "And you, that wear a wreath of sweeter bay,
> Catullus, whose dead songster never dies."

WILFRED P. MUSTARD.

HAVERFORD COLLEGE, May 4, 1898.

COLLEGE DEBATES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It may be of interest to know that Mr. Ringwalt's suggestion in the *Nation* of April 28 for the removal of a difficulty in the judging of college debates has already been adopted by the Ohio Intercollegiate Debating League, composed of Oberlin College and Ohio State, Ohio Wesleyan, and Western Reserve Universities. The Constitution of the League provides that

"Each judge of a contest shall be furnished with a typewritten copy of the following form for his ballot: In my opinion, without reference to my views upon the merits of the question, the most effective debating has been done by the { affirmative. / negative."

Though the questions debated have been such as competent judges are sure to have definite opinions upon, there has been no complaint that decisions have been based upon the merits of the question rather than the merits of the debate. But, on the other hand, the objection has been raised that this method does not sharply enough distinguish the debate from the oratorical contest. There is danger that brilliancy of speech rather than soundness of argument shall win. However, it is believed that the difficulties arising from this source are not serious, and that this is, on the whole, the most satisfactory method. T. N. CARVER.

OBERLIN COLLEGE, April 29, 1898.

ZEUS AND JUPITER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the review of 'Historic Ornament' (*Nation*, No. 1910), you challenge the propriety of "treating Zeus indifferently under that name or as Jupiter"; but if there is one identification clear in Greco-Italian mythology, it is that, and we have it in Latin inscriptions demonstrated by the "Zeus Pater," especially in a vase of about 400 B. C., found at Falerii, with "Minerva" as the name of an evident Athena, "Cupido" in place of Eros, etc. The Saturnian family being Pelasgic, its gods belonged both to Greece and to Italy; Saturn typifying probably the Pelasgic migration located in Italy, where it developed its first great civilization, and Zeus the Pelasgi swarming out over the Greek lands and founding the great Mediterranean empire in Crete. But to question the absolute identity for all purposes of Zeus and Jupiter seems to me rash, no matter what may be said of the secondary gods, Neptune, Mars, etc., as to which I admit question.—Yours truly,

W. J. STILLMAN.

ROME, April 26, 1898.

Notes.

The Macmillan Co. announce 'The Hope of Immortality,' by the Rev. J. E. C. Welldon, Headmaster of Harrow School.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have in press for early publication Duruy's 'General History of the World,' revised and continued to date by Prof. E. A. Grosvenor of Amherst College, with twenty-five newly engraved colored maps; and 'The Modern Man and Maid,' by Sarah Grand.

A translation of Bull's 'Fridtjof Nansen,' by M. R. Barnard and Dr. P. Groth, is announced (with an eye to its use as supplementary reading in schools) by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

Close upon the appearance of a German 'Poole's Index' comes the announcement of D. Jordel's 'Répertoire Bibliographique des principales revues françaises, pour l'année 1897,' an author and subject-index of the contributions and original memoirs published in 142 French periodicals. The list seems quite comprehensive, including all sciences and such literary magazines as the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, *Monde Moderne*, *Cosmopolis*, and others. The book will be an octavo in double columns (Paris: Librairie Nilsson; New York: Lemcke & Buechner).

Much the most important work on the French historical horizon is an extensive History of France from the earliest times to the Revolution, under the editorship of Ernest Lavisse, of the French Academy, who has been laboring on it for the past eight years. It will be composed of sixteen volumes, the first containing a general introduction, from the pen of M. Lavisse, and a geographical introduction by M. Vidal de la Blache of the Superior Normal School. The second, devoted to ancient and Roman Gaul, will be by M. Bloch, also of the Normal School; the third, the Merovingian and Carlovingian periods, by M. Bayot, correspondent of the Institute; the fourth and fifth, feudal France, and the beginnings of the Capetian dynasty, by M. Luchaire, member of the Institute, and professor at the University of Paris; the sixth, France from the coming to the throne of St. Louis till the breaking out of the Hundred Years' War, by M. Langlois, professor at the Paris University; the seventh, France during the Hundred Years' War, by Prof. Coville of Lyons University; the eighth, France under Charles VII. and Louis XI., by M. Petit-Dutaillis, professor at Lille University; the ninth, France of the Renaissance, by M. Lemonnier of the Paris University; the tenth, France under the last Valois and Henry IV., and the eleventh, France under Louis XIII., by Prof. Mariéjol of Lyons University; the thirteenth, France under Louis XIV., till the year 1678, by M. Lavisse; the fourteenth, from 1678 till the death of Louis, by M. Lavisse and M. Rébelliau, Librarian of the Institute; the fifteenth, France under Louis XV., by Prof. Carré of Poitiers University; and the sixteenth, the reign of Louis XVI., by M. Lavisse and M. Carré. This *magnum opus* will be brought out by Hachette. The first volume of the series will be Lavisse's Louis XIV., and will appear next year. The others will come out in the order in which they happen to be finished, and the whole collection will be issued within the next four years.

A somewhat different series of French histories is that undertaken by M. Alfred Duquet—a complete account, in nearly a score of volumes, of the war of 1870-1871. He has divided the period into eight separate parts, portions of which have already appeared—two volumes on Metz, and seven volumes on the various episodes of the struggles in and around Paris. These volumes won from the French Academy this year the largest reward at its disposal, the Berger prize of 12,000 francs. M. Duquet is now busy on the final volume of the Paris group, which will describe the capitulation of the French and the entrance of the Germans. It will be ready at the end of this or the commencement of next year. Seven more volumes, none of which is begun, will still remain to be finished in order to complete the series. After this, M. Duquet assures his friends, if not dead he will write the history of the Commune.

Another French author, M. Edmond Le-

pelletier, is on the point of publishing an important book on this same Commune. The first volume, 'La Lutte,' will appear this spring. It is based wholly on original documents, personal recollections of events, and the authentic information of the author's friends and relatives. M. Lepelletier and his brother-in-law, M. Alphonse Humbert, the Deputy, were both active supporters of the Commune, and the latter has aided in the preparation of this volume, which will throw much light on a still obscure epoch. The second volume, 'La Répression,' which will describe the terrible events from the time of the entering of the regular troops into Paris to the end of the Draconian councils of war, will repose on the minutes of these councils, the newspapers of the period, and the statements of the former Communists who returned to France after deportation.

Of new volumes concerning the Bonapartes the most important will be the second volume of Chuquet's 'La Jeunesse de Napoléon' (Paris: Armand Colin). It will cover the Revolutionary epoch of the future Emperor's career. The second chapter, slightly modified, will come out in an early number of *Cosmopolis*.

M. Paul Marmottan, who has written several monographs on the Bonapartes and their era, is now engaged on other portions of a subject which he has already treated—the French domination in Central Italy during the First Empire, and especially the rôle of Napoleon in Tuscany between 1805 and 1814, and the lieutenancy exercised there in a singularly virile and remarkable manner by the Emperor's eldest sister, Princess Elisa, who resided at Florence as Grand Duchess of Tuscany during the last half of her brother's reign. M. Marmottan's tastes turn towards unedited matter, so that his volumes always add something to the stock of general historical knowledge. The large amount of new information which he has found is due in great measure to the fact that the historians of the Napoleonic era have paid comparatively little attention to French Italy.

M. Hippolyte Thirria, formerly a member of the Conseil d'État, and the author of an exceedingly full two-volume study, entitled 'Napoléon III. avant l'Empire' (Paris: Plon), is now about to issue an historical biography of the Marchioness de Crenay, who was a friend of Napoleon III., of his mother, Queen Hortense, and of the Duchess de Berry. It will contain letters, now first published, from these three last-named personages. The author professes to prove that Hortense never accepted from Louis XVIII. the title of Duchess of St.-Leu, that Louis Napoleon never bent the knee to Louis Philippe, and that he was indeed the son of King Louis.

The Harpers have been prompt in bringing out a popular edition of Nansen's 'Farthest North.' In one volume, instead of two, with all the text and with sixteen of the more important illustrations of the Library Edition, and the whole offered at less than one-third the cost of the two-volume issue, this appeal to a wider audience should meet with a quick response.

One must pay for the cheap one-volume edition of Villari's standard 'Life and Times of Machiavelli' (Scribners) with pretty thin paper and corresponding presswork, but the substance is all there for reading or for reference—if we know where to look. An index might have compelled purchase even by owners of the better edition. The binding is more elegant than the typography, matching Villari's 'Florence.'

The "new and prominent writers of the year [1897]" of whom sketches and portraits occupy the first part of Mr. James MacArthur's 'The Bookman Literary Year-Book for 1898' (Dodd, Mead & Co.), are by no means all new in a strict sense; witness Dr. Weir Mitchell, Marion Crawford, Hall Caine, Prof. C. G. D. Roberts, Edward Bellamy, Prof. Sloane, etc. Nevertheless, the list is convenient. So is the succeeding very brief series of obituaries, again with portraits. Other sections illustrated are Dramatizations of Current Fiction, and American Serials of 1897, and the volume is filled out with statistics of book-production, a list of publishing book-clubs, copyright instructions, hints for correction of proof, etc.—an odd miscellany. On the whole, one cannot praise this annual as well executed or firmly conceived; it does not compare with Mr. Afialo's volume, having the same title, published (in America) by the same firm last year.

The Scribners have brought out 'The Indian Frontier War' of 1897, by Lionel James, Reuter's special correspondent, who accompanied both the Mohmund and the Tirah expeditions last fall and winter. From a military point of view, the difficulties of such a campaign were more from the character of the country and the embarrassments with the supply train than from hard fighting. The Afridis are excellent skirmishers, and kept up a worrying and irritating combat, day and night, without standing for a pitched battle. The English columns had a casualty list of fifteen hundred at the close of the expeditions, mostly of men picked off by sharpshooters who infested the march and harried the train-guards. The policy inexorably carried out by Sir William Lockhart was that of burning the villages and homesteads of the clans which refused to submit to an assessed fine for their outbreak, leaving the valleys a desert and the people destitute and without a roof for the winter. The book is a stirring narrative or journal, well printed, and illustrated by over thirty sketches and photographs and ten sketch-maps and plans.

'The Rise and Fall of the United States,' by "A Diplomat" (F. Tennyson Neely), is a "skit" of some two hundred pages, purporting to be "a leaf from history, A. D. 2060." If it be true that no country was ever great without producing some satire of itself, publications of this sort ought to be a hopeful sign. For those who take a different view it will be rather depressing reading. The author's thesis is that we are not merely on the road to ruin, but to total extinction. Our civilization, now at its highest point, will decline so rapidly that in less than two hundred years not a trace of our national existence will be left except the Declaration of Independence; this the author excepts from the universal oblivion which is to swallow up the United States, as being "the one imperishable monument of its early genius." The theory of our decadence developed in his prophetic vision is that (if we may venture to put it in our own way) the Democracy will swallow up the Trusts, and then fall to pieces of its own incapacity and ignorance. The West will fall away from the East, the South from the North, and the Pacific Coast will join in a federation of "certain South American States." In the end, even these divisions will be in turn subdivided into petty separate governments. Material civilization will crumble into ruins. We shall be spared the American analogue of Macaulay's New Zealander moralizing over the wreck of Greater New York from Brooklyn Bridge—for there will be no bridge for him to stand on. The book gives proof of undeniable cleverness.

The declining birth-rate, so marked of recent years in civilized countries, is considered by Mr. R. Ussher in a volume entitled 'Neo-Malthusianism' (London: Gibbings & Co.). Mr. Ussher shows that the deliberate and calculated restraints upon reproduction now so extensively employed were not in the contemplation of Malthus, and that the tendency is, therefore, misnamed. He displays great industry in collecting opinions upon the causes and results of this tendency, and certainly handles a delicate subject with the utmost propriety. It may be doubted if desirable results are obtained from discussions of this character. Those people in whom the instinct of reproduction is strong will, of course, eventually supplant those in whom it is weak, and the control of such instincts is beyond legislation. So far as earnest preaching can influence it, Mr. Ussher certainly does his best, and if he can succeed in arousing a public opinion in favor of large families, the world will continue to be peopled.

The proposal to improve our banking system by legalizing and regulating the functions that have been assumed by the clearing-houses in times of financial alarm, is the subject of an essay by Mr. Theodore Gilman, entitled 'A Graded Banking System' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). His contention is that there should be a clearing-house incorporated in every State, by a national law, which should issue currency to banks on pledge of their assets as collateral. Whatever the merits of this scheme may be, it is doubtful if Mr. Gilman's advocacy of it is calculated to win it support. He asserts that the nation is practically a unit in approving the issue of legal-tender notes by the Government, and that their withdrawal would produce widespread distress and confusion. "No further legislation in regard to the nation's finances or obligations is required." Mr. Gilman also maintains that banks do not lose money by panics, and care nothing for them. "The loss resulting from every money panic is incalculable, but it falls on the business community, and not on the banks." Mr. Gilman apparently supposes that bankers are indifferent to the solvency of the people whose notes they discount.

A journey in Somaliland in 1897, by Count E. Wickenburg, forms the subject of the first article in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number three. This traveller confirms the truth of the oft-repeated reports of the frightful barbarity of the Abyssinian raiders in this country, and deprecates strongly the abandonment of any of the helpless Somali by the English through the recent treaty with Abyssinia. Dr. E. von Drygalski discusses the conditions of the inland ice of Greenland, from his own observations in 1891-93, with a view to discover the physical causes and geographical effects of the ice-movement in the glacial epoch. This gentleman has been chosen to lead the German Antarctic expedition, to consist of five scientific men, five officers, and fifteen sailors, and to be absent two years. The supplemental number 124

contains a treatise, by Dr. A. Supan, upon the distribution of the rainfall upon the dry land of the globe, with numerous tables of observations and three charts showing the average yearly rainfall and the amount at the different seasons of the year. The basin of the Amazon seems to exceed all other large regions in its rainfall, the amount registered being over 2,000 mm. (78.7 inches). The coast of Alaska is the only part of this country with a like amount.

The campaign in the Sudan proves conclusively that under English tutelage the Egyptian is being made into a good soldier and fighter. The report for 1897 of Sir John Scott, the Judicial Adviser of the Egyptian Government, shows that the fellah is also becoming a law-abiding citizen. The number of serious crimes "has fallen from 1,866 in 1896 to 1,424 in 1897, whilst six years ago the annual total reached 2,625," and there has been a sensible diminution of petty crimes. At the same time the administration of the laws by the native tribunals is continually improving, with a corresponding increase in the public confidence in them.

The Canadian "Regulations Governing Placer Mining" in the Yukon district, approved January 18, 1898, with diagrams showing plans of the different kinds of claims, are published in the Consular Reports for April. There are also some useful hints as to the cultivation of the ginseng in America and its preparation for the Chinese market. The exports of the root from this country to China in 1896 amounted to 353,147 pounds, valued at $656,515 gold—an amount which might be vastly increased if "American farmers of the mountain regions of Pennsylvania, Michigan, Colorado, Wyoming, Georgia, Idaho, and North Carolina, where ginseng grows wild, would cultivate it on land that had no other productive value." Attention is called by our Consul at Rotterdam to the threatened sale and destruction of the historic Pilgrim church at Delfshaven through the poverty of the congregation worshipping in it.

There has recently been dedicated at the Point of Penmarc'h, in Brittany—the scene of many shipwrecks—the "Lighthouse of Eckmühl," erected in memory of Marshal Davout, Prince of Eckmühl, by his daughter, the Marchioness of Blocqueville. In her will, providing for this memorial, she says: "My first and most cherished wish is that there may be erected a lighthouse upon some dangerous point on the coast of France. . . . The tears caused by the calamities of war, which I dread and detest more than ever, will thus be compensated for by the lives saved from the tempest." In an article on the electric light on the coasts of France, in the current number of the *Annales des Ponts et Chaussées*, M. de Joly describes in detail, with plans and illustrations, the special methods employed in this lighthouse. The light is visible sixty-two miles in fine and twenty-four miles in foggy weather, exceeding in brilliancy that of any other lighthouse lamp. The optical apparatus completes a revolution in twenty seconds, and, every five seconds, sends out white flashes lasting a tenth of a second. The building material is Kersanton granite. A bronze statue of Davout is placed inside upon a pedestal of porphyry, on which are inscribed the names of his battles.

Preparations are being made for the celebration of the eightieth birthday of the oldest member of the teaching force in the University of Berlin, the Academician and geographer, Henry Kiepert. The event will occur on the 18th of August this year. The veteran savant is still hale and hearty, and, during the past winter term, delivered a course of lectures, gratis, on the "History of Cartography," making use of the excellent collection of geographical apparatus possessed by himself and the University. Kiepert has all along been a man of remarkable vitality. When in his seventieth year he spent several months in geographical researches in Asia Minor, riding from nine to ten hours over a rough country every day.

On the occasion of his recent birthday anniversary, the well-known littérateur, Heinrich von Pochinger, who has published several works on the career of the Iron Chancellor, issued a new volume of Bismarckiana, entitled 'Bismarck-Portefeuille,' aiming particularly at a reproduction of the exact speeches and addresses of Bismarck at the most important stages in his life. In this feature lies the strength of the new work. It seems, however, that the author has been giving the Chancellor greater credit than those in authority are willing to allow. Accordingly, by a formal imperial decree, it has been announced that Pochinger is no longer to have access to the royal or other state archives of Prussia for the purpose of continuing his researches. It is generally understood that this step has been taken at the instigation of the Emperor himself, who failed to find in the new work a sufficient recognition of the merits of his grandfather.

—In view of the small attention hitherto given in our colleges to the subject, Dr. W. B. Cairns's pamphlet 'On the Development of American Literature from 1815 to 1833' would be welcome, even if its merits were less than they are. It is published by the University of Wisconsin, and was prepared, we suppose, as a thesis, but it is remarkably free from sophomoric gush, from absurd misinformation, and from excessive appreciation of local authors and enterprises. A citizen of the Northwest has, in fact, the impartiality of a foreigner in writing the history of this period, for which, having in mind Mr. Albert Smyth's preposterous book on early Philadelphia magazines, we ought to be doubly thankful. It was a barren period in our literary history, being, indeed, the darkness which preceded the dawn of a time illumined by nearly all the lights of our literature, who shone through the medium of magazines vastly superior to most of the ill-starred attempts whose brief existence is chronicled by Dr. Cairns. It was through the *Knickerbocker* (1833), *Southern Literary Messenger* (1834), *Democratic Review* (1837), *Dial* (1840), *Graham's Magazine* (1841), and *Whig Review* (1845) that Hawthorne and Poe, Longfellow and Lowell, Emerson and Parkman, Holmes and Thoreau, became national as distinguished from local authors. Strangely enough, N. P. Willis, the "king of magazinists" of this later period, is not mentioned; nor is his magazine, the *American Monthly*, though it began publication in 1829, even listed in the bibliographies appended to the present work. Slips are infrequent; hence, so bad a one as Edward Coote Pinckney, for Edward Coate Pinkney, causes surprise.

—Under the title, 'Forty Years of Oratory,' the Bowen-Merrill Co. (Indianapolis) publishes in two volumes the Lectures, Addresses, and Speeches of Daniel Wolsey Voorhees. The book, which is compiled and edited by Mr. Voorhees's three sons and his daughter, Harriet Cecilia Voorhees, and has numerous illustrations, including four portraits of Mr. Voorhees, is preceded by a sketch of his life by Judge Thomas B. Long of Indiana. Those who like to trace political distinction to its beginnings in early education and circumstances will find scanty material here, as the barest skeleton of a biography is given. Mr. Voorhees was trained to the bar at a time when forensic success as naturally led to political honors as pecuniary advantages procure them now. Born in 1827, he was admitted to the bar just as the period of Webster and Choate was coming to its close. Through the war, and down to the year 1897, when he died, he preserved a certain tradition of rural Democratic oratory and debate, and his speeches, lectures, and addresses enable us to trace the path of the party through the singular vicissitudes of the past forty years. His first public appearance of importance, however, was, curiously enough, as counsel for Cook, one of John Brown's lieutenants, indicted in 1859 for treason, murder, and inciting slaves to rebel, at Harper's Ferry. Mr. Voorhees, whose line of defence was to make out his client the misguided victim of a stronger will and brain, seems to have helped Cook but little, as he was convicted of murder and hanged. A more successful case was the comparatively recent one of Kilbourne vs. Thompson, in which he secured, in an action for false imprisonment, a verdict for $150,000, which was, however, set aside by the court, on the ground that it was due rather to Mr. Voorhees's eloquence than to the facts or law. As the amount ultimately recovered was $20,000, the difference between this and the larger sum furnishes a sort of measure of Mr. Voorhees's effect on a jury at his best. He undoubtedly did make a considerable impression upon minds of an inferior order, and his ascendancy in party councils rose as his party tended more and more to become a disorganized rabble. Silver he swallowed, but, adhering to the liberal economical views taught him by an earlier generation, he ended his days stoutly defending freedom of trade. His oratory has a peculiarly early American flavor—in fact, could not have been produced in any other country. There is a gravity about it almost Indian, a solemn introduction of learning that suggests a half-educated audience, and an elaborate mingling of courtesy with abuse which (as when he deplores the willingness of Mr. Blaine to "abandon the pursuits of the lion, and to follow the habits of the hyena") are sometimes ludicrous. His oratory deserves preservation as of a type familiar in its day but now passing. Dickens caricatured it, after his first visit to this country, and, returning a generation later, found that it had come to seem a caricature in the land of its origin too.

—We have already called attention in these columns to the growth of interest in German literature which the French, after a period of apathy or aversion, have once more begun to manifest. The magazines and the publishers' lists bear almost monthly witness to this fact. In the *Revue de Paris* Michel Bréal is making a study of the historical original of Goethe's "Natürliche Tochter," under the title. "Une Héroïne de

Goethe." Édouard Rod's "Essai sur Goethe" has elicited much serious comment, and M. Rod himself, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, is full of praise for Sudermann's "Johannes." And yet the time now seems very remote when German literature was a vital influence and more than merely a subject for scholarly investigation. But that time was, and a writer in the *Revue d'Histoire Littéraire de la France* has recently made a study of "Les Origines de l'Influence Allemande dans la Littérature Française du xix. siècle." This influence was strongest during the early thirties of the present century. To many it will be a surprise to learn that the productions of the eccentric and versatile E. T. W. Hoffmann bore better fruit in France than in his native land. It was he who inspired Musset's "Contes," and Musset's type of the German maiden was taken from him. Like Heine, Hoffmann found, not only in France, but in England also, a wide circle of readers, and numerous translations attest his popularity. "The Golden Pot," which Hoffmann wrote while the bullets were whistling about him at the siege of Dresden, found a place in Carlyle's collection of German romance. Within a year or two, under the title of 'Weird Tales,' J. T. Bealby has published, with the imprint of Charles Scribner's Sons, a new translation of twelve stories of Hoffmann's. As a whole, in spite of occasional infelicitous phrases, this version, so far as it goes, ranks among the best, although the omission of the inimitable "Nutcracker," for instance, in favor of less happy ventures, is to be regretted. The biographical notice appended to the second volume deserves praise. But for English readers who desire to acquaint themselves more fully with the writings of Hoffmann, the volume in the Bohn Library, under the author's own collective title of 'The Serapion Brethren,' remains the standard work.

—Hoffmann is still worth reading. Despite his somnambulism and madness, he was, says Prof. Francke, "a master of realistic description and psychological analysis." The Bohn version is by Major Alexander Ewing, who also translated Jean Paul's 'Flower, Fruit, and Thorn Pieces.' Between Richter and Hoffmann there was a certain affinity of fancy, though not of character or moral depth. In Hawthorne, too, there is a flavor of Hoffmann; but the closest analogue is Poe. The phantasms and extravagances of a wayward imagination, combined in Hoffmann's case with uncontrolled mannerisms, often destroyed the beauty of his finest flights of fancy. He, like Poe, lacked poise. He was averse to taking things seriously. "These are odiosa," was a self-defensive formula of his. Of a piece with this lack of seriousness was his irresistible talent for caricature, the indulgence of which once almost wrecked his career. He subsequently turned his plastic talent to account, and, by painting portraits, eked out his scanty income. The present generation has almost forgotten the extent of Hoffmann's versatility, but he was also a musician of no mean ability. His compositions were praised by Weber, and his musical setting to Fouqué's "Undine" was produced at the Berlin Opera-house. It was his admiration for Mozart, of whose "Don Giovanni" he wrote an analysis which is still a classic bit of musical criticism, that led him to change his third name of Wilhelm to Amadeus; indeed, it is as E. T. A. Hoffmann that he is generally known. But only his literary fame carried beyond the borders of Germany, and it was beyond those boundaries that his work was destined to exert its fullest influence. He occupies a place in literature which we should not gladly see vacant, and yet, from the point of view of this end of our century, his influence upon French letters, and his wide popularity both in England and on the Continent, seem to constitute one of the curiosities of literature. That influence, however, is an undeniable fact in the history of the early days of Romanticism in France, and it is to facts like these that French writers are now directing the attention of their countrymen.

—'De Patriottentijd' (The Era of the "Patriots") is the title of an interesting Dutch work by Dr. H. T. Colenbrander, just issued at The Hague (Martinus Nijhoff). It covers the decade 1776-1786, and throws many interesting side-lights upon British and American history. The author, in common with all students who have long awaited impatiently the still delayed publication of Sir Joseph Yorke's official papers, suffers in the first half of his story from imperfect information where exact knowledge is most desired. Yorke, an army officer promoted to the diplomatic service, was for twenty-five years British Minister at The Hague, and had manipulated Dutch politics until, from Stadholder to city councilmen, he thought he had the money-loving Hollanders wholly pro-British. In his plans he was foiled by Van der Capellen, Luzac, Coelkens, the Van Berkels, De Gijselaer, and others. The recognition of John Adams by the States-General and of the United States by the Dutch republic, accompanied by a loan which, when paid, amounted to fourteen million dollars, showed that the Dutch loved freedom as well as money. Apart from its direct historical value, this work shows in a very clear way how avarice and war go together. The Dutchmen wanted more trade and larger profits when they defied Great Britain, while the motive of the indecent haste of the latter in declaring war is manifest at a glance. Before the Government at The Hague knew anything of hostilities, the seizure of Dutch ships in British ports had begun. Within a month, nearly two hundred vessels with their cargoes, worth nearly six millions of dollars, were confiscated in British ports, and the seizure of ships, lands, islands, and harbors continued for years. The student of federal government cannot afford to ignore this book, which shows what terrible, and in this case mortal, diseases may ravage the federal body politic. It is evident that our constitutional fathers in 1787 had before them not only a living, but an awful and moribund example, from which to learn what to keep and what to reject in federalism.

SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.

Drake and the Tudor Navy. With a History of the Rise of England as a Maritime Power. By Julian S. Corbett. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. 1898.

This work is naturally divided into two volumes, the first devoted to the career of Drake as adventurer and corsair; the second dealing with his later years, when he became distinguished as admiral and naval commander. Besides the usual manuscripts which cover the time of Drake, and publications like the Navy Records, or like those of the Hakluyt and Camden Societies and the works of Capt. Duro, the author has had the advantage of consulting transcripts of various unpublished Spanish documents which Capt. Duro has recently discovered and calendared. As a result, Mr. Corbett, with his previously published short life of Drake as a nucleus, has produced an historical work of much value and interest and possessing a freshness and fulness of detail never before reached.

Froude, in his works on the Spanish Armada and the contemporaneous English seamen of the sixteenth century, identifies the beginning of the ocean supremacy of the English with the defeat of the Great Armada in 1588, and would make that supremacy the legitimate child of the Reformation. More correct, it is to be hoped, in his generalities than in his details, Froude in this instance is not far from wrong, for with the advent of Sir Francis Drake as a sea-fighter Britannia took her first steps towards ruling the wave. Admiral Colomb, the best English authority upon the subject, says that the real opening of the new phase was the fight of Sir John Hawkins against the Spaniards, in the treacherous attack at San Juan de Ulloa in 1567—a fight in which Drake made his earliest appearance in real warfare, as a youngster of twenty-two, in command of the ship *Judith* of fifty tons.

Drake was born upon a farm in Devonshire about the year 1545. Related to Sir John Hawkins, and with a father who probably began life as a seaman, and became in time lay reader to seamen and a clergyman of the Anglican Church, Drake may truly be said to have come into the world with the English Reformation and revolt against Rome. It was not unnatural, as a consequence, that he should inherit his father's tastes and feelings, and that his life should be spent upon the sea and in constant antagonism to his most Catholic Majesty the King of Spain. Apprenticed as he was by his father, in the rough school of the English coasting trade, Drake received excellent training for his future life, and showed such promise that his master bequeathed to Drake his bark. From that small beginning his fortunes arose. With the reign of Queen Elizabeth began the period of reprisals, seizures, and quasi-war against Spanish trade and dominions. The causes, besides those of retaliation, were held to be three-fold. For the English people it was religious, for the Government it was political, and for the merchants it was in addition commercial. The idea dawning upon the English was the one asserted so strenuously by Sir Walter Raleigh, that "whosoever commands the sea, commands the trade; whosoever commands the trade of the world, commands the riches of the world, and consequently the world itself."

Drake, tiring of the coasting life, made cruises to the Western Islands and to the West Indies, and eventually joined his kinsman, Sir John Hawkins, in the expedition which met attack and disaster near Vera Cruz in Mexico in 1567. His bark and the *Minion* were the only survivors of this expedition when Hawkins returned afterwards to England. Drake's other expeditions to the West Indies and Spanish Main it is not necessary to dwell upon, as they are sufficiently well known and were partly in the nature of reprisals against the Spanish and partly adventures in a commercial sense; in both aspects the spoliation of the Spaniard

was congenial work. His landing and adventures at Nombre de Dios and on the Isthmus of Panama led to his first view of the Pacific, and inspired his famous cruise of circumnavigation, which lifted him to the higher plane of accomplished navigator and matured leader of men.

Fascinating as the story of Drake's voyage around the world has always been, it is none the less so with the fuller details and additional side lights published by the author in this work. The discovery of the open sea to the southward of Tierra del Fuego; the Doughty affair; the cruise along the Pacific Coast of America, and the stay in California, lose nothing in interest when told by the light of later discoveries and recent investigations. Though Drake had been obscurely heard of through Spanish sources during this voyage, it was not until September, 1580, after an absence of nearly three years, without a word of news from home, that the *Golden Hind*, richly laden with treasure, ended her voyage in Plymouth Sound. Knighted on board this ship by the Queen, Drake became the hero of the day and the great sea officer of the kingdom. After Drake's return he was put on the commission to examine the state of the navy, and thus had an opportunity to become more familiar with the weapon which he was in the future to handle so efficiently. With the acquisition of Portugal by Philip II., Spain fell heir to a fine seagoing fleet of eleven galleons, and had for the first time the nucleus of a regular navy. This nucleus, with the additional vessels constructed on the Biscayan coast, gave the Marquis of Santa Cruz, the great Admiral of Spain, reason to think the "enterprise of England," as the Great Armada's object was called in Spain, a practical affair. The prestige gained by Santa Cruz in 1583, in the defeat of the French privateers and the capture of the Azores, strengthened Philip's determination and Santa Cruz's confidence.

In England the rising danger of the Armada became apparent to everybody except possibly at first to the Queen. However, when Spain, for the purposes of the Armada, seized the English corn-fleet, Drake was directed at once to sail with a fleet to rescue the seized vessels and make reprisal. The expedition was formed in the way that was then customary, a fleet of merchantmen being stiffened, as the author says, by some ships from the Royal Navy and financed by a joint-stock company. Leaving in the autumn of 1585, he raided Vigo, touched without landing at the Canaries, and, following the usual course to the Cape de Verdes, destroyed the two principal towns of the latter group. Proceeding to the West Indies, he captured San Domingo, the capital of the Spanish West Indies, and also Cartagena on the Spanish Main. Without instructions or certainty of a continuous policy on the part of the Queen, he was wise not to hold either place with the rapidly diminishing forces under his command. For the latter cause, also, he made no attempt upon Panama, but, after burning St. Augustine, and taking on board the English colony left on Roanoke Island, returned to England, having inflicted on Spain a loss in resources and prestige that postponed the Armada as well as avenged the seizure of the corn fleet.

But Drake's most brilliant campaign was yet to come. Under orders from the Queen to prevent the concentration of the various squadrons and detachments under Santa Cruz at Lisbon, he was further to cause "the distressing of the ships within the havens themselves." Sailing on the 1st of April, 1587, and learning at sea that ships and stores were accumulating at Cadiz, he proceeded at once to that port. The defences of Cadiz at the time were not formidable, but the shoals of the harbor added much to the difficulties of the attack, and afforded opportunity for the swift, light-draught galleys—whose rôle was that of the torpedo-boat of our day—to develop their possibilities. Standing in at once upon sighting the port, he saw inside, under the guns of the town and the batteries, some sixty ships and a crowd of caravals and small barks, almost all of which were engaged in some way in connection with the great enterprise against England. As Drake entered, the galleys made a dash at the beam of his vessels, but they were met with heavy raking broadsides from the Queen's ships that led in, which riddled them so that they turned and fled, seeking refuge behind reefs and up the estuaries near by. By nightfall all the vessels not able to get into the inner harbor were in Drake's hands and afterwards burned. Remaining undisturbed during the night at anchor, the next morning Drake raided the inner harbor by a boat expedition. The wind falling away to a calm, Drake became exposed to a galley attack under disadvantageous circumstances; but neither this, nor the newly mounted guns on shore, nor the fire-ships sent out, dislodged him, and it was not until the following morning that he left with little loss, but with the beard of the King of Spain effectually singed.

It remained yet for Drake to prevent the concentration at Lisbon. A detachment of vessels under Recalde were at Cape St. Vincent; these were forced to take refuge in Lisbon, their leader being too wary to be caught. Their retreat gave Drake an opportunity which he seized by a sudden attack on and capture of the fortifications commanding the anchorage at Cape St. Vincent, then the most important and most frequented roadstead and watering-place on the Atlantic coast of Europe. He thus secured a sheltered position for his intervening fleet, well placed between Lisbon and the Mediterranean; a point whose strategic importance continued to later days. Upon reconnoissance, Lisbon was found too strong for attack, and Drake returned to his rendezvous off St. Vincent, and sent home for reinforcements so that he might hold his chosen position. Philip, alarmed at the situation, issued a series of contradictory orders, directing Santa Cruz to go to sea, and finally abandoning vessels and sending their crews overland to Lisbon. Reduced in force by bad weather met at sea and by the desertion of some of his fleet, Drake could not hold his position and also proceed to the Azores as directed. Tempted by the news of a returning East Indiaman, he finally proceeded to the Azores, and captured the richly laden *San Felipe*, with which he returned once more to Plymouth, with a prize and a reputation unsurpassed in Europe. What Drake might have accomplished if he had been at the head of a purely military expedition with no commercial obligations may well be imagined, for the author is within bounds when he says that, to this day, this cruise of Drake's presents the finest example of how a small, well-handled fleet, acting on a nicely timed offensive, may paralyze the mobilization of an overwhelming force.

After reaching England, Drake was anxious to return and renew his operations on the coast of Spain, but England was reluctant and vacillating, and, as a result, the concentration went on at Lisbon unimpeded. A defensive fleet was formed, but was retained on the English coast—a strategic mistake which Drake protested against, for the defensive line then as now was the enemy's coasts. Lord Howard of Effingham was made Commander-in-Chief of the naval forces to meet the Armada, and Drake given the command of an independent fleet, which, upon the news of Santa Cruz's death, was united with that of Howard, Drake being made Vice-Admiral, second in command, and practically the professional commander of the fleet.

The various stages of the drama of the Great Armada followed—its first sailing under Medina Sidonia, its return and second departure, the indecisive engagements off Plymouth, Portland Head, and the Isle of Wight; its gradual crowding off shore and to the eastward, the attack of the fire-ships off Calais, and the final action off Gravelines, followed by the retreat to the north of Scotland, and finally the dispersion and scattered return to Spain. In all of the actions Drake played a part, varying in importance, but still strategically and technically that of the leader of the defensive fleet. Of Effingham and his part, the author, who maintains Howard to have been a Protestant, says:

> "From first to last he set an example of untiring labor, of loyal devotion, and of buoyant courage, that is hardly to be surpassed, and which entirely won the respect of his headstrong and self-confident Vice-Admiral. If the times demanded a high-born amateur at the head of our navy, let no one forget what happened to other fleets similarly commanded, or ever cease to be gratified that at this great crisis the man chosen for the post was Lord Howard. His splendid behavior made the whole fleet one. Whatever was done, was done with all the might of the force. If Drake had been supreme head, the campaign might have been more scientific in design, more dashing in execution, but its success must have been thwarted by the jealousies and friction his masterful spirit seemed incapable of avoiding."

With the command of the sea given to the English by the defeat of the Armada, naturally came the desire to destroy what was left of the Spanish fleet, and to this was added an endeavor to establish Don Antonio, the Portuguese Pretender, and to capture one of the Western Islands as an advanced base against the Spanish trade. The expedition placed under Drake had Sir John Norreys as military commander. The land force seems to have been out of proportion to its objectives; too much for a raid, it was too small for serious operations against Lisbon. Probably undue reliance was placed upon Don Antonio's hope for a general rising of the Portuguese. Hampered by the instructions of the Queen and the political purposes of Don Antonio, the expedition fell far short of the success aimed at and hoped for, and Drake was in disgrace with the Queen and her advisers for a long period.

In 1595, however, the Queen appointed him joint commander with Sir John Hawkins of an expedition to the West Indies. This proved to be the last as well as the most disastrous with which he was ever connected. To the evils of a joint command were added those of inadequate force, and again interminable delays. The Spanish were not only better prepared ashore and afloat than ever before, but the delays at

Plymouth, the unwise attempts upon the Canaries, and the capture of men and a ship while en route, made known their objectives and their course and gave ample time for preparation. The failure at Porto Rico was almost contemporaneous with the death of Sir John Hawkins, and the barren ravaging on the Spanish Main and the repulse on the Isthmus of Panama were followed by the death of Drake himself, and his subsequent burial at sea near the scene of his earliest triumphs.

The limitations of Drake, both in person and in surroundings, were too great to permit us to consider him exactly in the same light as Nelson; but the words of the author which follow, seem to us an accurate summing up of his attributes as a naval leader:

"It was in the very nature of Drake," says Mr. Corbett, "that, so long as his nominal commander would consent to be a figurehead and his council of war a mere court to record his opinions, he could command with brilliant success. But such a position he would never have been allowed and could not possibly have achieved in the Cadiz expedition of 1596. The Elizabethan age, high as it rose beyond all that had gone before, yet lacked the greatness of spirit that could recognize and trust implicitly a heaven-born admiral as a riper age could trust Nelson. So it came about that he was denied the opportunity of proving the tremendous force of his ideas, and he passed to posterity, as the narrow view of his contemporaries could see him, with a renown, it is true, so great as to become at once almost mythical, yet not for what he was."

The style of the narrative is most interesting, and the book is provided with plans and illustrations, particularly of the vessels of the time. The accuracy of the text is well sustained in the appendices and the many notes and references. It is to be regretted that the long and somewhat pedantic descriptions of the ships and guns of the Tudor age were not also relegated to the appendices.

REDDAWAY'S MONROE DOCTRINE.

The Monroe Doctrine. By W. F. Reddaway. Macmillan. 1898.

Mr. Reddaway's examination of the Monroe Doctrine was written originally in 1896 in competition for the Members' Prize at Cambridge. Coming here from an English university, it will be read with interest by Americans as both a distinctively English and at the same time impartial contribution to the learning of the subject. It differs from most writing about the Monroe Doctrine in one important point, namely, that it is not argumentative or contentious, but altogether analytical and historical in its treatment. The author seems to have drawn upon all the leading recognized American sources of information, and also upon a mass of unpublished documents in the Public Record Office, with the result that he has produced an essay which no writer can hereafter afford to neglect. His conclusions are that the evolution of the Monroe Doctrine was gradual; that the peculiar form of the message of 1823 was due to John Quincy Adams; that he, and he alone, logically applied it in politics; that it produced its desired effect as an act of policy, but in no way modified the Law of Nations; and, further, that the Monroe Doctrine of current politics seems to have become rather an "Adams sentiment," very different, however, from anything that Adams as a statesman of two generations since can be said to have expressly advocated. His view of the part played by Adams in the production and publication of the Doctrine is not different from that taken by Mr. J. T. Morse, jr., in his biography of Adams, published some years since.

The Monroe Doctrine, as generally cited by American publicists, consists of two propositions: that "the American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintain, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European Powers," and that "we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety." . . . "With the governments who have declared their independence and maintained it, and whose independence we have, on great consideration and on just principles, acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them, or controlling in any other manner their destiny, by any European Power, in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States." Historically it was intended to bolster up the newly acquired freedom of Spanish America (a valuable appendix gives an account of the political condition of America south of the United States in 1823), and was suggested by Canning and formulated by Adams and Monroe. The attempt to make it a permanent doctrine of international law is futile, because a rule of international law derives its force from the consent and practice of a number of nations, while the Monroe Doctrine expresses the policy of one, and can be modified or even recalled by that one at its pleasure. Like the Balance of Power, which, until it was superseded by other arrangements, ending in the so-called Concert of Europe, played such an important part in European diplomacy, it belongs to a domain quite outside the confines of international law, though within those of government. In obedience to our national instincts, we like to call it a "doctrine," and in this there is no harm, provided we remember that it is not recognized by international publicists, that it embodies no rule, has never been stated as one by any law-making body, and contains a clause, "with the existing colonies or dependencies of any European Power we . . . shall not interfere," which, at the present time, we are refusing in a very emphatic manner to regard as binding upon ourselves.

It follows from all this that the endeavor to bring such matters as the dispute about the Venezuela boundary, or the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, or many other matters alien to the historical ground of the policy within the scope of the Doctrine, is never likely to advance the position (whatever it may be) taken by the United States or have much bearing on subsequent disputes. The European Power with whom the dispute arises will always say: "The fact that you can make a doctrine of your own domestic policy apply, by your own principles of hermeneutics, to a given case affecting our interests is of no moment to us. We may withdraw our opposition and let you have your way, but no precedent has been established." That the flag covers the cargo, that privateering is and remains abolished, or that a blockade to be binding must be effective, are examples of rules of actual or potential international law; but a "doctrine" of a single nation cannot be a rule of law. If it could, the United States would stand to the world at large as Rome once stood; and while Rome lasted, international law had no existence.

These considerations do not belittle the importance of the Monroe Doctrine, but show perhaps some of the reasons why it should be studied, not doctrinally or legally, but historically. It is a part of our history, and not a part of our law; moreover, we think that no one can read Mr. Reddaway's book without coming to the conclusion that it is at least doubtful whether in the future "Monroeism" will not tend more and more to be curbed by other tendencies in our policy and by the law of nations itself. That we succeeded in the Venezuela case in getting England to arbitrate her Guiana boundary, should not blind us to the fact that we ourselves admitted in the course of the controversy that a voluntary settlement between Venezuela and England would be binding on us; *i. e.*, that the parties to the controversy might by agreement preclude us from applying the Doctrine to them—a necessary but rather dangerous concession; while in the Clayton-Bulwer dispute we have never yet induced England to take our view that the Doctrine has any application whatever.

There is no way so sure to clear up the mists and fogs which surround the whole subject as to study it historically. As Mr. Reddaway shows, the history of its proclamation is an integral part of the history of the modern world, and it was closely connected with the development of those peculiar ideas relating to government which have done so much to further the advance of democracy. As he shows, also, it was simply the announcement of a policy of support for the newly won freedom of Spanish America against the Holy Alliance and European reaction, and so played its part and accomplished its purpose at the time. Its use towards the end of the nineteenth century to cover any "continental" design of the party in power that may happen to come up, tends to great confusion of thought, and should be discountenanced by American statesmen and publicists. Ever since Canning's splendid boast in 1826 that he had "called the New World into existence to redress the balance of the Old, an atmosphere of sentiment, rhetoric, and rhodomontade has hovered about the Doctrine which it is high time that the *siccum lumen* of historical investigation should finally and for ever dispel.

One circumstance Mr. Reddaway points out which is very important, and which, for the sake of brevity, we will put in our own words—that the Monroe Doctrine was in a measure a product of a separation between Europe and America which has ceased to exist. Down to the introduction of steam and the telegraph we were remote, in fact; to-day we are nearer to London or Paris than we are to Lima or Rio, and, it may be added, the whole world tends more and more to homogeneity of civilization. These facts make a separate and isolated policy every year more and more difficult to pursue, and bring us with time nearer to a point at which the general rules of civilized intercourse between states may become the only rules to which any single nation can afford to appeal. This does not mean that war or intervention will come to an end, but that the attempt to erect an American as opposed to a European system will fail whenever it

comes in conflict with those wider interests of mankind which have brought the ends of the earth together. It is intercourse, not geography, which determines the rules prevailing between nations.

LIDDON'S PUSEY.

Life of Edward Bouverie Pusey, D.D. By Henry Parry Liddon, D.D. Edited and prepared for publication by the Rev. J. O. Johnston, M.A.; the Rev. Robert J. Wilson, D.D., and the Rev. W. C. E. Newbolt, M.A. In four volumes. Volume IV. (1860-1882). With portrait and illustrations. Longmans, Green & Co.

The Life of Dr. Pusey is now finished, and, although the editors of the present volume complain that they have been obliged to omit things necessary to the completeness of their story, it will seem to many that a more limited presentation of the subject, rather than a fuller one, would better have subserved the object which they had in view. Dr. Liddon, by whom the biography was conceived and upon whose chosen lines it has been carried out, contributed nothing to this volume except the long account of Dr. Pusey's last days and death. Viewing Dr. Pusey's whole life as related to the Oxford Movement, Dr. Liddon devoted a volume to "The Preparation," a second to "The Movement," a third to "The Struggle," and a fourth and last to "The Victory." The present editors believe the title of this volume to be justified by the fact that "the Archbishops of England, in addressing 'the whole body of Bishops of the Catholic Church,' are able to assume, as part of the undisputed heritage of the English Church, such doctrines as the Apostolical Succession and the Sacrificial Aspect of the Holy Eucharist, which, fifty years ago, were generally branded with the discredit that belonged to the hated word Tractarian." It is undeniable that the English Church has been tending, like the Roman, to work out the logic of its system in its doctrines and ceremonies, but this tendency has been qualified by circumstances of very real importance; for one, the critical development which affords the spectacle of High Churchmen openly teaching the revolutionary opinions of Kuenen and Wellhausen; for another, the toleration of theological doctrines which were abominable to Pusey and his school. What is claimed as a victory for that school is rather to be regarded as a *modus vivendi*, about equally favorable to it and to its most radical opponents. Moreover, in so far as the Puseyite doctrines and forms have tended to a wider acceptance and observation, it is worth while to consider to what extent they have carried along with them the nation's best intelligence. A victory alienating this is only nominally different from a ruinous defeat.

There is plenty of "Struggle" in this volume, also, however it is named. We plunge at once into the long battle for the increase of Jowett's salary, a battle in which Pusey was as conspicuously the leader on one side as Stanley on the other. The story of this battle is the more interesting from the Pusey side because we have so recently had it from the other in the Life of Jowett. It is evident that Jowett did not overrate the extent of Pusey's influence in the matter. It was he who stirred up the University prosecution of Jowett on the ground of his heretical opinions in his commentary on Romans and in the 'Essays and Reviews.' The saintly Keble contributed £100 towards the expenses of the prosecution, which signally failed of putting Jowett in the wrong, and, after six years of controversy, Stanley completely won the victory for his friend, for whom he had fought so long. It should be said, in justice to Pusey, that at any time he would have been glad to see Jowett's salary increased if it could have been done without seeming to endorse his heresies, and marvellous was the ingenuity with which he strove to realize such an adjustment of the matter. When his biographers beg us to remember that since 1860 Oxford has "laid aside its old religious character," we have another item helping us to measure the reality of that "victory" which they would fain imagine was coincident with the last years of Pusey's life.

The most pathetic incident in the course of the events depicted in this volume is the meeting of Newman, Pusey, and Keble, at Keble's rectory in Hursley in 1866, a few months before Keble's death—an event which left Pusey feeling very much alone. Yet he was intimate with Newman to a degree that will be surprising to many English churchmen, and that would have made his life very uncomfortable at the time had the secret been divulged. They agreed in heartily disliking Manning and Ward and their set, Newman calling them incubi. But a less ardent resolve than Pusey's to unite the Anglican and Roman churches would have been chilled by Newman's icy manner of meeting the overtures of his friend. The pound of flesh would not do: there must be the blood with it. It is true that the indifference and arrogance of Newman were impersonal, that of the church for which he spoke. Pusey was given to understand that he could not expect a hearing with his eirenica if he did not come bringing his sheaves with him—the English bishops and clergy in a body. And so, like the poor fellow at Whitefield's camp-meeting, he "rolled himself in the dirt for nothing." His gracious overtures were received by the Manning set as a declaration of war, and even Newman wrote him, "You discharge your olive branch as if from a catapult." Pusey lacked nothing that was taught by Rome *de fide* of being a thoroughgoing Romanist before the declaration of infallibility, and this volume makes it appear likely that but for that declaration he would have gone over to Rome if the debate over the Athanasian creed had gone a little more against him. Newman wrote him of the Manning set, "They came to the Church and have thereby saved their souls; but they are in no sense spokesmen of the English Catholics." Nevertheless, when the Vatican Council met, he found them accepted as such at Rome and able to impose their dogma on the Church. It was most refreshing to Pusey and Keble to find that the Romanists had their differences as well as the Anglicans.

The nomination of Dr. Temple, the present Archbishop, to the See of Exeter obliged Pusey to throw Gladstone over after a friendship of thirty years' duration. "The Westminster Scandal," as Pusey designated the invitation of a Unitarian scholar to take part in the revision of the King James translation of the Bible and attend a communion service in Westminster Abbey, was another dreadful shock to Pusey's sensibility, and the wife's-sister marriage bill was another. In fact, he was being continually rubbed the wrong way. When the Athanasian creed was under fire, he threatened to withdraw from all his functions if worst came to worst. His general indifference to ritualism, and the trouble he had with it, comment amusingly on the popular identification of ritualism with Puseyism. When Manning put Newman in the attitude of refusing the Cardinalate, Pusey was so unfortunate as to fall into the trap and write Newman, "I thought in my inward heart that your place would be higher in heaven for declining all on earth." That was one of the things one would wish not to have said, but it could not be recalled.

During the last years of his life, Pusey's constancy to his ideals, together with many amiable and endearing personal traits, insured him wide consideration even from those who most deplored his influence on the English Church. An appendix of some 40 pages detailing his printed books and papers testifies to the enormous industry of a man to whom every comfort and luxury was assured should he not lift his hand. It is perhaps too soon to pass a final judgment on his life. It is certain that he did much to detach the Anglican body from the Protestant movement, and to make it substantially identical in its doctrines and its sacraments with the Roman Catholic Church.

The Household of the Lafayettes. By Edith Sichel. London: Archibald Constable & Co. 1897.

Miss Sichel writes with some knowledge of the Lafayette and De Noailles families, but our praise of her excursions into the history of revolutionary France must be slight. Her style is one of tropical luxuriance, and her judgments, whether of men or events, are far from being uniformly sound. The Marquis de Lafayette, by virtue of his share in great events, belongs to the public even more than he does to his family. For instance, on his first visit to America he left his wife, though she was hardly more than a bride, in order that he might follow his spiritual betrothed, Liberty. Miss Sichel is much more at her ease in describing the scenes of the hearth than those which are enacted on the stage of the world. We shall not enter upon her account of Lafayette, the statesman and soldier, because she does not help us forward at these points. The domestic part of her narrative is the best, and, in briefly commenting upon it, we shall take for a central figure Lafayette's remarkable wife, Adrienne de Noailles.

Miss Sichel finds in Adrienne's mother, the Duchesse d'Ayen, a personality which moulded children and grandchildren. Almost all the members of the De Noailles connection are celebrated for their respectability and clean living amid the temptations of Louis XV.'s court. The Duchesse d'Ayen, a descendant of the Chancellor d'Aguesseau, even raised the tone of her husband's family, and, by patiently training her children in manners and morals, prepared them for the agonies they were forced to suffer during the Revolution. Adrienne's love of her husband was spontaneous, and rose above selfishness whenever it came to a question between private content and public duty. She entered into the American project, and was a party to his plans for eluding court and family espionage when he sought to

leave the country. What separation cost her may be judged by her happiness in Lafayette's presence after his final return. Though little given to theatrical posing, "the vehemence of her feeling was so great that, for many months, she used almost to faint whenever he left the room." The Revolution found her ready for the worst that can come in life, and she was given a chance to prove her character after Lafayette's flight. During the three years between his arrest and 1795, she only heard from him once. She was seized as a suspect in the autumn of 1793, confined in a provincial prison till the following May, and then transferred to La Petite Force. Confiscation had brought her to distress. In the Great Terror she lost grandmother, mother, and sister at one blow. Robespierre's fall saved her life, but by doing so left her with new difficulties to master. She had to keep her children above penury and to secure her husband's release. By dint of equal devotion and activity, she found some money, made her way to Vienna, and secured imperial permission to live at Olmütz. She entered the town with the Song of Tobit on her lips, and made captivity a very different thing for Lafayette. She remained close at hand till his freedom was achieved by the peace of Campo Formio. We can only pause to mention one touch of character. She bore illness with fortitude and without the loss of playfulness. Shortly before her death in 1807 she said to Lafayette, "So I have been a pleasant companion to you?" "You have indeed!" "Well, then, bless me." These words were engraved on the gold medallion containing the portrait which Lafayette wore till the end of his days. Miss Sichel's account of their life together is so felicitous that we regret certain other less admirable features to which we must advert.

The inaccuracies of this volume are numerous and glaring. P. 85, Barnave is ranked with Pétion as a Girondist. A little later, p. 94, he is styled Barnavès. P. 98, "Loménie de Brienne, with his scheme for equal taxation, had replaced Necker"—a bad slip to make on the very eve of the States-General. P. 100, enumerating the royalist parliamentary leaders in the reign of Charles I., Miss Sichel gives us "Falkland, Hyde, and Clarendon." P. 106, she proceeds, after quoting Gouverneur Morris's description of the meeting of the States-General: "The Third Estate had a sprinkling of *curés* and men of letters, but consisted chiefly of lawyers." That this statement applies to the original constitution of the Third Estate appears from what is said on the following page. After the oath of the Tennis Court the National Assembly "summoned the clergy to join it—only three of them obeyed." In the sentence immediately preceding this last it is affirmed that Bailly was elected President of the National Assembly on the famous 20th of June, whereas he was chosen on the 17th. The difference of a few days cannot be overlooked in the crowded action of the early Revolution. P. 113, Talleyrand is termed Abbé at a time when he was Bishop of Autun. P. 162, Hébert and Desmoulins are placed on the Committee of Public Safety, to which neither of them ever belonged. P. 137 Pilnitz (*sic*) is placed in Prussia instead of in Saxony. P. 175, "The desertion of Gen. Dumouriez . . . in April, just after his brilliant victories for the Republic, had precipitated matters." Miss Sichel is laboring under a grave misapprehension if she considers Neerwinden a brilliant victory for the Republic. P. 266, at this point Sieyès comes in for a little mention. Miss Sichel is eclectic. On p. 89 she has dubbed him "the mediocre." By the Directory period he has become "the incarnation of effective cleverness." Associated with him are Barras and Carnot, "his fellow-Directors." But Sieyès and Carnot were never "fellow-Directors." P. 269, coming to Napoleon, we find him represented as "fighting with sumptuous chivalry for the deliverance of Egypt from the Turk," a crusading enterprise for which we fear he would not have left France in 1798. Considering his failure in the East, one must also stretch language a good deal to say of him in 1799, "His career since 1797 had been a triumphal procession." P. 296, Miss Sichel concludes a synopsis of the Chouan plot by beheading not only Cadoudal, but Pichegru. Without going into the question of whether he killed himself or was strangled, one may confidently affirm that Pichegru escaped decapitation. P. 340, the Ordinances of St. Cloud are placed at four instead of at five in number.

Several of these mistakes are heinous in themselves, and furthermore they imply that the subject has been written up rather than mastered. We should not have catalogued so many were the tone of the book less cocksure. One is half amused and half annoyed at reading limitless generalizations when they exist side by side with elementary errors of fact.

Marcus Aurelius Antoninus to Himself: An English Translation with Introductory Study on Stoicism and the Last of the Stoics. By Gerald H. Rendall. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1898.

The translation of the 'Meditations' of Marcus Aurelius is an enterprise to which not a few have felt called, but the versions that have appeared have been executed rather for the translator's pleasure than as a *tour de force*, and only one or two have survived in general use. We can think of no classical author of whom a translation is not inevitably a pale parody. For the scholar, the Italian motto, *Traduttore traditore* holds good for Jowett's Plato as for Pope's 'Iliad'—the blackness of the betrayal is a mere question of shade. But there are certain post-classical writers whose Greek has no peculiar and characteristic charms of style that could be obscured in a translation—in whom there are no flowers of poetry whose perfume would vanish if one attempted to distil it. Among these are Plutarch, Epictetus, and Marcus Aurelius. One cannot help feeling, as one reads the exotic, artificial, laboriously acquired Greek of Marcus Aurelius, that the kindest thing one can do for him is to translate it. It is unreadable. We question whether any scholar who is afflicted with the prejudice for style would prefer the original Greek to an English version. Marcus Aurelius is one of the very few whose appeal, not being literary but moral, not to the intellect but to the soul, rise above the need of "fame's great antiseptic, style."

The 'Meditations' have never been regarded as a work of art. When, in the seventeenth century, Cardinal Barberini translated them, he dedicated the version to his soul, "in order to make it redder than my purple at the sight of the virtues of this Gentile." There you have the spirit of all translators of this *journal intime*. Marcus Aurelius summed up in himself the best and noblest that had ever existed in the pagan world. His feverish struggle for moral perfection, the absolute correspondence of his inner life with his outward profession, the fact that he turned aside from the splendid distractions of the Roman Empire with the self-denial of a monk—these things account for his canonization as a "Classical Dictionary hero," who realized Plato's ideal of the philosopher on the throne. But they do not account for his hold on the sympathies of modern men, for that sort of emotion which invaded Montesquieu as he read. He wins a wide attention partly because he belongs to no faith and no creed. We need no effort of imagination to put ourselves in touch with his philosophy. "La religion de Marc-Aurèle," says Renan, "est la religion absolue. Elle n'est ni d'une race ni d'un pays. Aucune révolution, aucun progrès, aucune découverte, ne pourront la changer." But he wins the sympathy of men because, under the fine flower of stoic calm, they see the signs of a strife that they too envisage daily. *Entbehren sollst du, sollst entbehren!* (ἀνέχεσθαι καὶ ἀπέχεσθαι) is the watchword of the 'Meditations.' Disabused and disenchanted with life from the first, Marcus's preoccupation in the earlier books is to put a good face on it; in the latter he has attained a detachment that would be Nirvana if it were less like resignation. "How is each so lonely in the wide grave of the All?" asked Richter. Marcus Aurelius, steadily putting away the thought of pleasure or of men's praises, stubbornly refusing to sweeten the rim of the cup from which he was to drink the cure for life, never removes himself above one's pity. This is the chief secret of his charm.

The translation by Jeremy Collier (1702), though possibly not the best, was master of the field until the appearance of George Long's version in 1862. Long was justly rebuked by Matthew Arnold for his contemptuous dismissal of Collier as "a most coarse and vulgar copy of the original." Collier had, at least, succeeded in imparting a certain impetuosity and vividness of style which is lacking to the Greek. But Arnold, though he shivered at Long's academic frost, rated his scholarship high, and prophesied that "Jeremy Collier's work will now be forgotten." George Long, too, bode his destined hour. Mr. Rendall, the new Head Master of Charterhouse, taking into account "the level of modern requirement," assumes that Marcus Aurelius has not hitherto been given to English readers "with scholarly precision and in becoming dress." This is not entirely fair to Long's translation. The Greek of Marcus Aurelius is often open to more than one interpretation, and we believe that, in most cases where Long's version differs from Mr. Rendall's, the divergence is accounted for, not by Long's inferior scholarship, but by a defensible difference of taste. Mr. Rendall has frequently achieved a closer verbal literalness. But with a writer so capable of separate insulation as Marcus, literalness is not so indispensable in a translator as vividness and simplicity of style.

Mr. Rendall's phrases are seldom touched with the sombre passion, the indefinable melancholy that one feels in the rugged Greek original. In the matter of style we think that he has little advantage over George Long. In the matter of spirit and style they both suffer by comparison with the frag-

mentary renderings of Walter Pater. For readers of 'Marius the Epicurean' there can be only one English portrait of Marcus Aurelius, and the bare half-dozen pages of translation in the chapter entitled "The Divinity that doth hedge a King" will ever be the portion of the 'Meditations' most deeply impressed on their minds.

"Penthea and Pergamus sit no longer beside the sepulchre of their lord. The watchers over Hadrian's dust have slipped from his sepulchre. It were jesting to stay longer. Did they sit there still, would the dead feel it? or feeling it, be glad; or glad, hold those watchers for ever? The time must come when they too shall be aged men and aged women, and decease, and fail from their places; and what shift were there then for imperial service? This, too, is but the breath of the tomb and a skinful of dead men's blood."

Mr. Rendall here improved on Long, but not, we think, on Walter Pater:

"Does Penthela or does Pergamus still sit beside the bier of Verus? Chabrias or Diotimos by Hadrian's? Folly! And suppose they did, would the dead be conscious of it? or if conscious, glad? or if glad, would the mourners live on for ever? Must they not in the order of things first turn into old men and women, and then die? and when they died, what could their lovers do next? All comes to stench and refuse at last."

Or compare the renderings of a still more famous passage:

"To him, indeed, whose wit hath been whetted by true doctrine, that well-worn sentence of Homer sufficeth, to guard him against regret and fear: 'Like the race of leaves the race of man is: the wind in autumn strows the earth with old leaves; then the spring the woods with new endows.' Leaves! little leaves!—thy children, thy flatterers, thine enemies! Leaves in the wind, those who would devote thee to darkness, who scorn or miscall thee here, even as they also whose great fame shall outlast them, . . . and yet wouldst thou love and hate, as if these things should continue for ever."

So Pater. Here at any rate he is quite as literal as Mr. Rendall:

"When once true principles have been bitten in, even the shortest and most trite of precepts serves as a safeguard against the spirit of brooding or fear. For instance:

'As wind-shed leaves on the sod,
Such are the children of men.'

As autumn leaves thy little ones! and as leaves, too, the crowd who shout their heartening plaudits or heap their curses, or in secret cavil and gibe; as leaves, too, even those who will succeed to fame hereafter! . . . and yet you seek or shun as though they would last for ever."

Mr. Rendall's translation is preceded by 146 pages of introduction in the shape of essays on "The Origins of Stoicism," "The Birth of Stoicism," "Stoic Dogma," "Stoicism in History," and finally on the character and personal history of Marcus. This was done by Long also, but on a much less extensive scale. To scholars these introductory pages will probably seem more important as a contribution than the rest of the book. We can hardly suppose that the general reader who is wholly unacquainted with the language of Greek philosophy will find the first four essays interesting. But as an exposition of the Stoic doctrine for the benefit of those who already possess some knowledge of the subjects handled, they are admirable.

Mr. Rendall is not consistent in his presentation of Greek words in these essays. Since they will probably appeal chiefly to those who have a knowledge of Greek, it seems superfluous to transliterate the Greek character; it is a method which always fails of its mark, for the unlearned remains unenlightened and it is a shock to the scholar. In the word "Cynism," which Mr. Rendall uses for the more familiar "Cynicism," we suppose he aims at a literal translation of the Greek κυνισμός. But we see no good grounds for the innovation. If "Cynism," why not "Stoism"? The book is well got up, but the cover seems somewhat too decorative for such austere contents.

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A Scientist's Confession of Faith. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. 10c.
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Garnett, Richard. A History of Italian Literature. Appletons.
Griffis, W. E. The Students' Motley. The Rise of the Dutch Republic. Harpers. $1.75.
Hamblen, H. E. The General Manager's Story. Macmillan.
Hamilton, P. J. Colonial Mobile. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Huddilston, J. H. The Attitude of the Greek Tragedians toward Art. Macmillan. $1.25.
Kluge, Prof. F., and Lutz, Prof. F. English Etymology. A Select Glossary. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 60c.
Law, Ernest. The Royal Gallery of Hampton Court. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan.
Lincoln's Speeches and Addresses. [Little Masterpieces.] Doubleday & McClure Co. 30c.
Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary. H—Haversian (Vol. V.). Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Reye, Prof. Theodor. Lectures on the Geometry of Position. Part I. Macmillan. $2.25.
Robins, Edward. Benjamin Franklin. [American Men of Energy.] Putnams. $1.50.
Sargent, C. S. The Silva of North America. Vol. XI. Coniferæ. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Scollard, Clinton. A Man-at-Arms: A Romance of the Days of Gian Galeazzo Visconti. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.50.
Seth, Prof. James. A Study of Ethical Principles. 3d ed. Scribners. $2.
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Sneath, Prof. E. H. The Ethics of Hobbes, as Contained in Selections from his Works. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Some of New York's "400." American Humane Education Society.
Sullivan, T. R. Ars et Vita, and Other Stories. Scribners. $1.25.
Toller, T. N. An Anglo-Saxon Dictionary. Part IV., Section II. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 19, 1898.

The Week.

The good news comes from Washington that Gen. Merritt has put his foot down on the proposition that was originally made to send only 5,000 men, who would be chiefly untrained recruits, to the Philippine Islands, declaring that such a policy would be simply to invite another Bull Run. He points out that the Spanish have a large force in the Philippines, and he insists that the United States must also send a large force to the islands, if we expect to cope with the enemy and establish our authority. It is a great relief to know that the difficult and responsible task of organizing military support for our Admiral at Manila is committed to a soldier who demonstrates, by the requirements which he makes before he starts, that he understands what he is about, and will run no risk of disaster through underestimating the seriousness of the enterprise.

We hope the *Gussie* affair will put an end to the myth about the insurgents which has played so large a part in bringing on this war. There never has been any reason for believing there was any considerable body of insurgents either in or out of arms except "rumors" and "reports" from all sorts of people, reliable and unreliable. As to the number of the insurgents, these rumors have varied from 200 to 50,000. Their government was always as much of a phantasm as Juno or Apollo, and yet the Senate could with difficulty be prevented from recognizing them as a regular government, with a full line of belligerent rights. The march of events has apparently not had much influence in destroying this degrading superstition. The *Gussie*, with its two companies of regular infantry, appears to have started to meet these insurgents and deal out supplies and arms to them, in the old simple and childlike faith that they would be on the beach waiting for the expedition when it arrived, and that the Spaniards, hearing we had business with the insurrectionary Government, would keep respectfully away until we had transacted it. The insurgents, we need hardly say, did not put in an appearance, probably because they had important Government business to attend to. The fewer combinations we make with this Power, the better it will be for us. When one remembers that our Senate wanted to recognize it as a belligerent, we do not know that there is anything for a patriot to do but sit down and cry.

The prediction was made by Dr. Klopsch before war was declared against Spain, that if Cuba should be blockaded the reconcentrados would be starved to death within a very short time. The accounts brought from the interior of the island by Mr. Somerford, the *Herald's* correspondent in the camp of Gomez, confirm this painful forecast. He says that the condition of these poor people is worse than it has been at any former time, which means that it is worse now than it was under Weyler. Those who recall the picture drawn for us by Senator Proctor of these non-combatants, chiefly women and children, and the cartoons in *Harper's Weekly*, will pray Heaven to hasten the day of their deliverance, but it is to be feared that there will be few left to be rescued when our forces secure a lodgment on the island. Mr. Somerford says that many of them were offering their services to Gomez for the sake of food, but that he had very little for his own men, and would accept the services only of the able-bodied. The rest were turned back to the towns, where there is nothing for them.

The Administration is reported to be entertaining a call for a considerable number of colored troops. Those who favor the idea urge that the best fighters among the insurgents in Cuba are negroes; that negroes are less likely to succumb to climatic influences than whites; and that, when commanded by white officers and brought under discipline, they are likely to prove more effective than white troops. But there is no little opposition among the blacks to the plan of having negro regiments commanded by white officers. Some of the newspapers conducted by negroes advise their race not to enlist upon such terms. The Richmond (Va.) *Planet*, for example, remarks that "there is a disposition to send the troops of African descent to the rear, and the policy is being outlined that this is a war in which the Afro-Americans are to win glory only as privates, and that white men are to acquire fame as officers"; pronounces this policy an "insult," which must "arouse resentment of the most dangerous kind," and insists upon "the privilege of being officered by men of our own selection," with this as an ultimatum, "no officers, no fight." But the average negro is fond of adventure and display, and there will probably be no trouble about getting a good many black troops upon any conditions which the Government may make.

Though the Spanish cabinet has broken up, and is now in process of reconstruction, it must be said that the lull in the war for two weeks past has temporarily strengthened the Madrid Government. If other swift and terrible blows could have followed the one delivered with such deadly effect at Manila, the Government, if not the dynasty, would have gone down in ruin. But the indecisive actions on the Cuban coast and at Porto Rico, which it is easy for the official Spanish reports to interpret as glorious victories, together with the success and daring of the Spanish fleet in crossing the Atlantic and in eluding, so far, our war-ships, have given Sagasta a breathing-spell. Rioting in the provinces seems to have ceased, the Cortes has voted the desired war credits, and the Prime Minister's chief difficulty now is to strengthen his cabinet in the interest of a vigorous prosecution of the war. But this relief is only temporary. Spain's final outlook, as respects the war, remains as hopeless as it has been from the beginning, and intelligent Spaniards know it. German naval authorities utter but the general opinion when they say that the Spanish fleet is in a most dangerous position, with superior force massing against it. It may avoid battle and trust to superior speed to escape pursuit; but this would only put off the evil day, and might be as disastrous to the Spanish Government as an honorable defeat. Spain's only real hope from the first has been European intervention or a European alliance, and Great Britain's position has made and makes this impossible.

That Speaker Reed is just as much opposed to Hawaiian annexation as ever is generally assumed at Washington. It is affirmed, however, that he will acquiesce in the wish of the Republican majority of the House in favor of annexation whenever it shall be no longer open to doubt. Although the war with Spain and the capture of Manila have given a temporary *éclat* to the annexation project, it is by no means certain that the opinion of Congress will be the same six months hence. We may be and very probably shall be so surfeited with foreign complications that we shall be as ready to reject Hawaii as we were to reject San Domingo and St. Thomas at the end of the civil war. Therefore, delay is by all means to be desired in this case, and if the Speaker can give us this boon he will render the country the greatest possible service—the service of affording time for the country to make up its mind soberly whether it wants Hawaii. When the project was first brought forward and recommended by President Harrison, it would have been ratified by the Senate if a vote had been taken at once and without time for reflection. Fortunately, a vote could not

be obtained then. Time was gained for reflection, and at the end of four years even the Republican party had lost its appetite for Hawaii. Instead of demanding in its last national platform the annexation of the islands, it limited itself to the "controlling" them, which is what we have done for many years and are now doing to all intents and purposes. If President McKinley had not reversed himself suddenly and unexpectedly as regards this matter, there would not be a dozen Senators in favor of annexation to-day, and there would not be enough members of the House in favor of it to secure a call of the yeas and nays. Even after Mr. McKinley had reversed himself, the project would have failed but for the temporary fillip which it has received from the present hostilities with Spain. How important it is, then, that such a question should not be decided under the stress of war. A question which may shape the whole destiny of the United States should receive only the most sober judgment of the nation, uninfluenced by the false glamour of a war with respect to a totally different matter.

The Senate "took a day off" from war business on May 10, and adopted by more than the requisite two-thirds vote a resolution proposing to amend the Constitution of the United States by substituting the 4th of May for the 4th of March as the inauguration day of the President and Vice-President and the beginning of the terms of Senators and Representatives; the change to go into effect in 1901, and the terms of President McKinley, Vice-President Hobart, and the members of the Fifty-sixth Congress to run two months longer than would otherwise be the case. Undoubtedly a change ought to be made in regard to the time of inaugurating a President and opening the session of a new Congress, but in exactly the opposite direction. Instead of putting the date further forward two months, it ought to be brought back two months. In other words, a new President and a new Congress should assume office early in the January following their election in November, precisely as is the case with new Governors and new Legislatures in the various States. Nobody ever raises any objection to inaugurating a new executive about New Year's in the bleakest States of New England and the Northwest, and a President can just as well be installed at that time in Washington by abandoning the already overgrown and unwieldy processions and other accessories. It is every whit as essential that Congress should assemble promptly after its election as any State Legislature; but, under the amendment endorsed by the Senate, Congress would still not meet for its first regular session until thirteen months after its members are chosen. On the other hand, with the time brought forward to January, the second session could run without any limit, like the first. Now that Congressmen give so little thought to any question outside the war, it is possible that the House may concur with the Senate in the passage of the pending resolution, but it cannot endure the thorough discussion which it must meet if it shall go to the Legislatures of the various States for their consideration.

The House took its turn at amendments the next day. The measure proposed was one which would change the method by which members of the upper branch are elected. As reported from the committee, the resolution provided that United States Senators might still be chosen by the Legislature or elected by popular vote, according as the Legislature of any State should decree; and apparently the method might be changed from one to the other system as often as any State through its Legislature should order. This element of discretion aroused great opposition, Mr. Grosvenor of Ohio expressing what was obviously a widespread feeling when he urged that, under such a rule, the choice of a Senator might be made from time to time by the Legislatures "a political football"; while Mr. Powers of Vermont held that, "if you leave the option with the Legislatures, you simply provide for the perpetuation of the evils which it is sought to escape." An amendment to the original resolution making direct election by the people the invariable rule was adopted, and then it was carried by the overwhelming vote of 184 to 11.

The convention which has been sitting at New Orleans for weeks to frame a new constitution for the State of Louisiana has completed its work. The chief motive for assembling this body was to secure the practical disfranchisement of the colored voters, and this motive was openly avowed by many members. To this end, an educational test for the ballot was established, with the possession of $300 worth of property as an alternative qualification. These two provisions were designed to let in the bulk of the whites and keep out the bulk of the blacks, and would have that effect if honestly administered. But they would also disfranchise a good many whites, and this idea was intolerable to the great majority of the delegates. A most extraordinary section was therefore adopted, which is quite without precedent anywhere in the country. It provides that no man who was entitled to vote at the beginning of 1867 under the constitution or statutes of any State, *and no son or grandson of any such person* not less than twenty-one years old now, as well as no foreigner naturalized before the first of January last, shall be denied the right to vote by reason of his failure to possess the educational or property qualifications.

As no negro in the State of Louisiana was entitled to vote on the 1st of January, 1867, no black man who was an adult then, nor any son or grandson of such a negro, can vote now unless he can meet the educational or property test for the suffrage just established; whereas any white man who was entitled to vote thirty-one years ago, and his son or grandson, can vote now, no matter how great their ignorance and poverty. There seems no reason to doubt that this provision must be held plainly unconstitutional by the Supreme Court of the United States. The fifteenth amendment provides that "the right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude." The clause in question does effect denial or abridgment of the suffrage for such a reason, and there is no way of getting around this fact. Both of the United States Senators from Louisiana, as well as many other Democratic members of the Senate, have expressed their opinion that the discrimination attempted is unconstitutional and will be annulled by the courts, but no impression could be produced upon the headstrong members of the convention. There is consequently every reason to believe that the new constitution will soon be declared void in its most vital part, and that the unhappy State will be plunged into worse confusion than ever over the suffrage question.

The total enrolment of voters in this city under the new primary-election law is estimated as about 205,000. Taking the vote of last fall, 526,000, as a test of the new city's voting strength, this is not an entirely unsatisfactory showing of interest, all things considered. It indicates that in ordinary times about one-half the voting population would be likely to take enough interest in party affairs to go into the primary election. This is a much larger proportion than went into the old primaries, for the enrolled members under the old system rarely numbered more than a fourth of the voting population, and usually not more than a fifth. When we consider that the enrolment this year was made under unfavorable conditions which will not exist again, and made also in the midst of war excitement, the result is as favorable as could have been reasonably expected. What will happen when the primary elections are held, is another matter. We shall not know till then how many of those who have enrolled are machine men and how many are not. Undoubtedly a large proportion of the 205,000 are Tammanyites. The Wigwam

never allows anything to interfere with its political activities.

The high price of wheat has brought to light once more in England the old alarm about short supplies of food, in case of war or scarcity in other countries. Some of the old protectionists are again loudly demanding the construction of great Government granaries in which to store wheat against times of great scarcity abroad. Of course, the outcry will produce no practical result, for all the calmer portion of the nation has long ago made up its mind to the fact that if England is ever so shut up by a foreign enemy that she cannot get supplies from abroad, her day will be over, and there will be little use in granaries. The bulk of the population will promptly die, or emigrate. What adds bitterness to the present crisis is that the farmers are getting no benefit from the rise in wheat, as they have for a good while gone out of the business of wheat-growing. There is in England no remedy for scarcity except to keep the sea open. As long as she can do this, she will have the whole world for a granary; whenever the day comes that she cannot do this, home granaries will be of little use.

Somehow or other, we hardly know how, perhaps through the opening of China and Africa, an alliance between England and the United States has now, after one hundred years of dislike and distrust, been brought within the reach of what is called "practical politics"—that is, has been made to seem capable of realization. It is these openings which have apparently put Great Britain in need of help; it is apparently our Spanish war which has put us in need of it. It is no discredit to either that it should call for it, so that we shall not be accused of throwing any slight on the enterprise if we say that Mr. Chamberlain's cries for it are a very cogent sign of English eagerness for it. He is not the man to shout for it if there was not a strong tide running that way. The Salisbury ministry has suffered terribly in the Russo-Chinese matter. Defeats at bye-elections are the order of the day. The benefits the Tories were to experience from Mr. Chamberlain's coöperation have not "materialized," to use our slang. The colonies have not been turned into "neglected estates"; they have not set up a zollverein with Great Britain; the pride of old Krüger has not been humbled; the Irish have not yet been won over, and, worse than all, Mr. Chamberlain, clever as he is, has not won the Tories over, though none of them denies his cleverness. It is, therefore, no wonder Mr. Chamberlain waves the American flag, and calls the whole Anglo-Saxon race to his assistance. He has never summoned anything so potent from the "vasty deep" of his versatility. It will get him out of his scrape if anything will. It is the only card that he can now play with any hope of success. It is what will break up the combination against England in the East, if anything will, without a real trial of strength. To have this combination succeed against England would mean the rolling back of the tide of civilization for at least a century.

There are signs of a change in the Parisian press in its attitude towards this country. From what we can learn, the general public never shared in the newspaper feeling, or assumed feeling, against America. French shopkeepers and artists remain as willing to see the color of American gold as ever, and say so. The annual harvest from American tourists will be much curtailed this year, and its despondent reapers in France say it will never do to make this condition of things permanent. They read, perhaps, in the *Contemporary*, that "Americans are pouring into London now with almost the same enthusiasm and with probably as much enjoyment as they once poured into Paris, and they are received everywhere with kindness and appreciation," and they ask, Are we not going a little too far in this business of sympathy with Spain? Then there is the great Exposition of 1900, at which it is hoped the Americans will figure brilliantly; is it wise for us, Frenchmen are beginning to ask, to make it difficult for the American Congress to vote money for that purpose? All these considerations, as we say, are beginning to make themselves felt in the press. The *Figaro* has been one of the most violent, yet it closes its latest article on the subject with these words:

> "Americans may continue to visit Paris with perfect freedom; they will find that they are not in the slightest degree personally unpopular here, even though the policy of Congress and President is generally disapproved among us. Race hatred and all the stupidities about the conflict between the Anglo-Saxons and the Latins go for nothing here. We think and speak from motives quite foreign to ethnology and general history. . . . Undoubtedly our sympathy with Spain exists, and it is perfectly reasonable and will persist. But it relates simply to our position vis-à-vis with a friendly and neighboring Power, and neither affects nor changes our general policy."

A writer in the *Monde Économique* was explaining to sceptical Frenchmen, just before the battle of Manila came to prove his assertions true, that the American navy was a highly trained and disciplined body. The popular opinion in Europe, particularly in Spain, that American naval officers were a lot of roaring sea-dogs, brave, perhaps, but ignorant and inexperienced, was an entire mistake, this writer declared. He pointed out the thorough course of instruction at Annapolis and Newport, showed how promotion depended strictly on seniority, and affirmed that the service was in a high state of efficiency, the officers being skilled and of a "correction glaciale." Our navy, in other words, has not been bedevilled by politics. No one ever asks from what part of the country any captain or commodore assigned to an important command comes, who is his boss and what was his "pull." We heard complaints the other day that the President, in his staff appointments to the army, had discriminated against the South. That is, the appointments were so many "plums," to be distributed as favors, and placed where they would do the most good politically. No such question can arise respecting the navy. The admirals may all come from one section, and no one cares. If they are fit for their work—and their appointments are always earned—their State, their politics are absolutely left out of the account. Luckily we have another protection than the mere traditions of the navy to guard us against having the service stuffed with politicians. Aside from all question of fitness, they would be so truly uncomfortable at sea, thrown into contact with high-toned gentlemen, they would be so disabled from carrying primaries and controlling conventions, when stationed at Joppa or Pernambuco, that they themselves would see absolutely nothing "in it" for them.

The French are finding the work of administering colonies under a democratic government a thorny business. Jules Lemaître has been discussing some of the difficulties, theoretical and practical. One of the greatest of these is the necessary flat repudiation of the principles of self-government in colonies peopled by savages. Lemaître quotes the protest of an ardent young French republican against the methods pursued in Madagascar: "Our armies have gone to Madagascar to murder a child-like people who have as much right as we have to be free, to govern themselves, and to own the land left them by their ancestors. We have shamefully plundered them, and, in the name of civilization, have imposed upon them servitude, Jesuitism, and prostitution." This recalls Mr. Gladstone's indignant assertion that the Sudanese were "brave men struggling to be free." It is, indeed, a difficult feat for democracy to swallow its fine words about the rights of man, and to go brutally ahead on the supposition that Malagasy and Sudanese and Philippine Islander have no rights which a conquering republic is bound to respect; but a democracy is no more obliged to be consistent, when it does not want to be, than any other form of government, and there are many signs, in these latter days, as at the time of the Mexican war, that

> "A marciful Providence fashioned us holler
> O' purpose thet we might our principles swaller."

GOVERNING AT A DISTANCE.

The selection of Gen. Merritt as Military Governor of the Philippine Islands for the United States initiates the first experiment which this nation has ever tried in the control of a territory at a great remove from our shores. Alaska, to be sure, is separated from our Northwestern States by a stretch of British territory, but it is not far enough away to seem out of touch with our earlier possessions on the Pacific Coast. The Philippines, on the other hand, are about half way round the earth, and as remote from any association of traditions and interests with this nation as from easy communication.

It is a curious and yet characteristic illustration of the surprises of war that the government of the Philippines was not thought of, even no longer than a month ago, as a matter which could have any concern for us. Nobody supposed that the expected collision with Spain over Cuba was going to involve us, almost at once, in the most serious complications in the Far East. But the first naval battle of the war, complete victory for our side as it was, opened the eyes of our people to a fact which they had not before suspected—that the authorities at Washington must govern, temporarily at least, Manila, and the archipelago of which it is the commercial centre.

A military governor is the only sort that should even be thought of now, although there have been signs that the politicians were already planning to secure the place for one of their school. Gen. Merritt represents exactly the right type of military governor. He has risen to distinction in the army by precisely the same qualities through which Dewey made his way to prominence in the navy, and he is admirably fitted to supplement on shore the Admiral's work on the water. The first job before them will be to gather forces enough in Manila Bay not simply to take possession of the city, but also to end the anarchy which now prevails throughout the islands. This cannot prove the picnic excursion which some of the volunteers on the Pacific Coast seem to regard it. The climate of the Philippines in the summer will be very hard for men bred in the Rocky Mountain region, and the plague is always to be dreaded in that part of the world.

A precedent for Gen. Merritt's action when he shall have been installed in his new office may be found in the instructions issued for the government of the Union armies during the civil war. These declared that martial law in a hostile country consists in the suspension by the occupying military authority of the criminal and civil law, and of domestic administration and government in the occupied territory, and in the substitution of military rule as far as military necessity requires their suspension and substitution. But the commander of the occupying forces was allowed wide discretion, and he might proclaim the continuance, in whole or in part, of the civil and criminal law, as in time of peace, until otherwise ordered. If martial law were proclaimed, the instructions issued in 1863 inculcated upon the military the observance of the principles of "justice, honor, and humanity, virtues adorning a soldier even more than other men, for the reason that he possesses the power of his arms against the unarmed."

But military government is always regarded as only a temporary expedient. Supposing that the United States should retain permanent possession of the Philippines, how could they be ruled under our Constitution? The general impression undoubtedly is that there is no provision for the government of such a region in any other way than as a Territory, with local home rule, which should some day become a State. As nobody can conceive of the Philippines ever being fit for statehood in our Union, most people would say off-hand that of course they could not become a Territory. Goldwin Smith recently suggested that an amendment of our Constitution seemed a necessary prerequisite to a colonial system for the United States.

The truth is, however, that Congress enjoys ample power for the regulation of distant regions which nobody contemplates as possible States. The fourth article of the Constitution declares, among other things, that "the Congress shall have power to dispose of, and make all needful rules and regulations respecting, the territory or other property belonging to the United States." When the Constitution was adopted, the general Government had acquired the vast region included in what was then known as the Northwest Territory, and the ordinance for the control of this region, passed by the Continental Congress on the 13th of July, 1787, shows that "the fathers" considered the power of Congress absolute. For example, the whole authority in any territorial government to be established within this vast tract was confided in the first instance to a governor and judges, who were to be subject to the control of Congress. Provision was made for the establishment of a Legislature, with large powers, whenever such a territory should contain 5,000 inhabitants, but this privilege might have been denied indefinitely. Story, in commenting upon this clause of the Constitution, after the Louisiana purchase and the acquisition of Florida, remarked that "these territories, subject to the treaty stipulations under which they were acquired, are of course under the general regulation of Congress, so far as the power has not been or may not be parted with by erecting them into States."

There will be no trouble, so far as the letter of the Constitution is concerned, about governing the Philippines in any way that Congress likes. The fundamental obstacle to such an experiment is in the spirit of that instrument. Its framers obviously contemplated only territories which should be early fitted to govern themselves in local affairs, like the colonies which entered into the Union, and which should soon be qualified to share on equal terms with these colonies in the government of the whole nation. The idea of an ignorant and half-savage population of millions, on the other side of the world, unfit to govern themselves, and only to be ruled by force, as part of the American republic, would have seemed intolerable to them. Is there any reason why it should not seem equally intolerable to their descendants to-day?

It is argued that we have outgrown the American continent, that the Monroe Doctrine is too small for us, that the teachings of Washington were fit only for the time when they were uttered, that we ought to branch out in the world, that we ought to be within striking distance of China, and prepared to vindicate our rights in Asia, etc. These notions are reverberating to some extent in the columns of the Chicago *Tribune* and some other Western papers, but they find scant support in the East or the South. It is sufficient to say now that such a policy involves a complete change in our destiny, political, military, and naval. It requires us to arm ourselves like the Powers of Europe. If we are to bring ourselves into close neighborhood with them, we must expect to have more friction with them than we have had heretofore. If we are to do the things that they do, we must have the same tools that they possess—that is, a standing army and a great navy. A mere navy will not serve the purpose, as we now see. We must be able to mobilize land forces instantly in the same way that they do, and be prepared to send them to any quarter of the globe at short notice. The reflex action of a large standing army on our domestic institutions is a matter that has not been considered by the advocates of Philippinedom. Nor does the cost of the proposed army and navy give them any uneasiness. Yet if we dance to the tune of the colonial Powers, we must pay the piper. At present we pay in the form of pensions what they pay for great armies and navies. But we shall not get rid of pensions by adopting their scale of military establishment. On the contrary, we shall lay the foundation for new pension lists, which will of course be gauged by the standard of the present ones. These are a few of the questions that will demand thoughtful consideration and debate whenever the terms of peace with Spain become questions of practical statesmanship.

Meanwhile, assuming that a colonial

policy is good policy and likely to be carried out, what we wish to point out is that even these triumphs which have excited us so much, had to be prepared for, and that through long years. Dewey, for instance, in order to do what he has done in the Philippine Islands, had to begin his education forty years ago. His captains and lieutenants had to begin theirs ten years ago. The very ships in which he fought are the result of many years of close study and preparation. This is true of the whole army and navy with which we expect to make the prodigious figure in the world to which our Jingoes are looking forward. In order not to collapse ridiculously as the Spaniards have collapsed—in order, in short, to run the career of glory which we covet—we must prepare to organize and to govern. Therefore, it will not do to vote money and build ships, simply, and drill armies and sailors. If we are going to annex and rule over countries the population of which differs from us in race, religion, language, in history and every variety of antecedent, and who will probably hate us and treat our rule as a "yoke," we shall have to get administrators ready, as well as guns and ships. We shall have to do what the other conquering and colonizing nations do, what England does, what Russia and Germany do.

We hope this branch of the subject is going to enter into the popular thought along with victories and "bombardments." For expansion we have a navy and army all ready, or nearly ready, but we have no statesmen or machinery of government ready. We have, since the beginning of the century, undertaken to rule subject peoples twice. One was the Indians; every one knows what a fist we have made of that. Our Indian administration has been one of the scandals of the century, and philanthropists have to this day to keep constantly at work, in order to prevent the return or perpetuation of tyranny or abuse. The second was the conquered South after the war. We decided that it was necessary to keep control of it for ten years after we had subdued it. Every person over thirty years of age remembers how we did it. We sent down large bands of characterless adventurers called "carpet-baggers" to humiliate the vanquished and plunder them, until the abuse grew too strong to be defended or even apologized for.

Unless we now make preparations for something better, along with our schemes of conquest, we must proceed to govern the Philippine Islands and Cuba as we governed South Carolina, and as we have governed and are, to some extent, still governing the Indians, and as we fill our embassies and consulates. That is, we must govern them by "pull." We must give every post which is to represent our power and civilization abroad to a powerful Senator, no matter how ignorant, silly, or corrupt we may know him to be, or to one of his "men" who has been useful to him in his State in securing his renomination and reëlection. Having received it, he will proceed to put in practice his old methods in his new position. His "henchmen" will follow him in crowds over the sea. By arrangement with him Congressmen will sell places under him to the highest bidder, as they sell post-offices to-day under Quay in Pennsylvania. The figure we shall cut after even twenty-five years of this will furnish an interesting chapter to history, but it will not be nearly as glorious as our triumphs in war.

THE CHURCH IN THE WAR.

We hoped, when this war began, that, owing to the progress of civilization and saner ideas as to the nature and functions of religion, we should be spared the old spectacle of the clergy on each side praying and singing Te Deums against each other. But we are evidently in advance of the times. The war had hardly begun when many of our own Protestant ministers began to support the war vigorously in the pulpit, and handle its opponents without gloves. Praying against the Spaniards, or, what is the same thing, praying that our own men might not be hurt by them, was thrown in as a sort of extra. This suggested to us some curious reflections as to the consequences that would have followed a war with England, which at one time seemed likely over the Venezuela affair. Here the scandal of a bellicose clergy would have been twice as great as in a war with a Catholic country like Spain, because we belong to the same form of Christian faith and are divided among the same denominations. Episcopalians on each side would have prayed against Episcopalians on the other, Baptists against Baptists, Methodists against Methodists, and so on. But the prospect did not seem to depress the Jingoes in the least. Each American denomination, too, would have given a shocking account of the motives of their English brother Christians in carrying on the war, and the English Christians would have given them as good as they got. In fact, it would have been an eminently Christian war. The unseemliness of the spectacle, and the fun it would have afforded the sceptics, would have troubled only very few.

We hardly supposed, however, that the Catholic clergy would have shown the same want of self-restraint. They used, to be sure, to sing Te Deums on both sides in the old wars, but this was when God was really believed to take a hand in the fighting, and when the result, as in the "wager of battle," was held to indicate which side he took. In more recent times it has been the custom of the Church to "lie low" in war, so to speak—mainly, we fear, because the fighting men have grown more incredulous and more indifferent about divine aid when they are doing their slaughtering. We have, therefore, been surprised to see the outbreak of a difference of opinion between the Catholic bishops of Spain and those of the United States not only concerning the war, but concerning the character and motives of the people who are carrying it on. This is what our Catholic bishops said on Tuesday week:

> "A resort to arms was determined upon by the Chief Executive of the nation, with the advice of both houses of Congress, and after consultation with his cabinet officers, but not until after every effort had been exhausted to bring about an honorable and peaceful solution of our difficulties with Spain. The patient calmness, the dignified forbearance, the subdued firmness of President McKinley during the trying time that intervened between the destruction of the *Maine* and the declaration, are beyond all praise, and should command the admiration of every true American. . . . If, as we are taught by our holy church, love of country is, next to love of God, a duty imposed on us by all laws, human and divine, then it is our duty to labor and to pray for the temporal and spiritual well-being of the brave soldiers who are battling for our beloved country. Let us faithfully beg the God of battles to crown their arms on land and sea with victory and triumph, and to stay unnecessary effusion of blood, and speedily to restore peace to our beloved land and people. . . . We also direct that prayers for the brave soldiers and sailors that fall in battle be said every day after a mass. These prayers shall be said aloud with the people, and shall be one Our Father and one Hail Mary, and the De Profundis."

This is what the French call a "vœu" that our soldiers may kill enough Spaniards to give them the victory, and the inference is that the Spaniards are bad fellows who deserve what they are going to get.

But this is by no means the view of the Spanish bishops. Here is a pastoral letter put out by the Bishop of Madrid, which he orders to be read in all his churches, and with which, undoubtedly, the other Spanish bishops agree—and they are twice as numerous as ours, and therefore more likely to be right. He says that what has caused the war is "accursed greed for gold, and our [American] insatiable love of domination." He then adds that "we [the Americans] have trampled justice under foot; have misinterpreted the Pope's word; have repulsed the intervention of the Powers with arrogance; have closed all roads to the counsels of peace, and rendered necessary the horrors of war; that God is witness that Spaniards are not the authors of this disaster, and that the proud people whose dogma seems to be that gold is the god of this world, must answer for it before the Eternal."

This does not seem very clarifying. What we quote is a translation, but we have made it ourselves to the best of our ability. When we find the clergy of the oldest of the Christian churches taking such diametrically opposite ground, we may well ask whether some of our own have not gone wrong. Our Methodist brethren, for instance, have also

emitted a "vœu" to the effect that Spain ought to be wiped out of the list of nations by armed force simply for "its sacrilegious pretext of claiming to be a Christian nation"—a doctrine to which few if any of the other Protestant denominations would agree. And yet there must be some truth at the bottom of it, or so large a body of professing Christians would not hold it. But it seems to us to involve the killing of this Bishop at Madrid, to which Cardinal Gibbons would object, as not a necessary operation of war. But suppose our Government said it was, would he not, under his own manifesto, be obliged to approve of it? In fact, we know of nothing in human affairs which produces so much moral and religious confusion as the appearance of the clergy on the battle-field to instruct the Almighty as to the merits of the quarrel.

THE ITALIAN TROUBLE.

Of course, there is a certain connection between the riots in Italy and the high price of bread, but, apparently, only in the fact that the high price of bread made a rising for other causes opportune. What we call riots have been in reality an insurrection, long planned and vigorously carried out. The first proof of this lies in the fact that the fiercest and most protracted resistance has not occurred in the poor districts, but in the rich ones. Milan, for instance, seems to have been the headquarters of the disturbances, and Milan is the most prosperous and growing city in Italy. Its population has increased 200,000 since the establishment of the kingdom. It is at the same time the seat of the most savage and truculent anarchist agitation ever seen anywhere. The two newspapers which have been suppressed surpassed, in the violence of their attacks on the existing social order and on the capitalists and the rich generally, any which have ever appeared in France. The Bishop of Milan, too, from whom these journals have received steady encouragement, is a bitter and blatant opponent of the Italian Government, the fomenter of every intrigue intended to obstruct the success of the new régime and bring it into disrepute. Moreover, his character, according to the report of the Liberals, is in all respects bad.

Another important fact is that hitherto class hatred has never shown itself in Italy. The relations of the employer and employed have from the earliest times been excellent, and so have been those of the landlord and tenant. This state of things may, of course, be ascribed, in part at least, to the fact that Italian manufactures have until now been mainly the product of "home industry." It is only recently that large bodies of "factory hands" have been congregated in the towns, and that there has arisen a "labor question" of any sort. The good relations between landlord and tenant, too, have doubtless been due to the prevalence of the "métayer" system, in which the rent consists of a certain proportion of the produce, and thus leaves no room for the old Irish quarrel about it. But, for whatever reason, the employers and the employed have lived all through Italy's checkered history on tolerably good terms. Even ten years ago there was no sign on Italian soil of the modern French and German socialism or anarchy, or of the class hatred left behind in France by the Revolution.

But there has been one source of opposition to the new régime from which waters of bitterness and hostility have not ceased to flow for thirty years—the determination of the papacy to get back possession of Rome, by hook or by crook. Appeals to the faithful, on the ground that the Pope could not discharge his great functions properly unless he had territory of his own, which he ruled as sovereign; representations to foreign Powers touching the danger to the possessions of all sovereigns which would follow if the Italian treatment of the Supreme Pontiff received continued international sanction; careful fanning of all causes of popular discontent, such as the conscription and increased taxation; the magnification of all cases of jobbery and corruption which were revealed at Rome (and there were a good many), have all been vigorously used for years to bring the new kingdom into trouble, apparently on the theory which led the Comte de Paris to strike up an alliance with Boulanger—that any trouble of any sort would redound to the benefit of the papacy.

But it was not until about three years ago that the enemies of the kingdom seem to have formed an alliance with the socialists and anarchists. A regular anti-social agitation was suddenly set on foot all over the country. Newspapers like those of Milan became fierce denouncers of the existing social order. The priests began to inveigh against the rich and the employing class generally, in all or a great many of the little village churches. Clubs were started all through the country, holding meetings once a week, at which the upper and middle classes were fiercely denounced, and at which the village curé was often the principal orator and painted the senseless luxury of the rich in glowing colors.

The remedy for all this was plain enough. The monarchy was to be overturned, and all the old states of Italy were to be revived as little republics—not one big republic, for that would be as bad as a monarchy. The new republics were to manage their affairs in their own way. The taxes were to be light and there was to be no standing army. But, most important of all, the Pope was to have his own again. He was to get back his papal states, and all the republics were to form a federation, of which he was to be the president, or head of some sort.

A good many attempts have been made by the Government to bring some of the agitators to justice, and many have been convicted; but the ministry has been weak, and the King has been weak, and both have placed an absurd reliance on conciliation, forgetting that in every country in which anarchists have shown themselves they have always treated attempts to appease them as signs of fear or confessions of guilt. As a rule, therefore, they were pardoned in Italy, or released after a very short imprisonment. Consequently, when they were ready, they broke out into open war in the old French fashion, erecting barricades in the streets, and throwing tiles from the roofs of the houses, and naturally using dear bread as their war cry, and making their greatest effort in the place where the price of bread made the least difference. The socialist propaganda has been made even more vigorously in the army than elsewhere. Had it made any impression, as many feared it would, we should have had a revolution in Italy, nobody knows with what results. But the troops not only stood firm, but have displayed that mixture of gallantry and remorselessness which is what anarchists seem to need. What has occurred in Milan will probably prove a most useful lesson to them as well as to the Government.

THE COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA BILL.

The bill for the confederation of the Australian colonies which has been framed by the delegates elected by the latter for that purpose, and is shortly to be submitted to the votes of the electors in the different colonies before the Imperial Parliament is asked to pass it, is decidedly flattering to American institutions. The very word "commonwealth" is suggestive of what is to follow. The Canadians, when they framed a federal constitution for themselves at the conference in Quebec in 1864, desired to call their confederation the "Kingdom of Canada," but the term "Dominion" was substituted, and the late Sir John Macdonald in a letter to Lord Knutsford, printed in the recent life of that statesman by Mr. Joseph Pope, says that the change was made by Lord Derby, then Foreign Minister, "who feared the first name would wound the sensibilities of the Yankees." Whether the term Dominion was itself suggested by the term "the Old Dominion" as applied to Virginia, so far as we are aware, history does not reveal. The Australians at any rate show a liking not only for many of the features, but also for many of the terms, used in our Constitution. Their country is to be called a "commonwealth," their federal popular House a "House of Representa-

tives," and their component provinces "States."

But in far more important matters than these the framers of the Australian scheme have followed our example in preference to that of Canada, which adhered in every possible way to the forms and principles of the British Constitution. In fact, the Constitution of the Commonwealth of Australia will, if the present bill be adopted, be such a curious amalgam of the constitutions of the United States and of Great Britain and Canada that it would indeed require one to be profoundly versed in constitutional lore to foresee the course of its future development. Executive authority is to be represented by a Governor-General appointed by the Queen, as in Canada, and the system of parliamentary cabinet government is secured by the provisions that the Queen's Ministers of State for the Commonwealth may be chosen and sit either as Senators or members of the House of Representatives, and are to hold office during the pleasure of the Governor-General, who may from time to time dissolve the House of Representatives. It is indeed expressly provided that no Minister of State shall hold office for a longer period than three months unless he is or becomes a Senator or a member of the popular House. Thus the Australians evidently prefer the British system to that separation of executive from legislative power which the fathers, influenced largely by the teachings of Montesquieu, laid such stress upon in our case, but which, in truth, has many adverse critics within our own borders.

On the other hand, the Australian Senate is framed upon the model of ours, since each of the colonies coming into confederation is to have the right to elect an equal number of Senators. Senators, moreover, are not to be nominated by the crown for life, as in Canada, but are to be directly chosen by the people of the States, and their term of office is to be six years, and their qualifications the same as those of a member of the House of Representatives, and their seats are to be vacated by a system of rotation similar to our own. Thus it is clear that, representing as they will do peculiarly the federal element in the Constitution, their relation to the popular House can scarcely be the same as that of the Senate in Canada, which, in reference to the Canadian House of Commons, is bound by the same conventions as those which regulate the House of Lords in England. A very original provision, moreover, which must differentiate its position from either the Canadian Senate or our own, is that, in the event of a deadlock arising between the two houses over some proposed measure, the Senate itself may be dissolved and a new election had, after which, if necessary, a joint sitting of the two houses is to be convened, and if the measure in dispute is affirmed by three-fifths of the members present and voting thereon, it is to be taken as duly passed by both houses of Parliament.

Again, in respect to the distribution of legislative power between the Federal Parliament and the State Parliaments, the scheme of our Constitution is adopted in preference to the Canadian. The only powers granted are, as with us, granted to the Federal Legislature, and, as with us, they are for the most part not expressed to be exclusive, but the various States are left free to legislate upon the like subjects, though where their laws are inconsistent with the law of the Commonwealth the latter is to prevail. Thus, as with us, the Federal Legislature is to be one of enumerated powers, whereas in Canada certain specific enumerated powers alone are granted to the provinces; and although certain other powers are specifically and exclusively granted to the Dominion Parliament, that body has also a general legislative power on non-provincial subjects which is not conceded to our Congress or to the Federal Legislature under the Australian scheme. We notice, however, that the Australians have followed the Canadian example by placing marriage and divorce in the hands of the federal body, but not the general criminal law as the Canadians do.

Thirdly, and this seems somewhat surprising and more than anything else outside of British analogy, there is apparently to be in Australia, as with us, no federal veto power over State acts, at least there is no express provision in the bill in that regard. But since the provision, "the Constitution of each State of the Commonwealth shall, subject to this Constitution, continue as at the establishment of the Commonwealth," seems to imply that Governors of each State will continue to be appointed by the imperial authorities, it may be that a federal veto power will in effect be indirectly exercisable by the Governor-General by reason of the State Governors, under instructions, reserving acts for the Queen's pleasure. It seems curious, however, that there should not be express provision on the point in the Constitution.

Lastly, a very marked divergence from the Canadian scheme and approximation to our own is to be found in the provisions as to federal courts. The provisions for the creation of federal courts and as to the jurisdiction which they are to exercise are very similar to those found in our own Constitution, whereas in Canada the only federal courts are the Supreme Court and the Exchequer Court at Ottawa, the latter dealing with claims against the crown and revenue cases, and the former with appeals from it and from the various provincial courts. For the rest, the administration of law and justice lies entirely in the provincial courts.

On the whole, we should say that the Australian scheme provides for a good deal looser union of the various colonies than exists in Canada, and it is framed on such eclectic principles that its future, if it is destined to come into operation, is likely to be unusually interesting. In any result, the Imperial Parliament, with its paramount authority, is always available as a *deus ex machina* in case of need.

ECONOMIC TRANSITION IN JAPAN.

TOKYO, April 20, 1898.

It is a growing complaint of travellers who come to visit Japan that the country is fast losing its attractiveness, owing to the rapid process of Westernization. The introduction of machinery has necessitated the use of coal, coal implies chimneys, chimneys produce smoke and disfigure the landscape. The chief cities and towns of Japan have gradually acquired, in place of their old picturesqueness and grace, many of the disagreeable characteristics of modern Western civilization. Osaka, the chief manufacturing centre of the country, has much the appearance of Chicago when approached by rail. Railways, telegraphs, banks, street-cars, electric-lighting, telephones, factories, and all the material paraphernalia of modern methods of industrial life have been introduced with wonderful rapidity into Japan. Newspapers are ridiculously cheap and numerous. Even strikes and lockouts are becoming commonplace in the more important centres of production. The rise or fall of the rate of interest determined by the Bank of Japan excites almost as much discussion in the daily press as does a change in the bank rate in England.

While the criticism of the travellers who come to see the æsthetic side of Japanese life has a good deal of truth in it, the country has in its economic development new interests that make up for the loss of the old. The very fact that Japan is in a transition state gives it a peculiar place among countries. Here are to be seen side by side the old forms and the new—very much as they existed in England at the beginning of this century; only, for certain reasons, without the abject and harsh features that characterized English industrial changes. In Japan the transition is rapid, yet not so rapid as to disorganize any great class of laborers. The Japanese laborers have a facility, an adaptability and simplicity of living which the English laborer did not have. These qualities enable him to change his occupation without a severe wrench. The low wages that exist (without, however, implying a debased standard of life) and the general prosperity of the nation are also factors that have saved him from the evils that commonly accompany the competition of machinery with hand labor.

Even in the kinds of industry most dominated by machinery, the artisan, with only his manual dexterity and a few of the simplest tools, may still compete with factory labor. Perhaps the best example of the triumph of machinery in Japan is the cotton-spinning industry. About 900,000 spindles are at work, and several hundred thousand more will soon be put into operation when some new factories now in process of construction are finished. Yet hand spinning still holds its own in many kinds of yarns.

Japanese who need to buy cheap, strong clothes say that machine-spun yarns make very nice-looking cloth, but that it does not wear so well as the cloth made of hand-spun thread. The ordinary clothes of the vast mass of the peasantry and the working people in the cities are for the most part home-spun even at the present time. A common sound in the country towns is the hum of hand spinning, and very occasionally it is heard in Tokyo, though in the latter place the practice is certainly dying out. As for weaving, the hand-loom is in almost complete possession still. A few Jacquard power-looms are used in Kyoto for the manufacture of certain fine silks, and there are also a few power-loom factories for the production of cottons, but their total output makes scarcely an impression upon the whole production of the country. In the country districts nearly every house has a small hand-loom, which occupies the time of the female portion of the household during the winter months.

The looms used in the weaving of cottons and silks are for the most part as simple as those used in India thousands of years ago. In England it was thought a considerable advance when, in 1738, Kay invented his fly-shuttle, as, among other things, it enabled one man instead of two to weave the widest kinds of cloth. But the advantages of this shuttle would scarcely be felt in Japan, where the cloth is so narrow that the weaver finds no difficulty in throwing his shuttle. Ordinary cottons and silks are generally about a foot or a foot and a half in width, and the widest Japanese textiles are not over twenty-eight inches. What is most astonishing to the Western mind is the simplicity of the means necessary to attain the results. The looms seem scarcely more than a few pieces of wood well joined together by a carpenter. The beautiful and gorgeous silk *obi* worn generally by the *geisha* of Japan are woven in these simple looms among humble surroundings, and the workmen or workwomen get no more than the ordinary wages.

Defoe, in his 'Tour through the Island of Great Britain,' published in 1724, gives excellent pictures here and there of the condition of English industry in those days—a condition hard for a modern Englishman to realize except by much detailed study and a considerable exercise of the imagination. In Japan one finds at every turn reminders of the state of things as Defoe saw them. "The houses," he says in describing Halifax, "are full of lusty fellows, some of them at the dye-vat, some at the looms, others dressing the cloth; the women and children carding and spinning; being all employed, from the youngest to the oldest." With a few changes of detail, this scene could be easily paralleled in Japan at the present day. The apprentice system, while perhaps never so firmly rooted in Japan as it once was in Europe, still flourishes vigorously in this Eastern country. A boy is commonly indentured at the age of ten, eleven, or twelve years, and is bound for five years, though until lately the period was seven years—the same length of time as prescribed in England in the statute of Fifth Elizabeth. The master secures the services of the apprentice during these years, and furnishes only food, clothing, and shelter. There are no laws regulating the system in Japan, but an apprentice who fails to work out the entire five years finds it impossible to secure work elsewhere. There are some curious and ancient customs still surviving among this class which remind one irresistibly of the customs of apprentices in European countries in the seventeenth century.

Other class customs and feelings still persist to a great extent in Japan, and have their part in moderating the effect of the economic revolution now going on. The artisans for the most part remain artisans, the peasants continue peasants, and the small tradesmen are tradesmen still, as of old. In the cities the changes are most rapid, and the contrast between old and new greatest. Government officials, shipping and railway employees, bankers and bank clerks generally wear foreign clothes, often of the latest fashion. Some of them are members of clubs, speak English, and not infrequently are men of the world in the best sense of the term. The artisans and shopkeepers wear much the same dress that the same class wore centuries ago. The nattiest silk umbrella in the hands of the bank cashier changes to the picturesque oil-paper umbrella in the hands of the shopkeeper, while the peasant wears what is probably the earliest form of protection from rain, the *mino*, a suit made of straw or hemp, which is to be seen in the most ancient pictures of Japanese life. The first may cost five yen, the second fifty sen, the last twenty sen, and they all last about the same length of time. In the country, old customs naturally persist the longest. Agriculture is much the same as it was centuries ago, though some changes are noticeable. The mulberry is more extensively cultivated, owing to the foreign demand for raw silk, and in many districts filiature factories dot the landscape. Domestic industries which have for the most part died out in America are very numerous in Japan. The country people make their own clothes, their own beverage (saké), and other articles of consumption which an American farmer would buy. In the winter time the peasants occupy their spare time in making straw sandals or similar articles. Farmers generally have their own rice-mills, run by water-power, for the hulling of rice; and in making rice-flour they use the stone hand-mill, nearly in all respects similar to that used in Palestine by the ancient Jews.

To see this homely, domestic, industrious life of the peasantry of Japan gives us an increased feeling of respect for the work of our forefathers. It is a frugal, laborious, somewhat monotonous life, but it is free from the noise and worry of modern commercialism and speculative crises. Undoubtedly the large capitalistic system of production in America and Europe is of greater power, but it has its own drawbacks. It certainly has not tended to unite men's interests, socially or politically. It has established a new class division. It produces hurry, excitement, and the race for wealth. In the large manufacturing centres of Japan, precisely the same phenomena are observable as are seen in the large cities of the West.

G. D.

THE WIFE OF SOBIESKI.

PARIS, May 5, 1898.

M. Waliszewski is a prolific writer. He is taking advantage of the interest in anything Russian felt at the present moment in France. Since the conclusion of the Franco-Russian alliance, we can repeat what Voltaire said in his time:

"C'est du Nord aujourd'hui que nous vient la lumière."

Voltaire notwithstanding, France remained very ignorant of the history of Russia, and M. Waliszewski's books, ill-written as they are, have had their utility in making us a little better acquainted with the predecessors of our present "friends." In his latest book, which has just been published, M. Waliszewski has taken for the centre of a new historical study a queen of Poland, the wife of Sobieski, Marysienska.

Who was Marysienska? asks M. Waliszewski, speaking of his own heroine. He answers thus:

"A French woman who was thus named in Poland, where she became a queen. It is all one to you; and so it is to me, I would willingly say, if there were nothing else in this adventure. It is not without interest to know that this daughter of a mere captain of the guards of Monsieur, a beggarly officer of doubtful reputation, set to work to become the successor of an Austrian archduchess on one of the finest thrones in Europe. But there is more to note in this fragment of history. There is more even than the curious, very complicated and obscure episode of the numerous French candidacies for the throne of Poland . . . which we find in connection with this strange fortune, either helping it or being helped by it. For the great Condé appears in it, and Mazarin, and De Lionne, and the *grand Roi*. But there is still more . . . there is Sobieski."

M. Waliszewski affects to give us a psychological page of history: he shows us not Sobieski the hero, the lover; he offers us "a romance and a correspondence which not only are curious and amusing, but are, I really believe, unique. People have not twice loved, twice written, like this—at least on the heights of a grandiose destiny and in the domain of living realities." I translate this last phrase to give an idea of the somewhat bombastic and pretentious style of the author.

M. Waliszewski has abandoned the modern method of severe documentation; he does not consider history one of the exact sciences, and he thinks that modern historians have been wrong in sacrificing everything to what they consider exactitude. He criticises this method and returns to the methods of the ancients.

"Ask," he says, "ten witnesses of an accident which has thrown a street into commotion: in the third account, you will hear that the coachman who ran over a foot passenger has become a velocipedist run over by an omnibus. This is how we write history. Does history, however, contain not a particle of truth? I would not be an historian if I thought so. But this particle of truth seems to me to belong even more to intuition than to study; and therefore I am disposed to say of history what the great statesman of Germany said of diplomacy, 'It is an art rather than a science.'"

It is fortunate that M. Waliszewski, though he has introduced much "intuition" into his work, and has even invented dialogues and conversations, in imitation of Herodotus and Thucydides, has on the whole remained in the domain of facts and of historical criticism. He has taken the trouble to delve in many archives, especially in those of Chantilly, which are very rich in his chosen subject. His true heroine is, in fact, a friend of the great Condé—I speak not now of Marysienska, but of Marie de Gonzague, who became Queen of Poland. Marie de Gonzague was a very remarkable person. She belonged to that mixed race which had German, Italian, Spanish, French, and Greek blood in its veins. They owned

three dukedoms—Clèves, Nevers, and Rethel. At the age of eighteen Marie inspired a passion in Gaston d'Orléans. She had among her admirers Cinq-Mars and the Duc d'Enghien, who became the great Condé. Her father died in 1637, and she inherited from him the dukedom of Nevers and the magnificent hôtel de Nevers (near the Pont-Neuf). There she became one of the queens of the period of the Fronde, and Mazarin had to count with her. Mazarin was not sorry to marry her out of France to the King of Poland. In the numerous escort which accompanied her on the journey was a child, four years old, Marie de la Grange d'Arquien, daughter of a captain of the guards of Monsieur and his wife, Françoise de la Châtre, who had been the governess of Marie de Gonzague.

This child was marked out for a romantic destiny, but for a long time she remains in the background of M. Waliszewski's narrative. He has first to describe the journey of the new Queen of Poland, which lasted three months; the reception given to her in her adopted country; the difficulties she had to overcome in a new and strange land, divided by factions. The King of Poland, Ladislas, had an official mistress, Mlle. d'Eckenberg, who had been one of the ladies of the deceased Queen. He had no authority, and, on his dying without issue in 1647, Marie de Gonzague was forced by the Diet to marry soon afterwards the new King John Casimir, son of Sigismund of Sweden and of Constance of Austria.

John Casimir had begun life as a soldier, had afterwards turned Jesuit and was made a Cardinal, which did not prevent him from arriving in Poland dressed as a soldier, with a sword at his side. He was a man of pleasure and a born soldier; he found a good ally, in his troubled reign, in Marie de Gonzague. When her husband lost the battle of Warsaw, she rallied round herself the Polish nobility, armed the people, used the resources of the church, negotiated with France, Austria, Brandenburg. She was the soul of the resistance. She was forced for a moment to take refuge in Silesia, with her husband, and when she returned to Poland in the early part of July, 1656, we find Mlle. d'Arquien in her small suite. Marysienska, as the French girl was named by the Poles, was now fifteen years old, and it was time to marry her. She found a husband in the family of Zamoyski, one of the greatest of the Polish aristocracy. Marysienska was extremely pretty, and the Prince of Zamosc (such was the name assumed by the eldest of the Zamoyski) fell in love with her. He was not young, was given to drink, and worn out by a life of dissipation.

The marriage took place at Warsaw, under the eyes of the Queen, who herself placed a magnificent diamond diadem on the head of the bride. "She was accompanied to church by a splendid escort. . . . Three hundred casks of Hungarian wine were drunk at the wedding repast." Neither the luxury of an almost royal establishment, nor the satisfaction of having three children in rapid succession, consoled the young Frenchwoman for her union with a brutal drunkard, who had merely the name, without having the manners, of a Prince, and who seemed quite indifferent to her beauty. The children were delicate, and died one after the other; the castle of Zamosc soon became a prison to her, and she made frequent journeys to Warsaw. She made the acquaintance of Sobieski, already an illustrious soldier, and a great favorite with the people and the army; a country neighbor whom she could see frequently. They saw each other also in Warsaw. He fell in love with her; she was a great coquette, and they soon revived the story of Hercules at the feet of Omphale.

The union of Marie de Gonzague with John Casimir had been sterile; she wished to assure the inheritance of the throne to her niece Anne. She had to find a husband for her. Should it be an Austrian archduke? Should it be a Frenchman? The rivalry of France and Austria was engaged in the question. The chapter on the negotiations which took place on this subject is perhaps the most curious in M. Waliszewski's book. Marie de Gonzague thought for a time of the eldest son of the great Condé, of Condé himself; and the archives of Chantilly contain all the correspondence which took place on the subject. There was a French party in Poland, supported by Mazarin and by Louis XIV.; there was an Austrian party. Finally, after many complications, Marie de Gonzague put forward the name of a new candidate, Sobieski.

Madame Zamoyska had become the mistress of Sobieski, and was secretly married to him (April 7, 1665) as soon as her husband died. Some mystery still hangs over the details of the relations of the great warrior with Madame Zamoyska. The author intimates that the secret marriage was the result of a sort of conspiracy, in which Marie de Gonzague played a rather ugly part; her object was to bind Sobieski to herself, to set him in opposition to her enemy, Prince Lubomirski, to have a Polish ally against a Polish faction. She succeeded, and Marie d'Arquien was her intelligent and unprincipled instrument. On July 6, 1665, the public marriage took place—"a comedy between people already married," said the Austrian Ambassador. A few days after, Sobieski had to enter on a campaign. His letters to his wife during that time are those of a youthful and intoxicated lover. Waliszewski compares Sobieski to the lovers of Marivaux, but Marivaux's lovers have more *esprit*.

Marie de Gonzague died May 9, 1667, and her project of a French intervention in Poland died with her. John Casimir had long wished to abdicate; in 1669, he took the road to France. He had, so to speak, sold his crown for several French abbeys. He paid a visit to Chantilly, saw the King at St. Germain, and retired to the abbey of Saint-Germain-des-Prés. Meanwhile the negotiations for the succession of John Casimir were continuing. Nothing can surpass the confusion of the intrigues in which Sobieski and his wife play a growing part, except the complications of M. Waliszewski's mind. I confess to have found it impossible to thread my way among the quarrels of Sobieski and his wife, her journeys to Paris, her reconciliations with her husband, the domestic incidents and the diplomatic quarrels, the electoral campaigns interrupted by wars.

After the death of King Michael, the successor of John Casimir, Sobieski was elected King, on the 21st of May, 1674. Mlle. de Scudéry could write: "It is quite serious: the great Marshal Sobieski is King of Poland. We have a Queen d'Arquien." Sobieski justified the choice of the Diet by the services he rendered, not only to his own country, but to the whole of Europe. On the 14th of July, 1683, Vienna was besieged by a Turkish army of 180,000 men. The hour was decisive; the Ottoman power was gaining ground, and was threatening the Occident. Sobieski took command of the Polish and Imperial troops; he saved Vienna, he forced Kara-Mustapha to retreat in disorder. Hungary, Croatia, became open to the Christian. Immediately after his victory, Sobieski wrote to his wife, and sent her a gilt ornament taken from the horse of Kara-Mustapha. The battle of Vienna was the crowning day of Sobieski's life; he was as weak and incompetent as a King as he was brave on the battlefield. Marysienska was the real sovereign; she was a shrewd diplomat and a most active correspondent. Sobieski died on the 17th of June, 1696, having reigned only two years. His widow was surrounded with enemies; was despised as an adventuress and a foreigner. She was obliged to leave Poland, and retired to Rome, "la ville de toutes les indulgences," says M. Waliszewski. She died during a visit to France at Blois, on the 30th of January, 1716.

Notes.

Cassell & Co. restore New York to their former imprint, "London, Paris, New York, and Melbourne," by replacing the Cassell Publishing Co. in this city, to which they some years ago disposed of their American business. Their new branch will establish itself at Nos. 7 and 9 West Eighteenth Street.

Henry Holt & Co. have nearly ready 'Her Ladyship's Elephant,' by David Dwight Wells, a story of English society as viewed by the author while a member of our embassy in London.

D. C. Heath & Co. have in press a carefully revised edition of Prof. Woodrow Wilson's 'The State,' from wholly new plates. Experience of the class-room has determined the omission of certain details.

In view of the approaching commemoration of the thousandth anniversary of the death of King Alfred, Miss Mary Rosamond Earle of Newnham College is preparing an edition of the original writings, known or surmised, of the great West-Saxon king.

A work of undeniable attractiveness and permanent worth is projected by the house of Tullberg in Stockholm (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). It will be published in a French and in a German edition, under the title 'The Sovereign Princely Houses of Europe'—both regnant and having ceased to reign during the present century. It will consist of about 850 process portraits of all the living members of these houses, both young and old; of some 500 admirable designs of arms, views of family seats, etc., executed by Agi Lindegren, architect of the royal château of Drottningholm; and a succinct genealogical exhibition by Count Wrangel. The resulting volume (a quarto) will fill 800 pages, and will be distributed in some twenty-five parts, costing two marks each.

Guillaumin & Cie., Paris (New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer), have in hand a 'Dictionnaire du Commerce, de l'Industrie et de la Banque,' published under the direction of Yves Guyot and A. Raffalovich, to make two large octavo volumes at fifty francs. A great number of specially qualified collaborators insure the solidity of this work.

M. Maurice Souriau, professor in the Faculty of Letters at Caen, has discovered in

the municipal library of Havre some interesting manuscripts of Bernardin de Saint-Pierre, which he is preparing for publication. The amusing side of this discovery, or what will be its amusing side to a cynical world, is that it lays bare the fact that the most faithful pupil and friend of Bernardin de Saint-Pierre—the Aimé Martin who married the writer's widow, adopted his daughter, and devoted himself to the cultus of his memory—knew these manuscripts, and in his biography of the master used them largely without giving the slightest intimation as to the source from which was drawn the best part of his book.

We are glad to call attention to the fact that an American edition is now being published of the 'Sacred Books of the East,' the series which is issued by the Clarendon Press under the editorial supervision of F. Max Müller. The English edition of this well-known set of translations from Oriental scriptural texts has long been widely used, and has done much to spread a knowledge and study of the East in the West. The American reprint is a reproduction, verbatim, of the English work, but the paper is not so heavy, and the twenty-four volumes of the original will be reduced to the compass of twelve books; without any abridgment of material, however. The binding differs from the English issue, but most important is the marked difference in the price: the cost of the first series in the American edition will be only $30, whereas the English costs $65.50. The first volume of the series is now on sale. It contains the translation, by Max Müller himself, of a dozen Upanishads, or religious treatises and philosophic speculations which stand at the end of Vedic literature and sum up, in a way, the development of certain lines of early Hindu religious thought. The publication is undertaken by the Christian Literature Company, No. 13 Astor Place, New York city, and the enterprise aims especially at a wider dissemination of the series among clergymen, scholars, and libraries. The work is to be commended.

Prof. Bury's admirable edition of Gibbon's 'Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire' (London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan) approaches its close with volumes four and five, leaving but another brace to come. The appendices, which open with a discussion of the sources, are full of interesting matters; the chronology in particular of a bewildering period being specially looked after. Traces of Russian scholarship applied to this field are noticeable. Gibbon's newly published autobiography has been brought to bear on the significant change of a text reflecting on the Bourbons in the first edition.

From Macmillan we have also a new edition of Kidd's 'Social Evolution,' revised, with additions, among which is a reply to criticisms of the work rewritten from the author's article in the *Nineteenth Century*. The new "Preface to the second American edition" contains this orphic utterance suited to the time: "Those who realize, however dimly, the immense part which the English-speaking peoples—if true to their own traditions—are not improbably destined to play in the immediate future of the world, will feel how great a gain any advance may be which enables us, through the methods of modern science, to obtain a clear perception of the stern, immutable conditions of moral fitness and uprightness through which alone a people can long continue to play a great part on the stage of the world."

In his illustrations to Robert Louis Stevenson's 'A Lowden Sabbath Morn' (Scribners), Mr. A. S. Boyd has done well by the poet. His designs are truthful, not ungraceful, humorous, and have a close relation to the text. The typography and binding are also to be praised. There is nothing better in the verses than the "restin' plou'man," "Perplext wi' leisure; An' his raxt limbs he'll rax again Wi' painfû' pleesure."

Miss Wormeley's 'Cruel Side of War, with the Army of the Potomac [in 1862]' (Boston: Roberts Bros.) is reprinted too late for prevention, but not too late for reflection. "Conceive," she writes to her mother on June 4, during the Peninsula campaign, "of the Medical Director sending down over 4,500 wounded men without—yes, almost literally without—anything for them: without surgeons; no one authorized to take charge of them; nothing but empty boats to receive them." And again, the next day: "Men in every condition of horror, shattered and shrieking, were being brought in on stretchers borne by 'contrabands,' who dumped them anywhere, banged the stretchers against pillars and posts, and walked over the men without compassion. . . . Men shattered in the thigh, and even cases of amputation, were shovelled into top berths without thought or mercy. The men had mostly been without food for three days, but there was *nothing* on board either boat for them." The little volume is part of the history of the United States Sanitary Commission, and has a portrait of the organizing genius of that merciful enterprise, Frederick Law Olmsted.

The 'History of the Lowell Institute,' undertaken as a labor of love by Harriette Knight Smith (Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co.), shows an unpractised hand, but gives the essential particulars of this remarkable Boston lecture foundation, now sixty years old. Well worth compiling was the list of lecturers and their subjects from the beginning. From Agassiz, whose cis-Atlantic career was determined by an invitation to lecture before the Institute, down, not a few distinguished men of science and letters have owed their visits to the United States to the liberal honorarium held out for courses from them; and, being here, they have been available for lyceums in all parts of the country. Meanwhile the endowment has steadily and almost embarrassingly increased, in spite of a great expansion of the system working through various local channels. The volume contains a number of interesting illustrations, portrait and other, but does not give in full, what one might look for, the will of the founder, John Lowell, jr., a first cousin of the poet.

Mr. James S. Barcus has edited for the Globe Publishing Co. a very useful book entitled 'Public Service.' It is the only single volume in existence which contains the names and salaries of all persons in the city, State, and national service within the State of New York, and for that reason it will be a valuable reference book in all newspaper offices. It contains also maps of all political and other divisions throughout the State—election, legislative, congressional, and other districts—together with full returns of the last election, and much other exact and valuable information.

The "Anecdota Oxoniensia" series of the Clarendon Press, Oxford, has recently added another volume to its set of Aryan publications. This is the so-called 'Mantrapâtha,' or prayer-book of the Vedic school of Âpastamba. The contents are made up of texts to be recited in connection with special domestic rites and ceremonies. A full introduction and critical material are given; a translation and commentary are to follow. The editor, Dr. Winternitz, is an investigator known for his painstaking accuracy and for his sound scholarship.

Under the title 'Névrosés' (Paris: Hachette), in itself suggestive of the influence at work on the author, Mme. Arvède Barine has given us four studies of writers each addicted to a vice, but addicted to it through heredity and temperament. A German, Hoffmann; an Englishman, De Quincey; an American, Edgar Allan Poe, and a Frenchman, Gérard de Nerval, are presented in turn as examples of the abuse of wine, or use of opium or alcohol, with madness for a consequence. The studies are admirably done; there is a sympathy for these suffering creatures led away by a temperamental tendency to sin and death, that mitigates the analysis of their temptation and fall. The main object of the writer is to define the effect on the literary production of each. In the case of Nerval she comes to the conclusion, startling and unexpected as it may be, that his very best work was done when in the grasp of the madness which eventually led him to commit suicide. One cannot help thinking that this is better scientific study of pathological cases among men of genius than all the horrors that Zola has heaped upon a suffering and an admiring world.

Somewhat more than a year ago, we spoke of the proposed enrichment of *Cosmopolis* by the addition of new supplements in other tongues than the English, French, and German, which have from the beginning been used in the magazine. The Russian supplement has now been published for a year. It consists of a series of original articles in the Russian tongue which is sent regularly to all the subscribers to *Cosmopolis* in Russia, and to such subscribers outside Russia as desire it and are willing to pay separately for it, together with the regular monthly number. The venture has been successful enough to justify M. Ortmans in extending it to two other countries, and a Spanish and an Italian supplement will be issued with the number of *Cosmopolis* for the current month (May). A little later it is expected that the turn of the Scandinavians will come, and then that of the Dutch.

The recent progress of Mantchuria is strikingly shown by a comparison of the accounts of two Englishmen, Capt. F. E. Younghusband and a correspondent of the London *Times*, who visited that country, the one in 1886, the other in 1897. Where the former "travelled for 180 miles over barren prairies," the latter found cultivated fields, in which the "league-long furrow" is never-ending, dotted over with thriving villages of Chinese immigrants. The population of Petuna then was 30,000; now it is "a city of 60,000 inhabitants, whose numbers are being added to with enormous rapidity." The rivers twelve years ago were practically useless for commerce or means of communication; to-day a small, but constantly increasing, fleet of steamers and barges carry "grain, hay, cattle, and food supplies" to Siberia. Of this progress, due largely to the Chinese alone, the Russians are now taking advantage. In the great towns of that part of Mantchuria lying in the Amur basin (by far the larger part), Capt. Younghusband

did not see a single European. "The Russification" of Kirin—a wealthy city of 200,000 people—writes the *Times* correspondent, "is proceeding. Samovars are seen in every inn. Russian engineers, escorted by Cossacks, drive in tarantasses through the crowded streets." The same is true of all the important towns on the route of the projected trans-Mantchurian railway, and he affirms that the Chinese are content that it should be so.

The Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund for April contains, in addition to the reports of Dr. C. Schick, an illustrated description of a visit to Petra by C. A. Hornstein, and a discussion of the Jewish measures of capacity by Col. C. M. Watson. In an interesting communication, the Rev. W. F. Birch endeavors to identify the Pisgah from which Moses viewed the Promised Land, and to reconcile the statements in Deuteronomy of what Moses saw with the prospect from the height which he describes.

The collections of Chantilly have now been for the space of three months in the full possession of the French Institute. It was well known that, besides the priceless art treasures of the château, there were most valuable books, letters, historical manuscripts and documents which occupied a considerable place in the collections and were of singular interest. One can judge something of their extent by the inventory lately published. The library and archives of Chantilly contain 1,453 manuscript volumes, 273 works printed on vellum, 600 great-folio collections of autograph correspondence, 1,660 portfolios filled with maps and papers relating to the history and administration of the domains of Montmorency and of Condé since the eleventh century, and 24,000 printed volumes.

The director of the zoölogical collection of the Natural History Museum of Berlin has begun a series of *Mittcilungen* with an account of the land and fresh-water molluscs of Seychelles in the collection of Dr. A. Brauer, by Ed. von Martens and Friedrich Wiegmann, illustrated by lithographic plates.

The acute racial differences at present prevailing in Austria-Hungary give a peculiar interest to the quarterly journal *Lud*, published by the Folk-Lore Society of Lemberg, in Galicia. The current number—the first of the fourth volume—contains, among other articles, a paper on the common law of the Lithuanian people and a collection of Polish tales and poems.

The Baron de St. Joseph's elaborate account of the annelids of the coast of France is concluded in the current number of the *Annales des Sciences Naturelles (Zoologie)*. Nine new species are described, and the paper is illustrated by eleven plates from drawings by the author.

—'Red and Black' (New York: George H. Richmond & Son) is a translation by E. P. Robins of Stendhal's 'Le Rouge et le Noir.' To speak at any length of the book itself is as unnecessary now as to review Beckford's 'Vathek' or Hope's 'Anastasius.' It is of a Byronic romanticism; and although it carries as its sub-title "A Chronicle of the Nineteenth Century," it is really as remote as possible from the life of any century or of any planet that we know anything about. Still, it has survived; and Julien Sorel is, we suppose, one of the heroes of fiction whom it behooves the reader of books to know. 'Le Rouge et le Noir' is not tedious; it is, in fact, full of motion, and the reader of whom we have just spoken will have no burdensome task. If he does not read French, he can take the book in the present translation. This is readable enough, and is fairly faithful, with only some slight extenuations or exaggerations here and there of the author's meaning, though the English is rather bad at times. There is now and then, also, a quite unnecessary lapse into slang. "He was in a horrible state of funk," for instance, is hardly excusable as a rendering of "il avait peur." This is, to be sure, perhaps the worst slip of the sort, but there are others nearly as bad. Occasionally, too, a word is mistranslated: *lait caillé*, for example, is not buttermilk, but curds or bonnyclabber. Still, after all deductions are made, this translation may serve well enough the needs of any one who requires a translation. The two volumes are light in the hand, nicely printed, and bound appropriately in vermilion and black.

—The publication of Zola's 'Paris' is an incident in the literary world long since closed, since it occurred at the beginning of March, but it was the occasion of the disclosure of a piece of information which possesses a continuing interest. Sixty-three thousand copies had been ordered in France in advance of publication. Ten thousand of these were countermanded, probably on account of the famous trial, and yet sixty-eight thousand was the number dispatched the first day. Fifteen thousand copies more than usual had been ordered from foreign countries. This just about doubled the number of volumes usually sent abroad. A novel of Zola's, or of any of the half-dozen writers most in view in France, is distributed by publishers to the trade in proportions that rarely vary. One-fifth of the production remains in Paris; one-fifth is taken by the railway bookstalls; one-fifth only goes to the booksellers of the departments; and two-fifths go abroad. Russia absorbs the largest number of them; after her comes Germany, then England, and then Italy. These figures seem to indicate that provincial France is not doing much reading. It might be curious to inquire whether Frenchmen living in the country read less than the same class in other lands. There must be some good reason why the literary output of France runs so much below that of Germany or of England.

—About a year ago, M. Poletti, a professor at the lyceum of Bastia, delivered in the theatre of that city a lecture on the *vendetta* and *banditisme* in Corsica, appealing to the teachers on the island to use their influence in behalf of the suppression of those savage customs. This laudable first move attracted the attention of the French Minister of Public Instruction, and has led to the adoption of general measures to enlist the schools in the civilizing cause. From a recent number of the *Revue Pédagogique* we learn that formal instructions have been given to the teachers in Corsica to enlighten the pupils in the schools and in classes of adults on the subject; and M. Poletti is about to prepare a treatise to assist them in their efforts. The director of the normal school at Ajaccio, M. Fabre, has begun, in allocutions to the student-teachers, to explain the gravity of the question. In the popular mind the murderer frequently assumes the character of a hero; the bandits receive more sympathy and pity than their victims—recently, in a student's composition, they were spoken of as "examples of generosity and loyalty." Under these circumstances, M. Fabre's first, and perhaps most difficult, task is to enlighten the minds and consciences to the point of conceiving the *vendetta* to be an evil. Happily, his experience and his knowledge of the influence actually exerted in certain villages by brave and generous teachers have established in M. Fabre's own mind a firm belief in the practicability and ultimate effect of this new effort to uplift the Corsican character.

—In the 'Monographien zur Weltgeschichte' the editor, Prof. Heyck, and the publishers, Velhagen & Klasing of Leipzig, are trying to popularize history. To this end the publishers are putting the monographs into the unusual but not inconvenient form of thin quartos with flexible covers, are printing them handsomely on good paper with many illustrations, and are selling them at the remarkably low price of three or four marks each, according to their thickness. Of each monograph there is also a special limited edition on art paper and in leather covers, at twenty marks. The editor's part in the popularization consists in selecting themes of especial importance—"Höhepunkte der geschichtlichen Entwickelung"—and in treating them or having them treated in such a way as to make the monographs intelligible and interesting to readers who are not specialists. The choice of themes, both for the numbers that have already appeared and for those that are in preparation, is excellent. The range is a wide one: it extends from the Pharaohs to Bismarck. 'Bismarck' is by Prof. Heyck, and constitutes the fourth number. In this case it must be said that the publishers have done better than the editor. In his admiration of Bismarck, Heyck is sufficiently enthusiastic for even the German public; his account of the Prince's career is accurate; he has some new points of view and a couple of fresh anecdotes; but even a German cannot find the book easy to read nor the style attractive. The sentences are of the worst German variety, tortuous and obscure. The style is sometimes high-flown, sometimes trivial, occasionally slangy. The illustrations, however, are profuse and excellent. There are more than two hundred of them, and they really illustrate—not the text, to which they bear no local relation—but the subject. We have, for example, pictures of Bismarck at all ages; pictures of his family, of his associates, and of many of his more prominent contemporaries; pictures of houses in which he has lived and of statues that have been set up in his honor; and reproductions of historical paintings and comic cartoons in which he figures. There is also a complete family tree, that starts with Alderman Herbord of Stendal in the thirteenth century, and comes down to the Otto born last autumn.

—Macedonia has been for some years the theatre of a strange political propaganda carried on by Greece and the Balkan States by means of schools. A correspondent of the London *Times*, writing from that country, says that, while the Greek schools still outnumber those of all other nationalities combined, they are losing ground. The Bulgarians, on the other hand, are working quietly, surely, and successfully, every year showing a notable accession to their schools. Within the past two years the Servians

have made a sudden advance altogether disproportionate to their previous progress. Even the turbulent Albanian chiefs, for the most part at feud with one another, have united in a demand for the establishment of schools in which their own language shall be taught—a request, however, persistently refused by the Porte. The Mussulman peasant alone remains uninfluenced by the presence of the schoolmaster, in a state of pristine ignorance. The results of these schools and gymnasia, upon which Bulgaria, Servia, Rumania, and Greece expend about one million dollars annually, are that "the Christian *raya* of the past—ignorant, helpless, submissive—is disappearing, and a young generation, confident and hopeful, is springing up, which looks for help and sympathy beyond the bounds of Turkey, and has learned the fatal secret of the decadence of the Ottoman power." The contrast between the two sections of the population, the Christian and the Mussulman, is daily growing wider, "and in a brief space of time the maintenance of Turkish rule in Macedonia will become impossible."

SMITH'S LIBERTY AND FREE-SOIL PARTIES.

The Liberty and Free-Soil Parties in the Northwest. By Theodore Clarke Smith, Ph.D., etc. [Harvard Historical Series, VI.] Longmans, Green & Co. 8vo, pp. 351.

Mr. Smith's book, the Toppan prize-essay of 1896, is a contribution to the political history of the country which must have permanent value. It is not a general history of the anti-slavery movement, but only a chapter in it, important and interesting as that chapter is. Taking it for just what it professes to be, it is a very thorough and excellent piece of work. It does not deal with national politics as debated in Congress, nor with the measures which became the rallying-points either of the aggressive slaveholders or of the friends of emancipation. It confines itself to the local phases of the contest in the States and Territories northwest of the Ohio River, and to the political organization of the anti-slavery forces there, beginning with the questioning of Whig and Democratic candidates and the support of those most favorable to freedom, and ending with the organization of the Republican party in 1854.

The limitations which the author has accepted must be kept in mind in reading the book and in judging the performance of his task. If we want to be informed as to the causes which led to the New York Barnburner movement of 1847, we must find them in the fuller study of the annexation of Texas and the war with Mexico. If we would fully understand the dwindling of local activity in anti-slavery politics in 1851, 1852, we must sound the depths of Clay's compromise of 1850, and feel the seductive influence of its claim to "finality." Mr. Smith touches upon such things only to make comprehensible the political action within the Western States themselves, assuming that his readers are familiar with the political history of the country upon the broader theatre.

It was, therefore, entirely within the author's plan that he should have little to say of the propagation of anti-slavery ideas by moral exhortation not directly connected with political action. He says, "to separate out the political from the moral movement is therefore possible," and that it is his aim to deal with the former only. The effect of such concentration of view is apt to be misleading, for the mass of material of the one sort so fills the mind and memory that a writer may assume another sort to be lacking only because he is not looking for it. Thus, Mr. Smith says: "In the Northwest there was, after 1840, very little knowledge of Garrison and his methods." The men are not all dead who remember the crowded meetings of Garrison's tour in the West of 1847, and the keen and hot controversy over his doctrines and methods, which never ceased from the beginning of his career until the clash of arms actually came. S. S. Foster and his wife, Frederick Douglass, and others were hardly less well known as lecturers and agitators west of the Alleghanies than in the East, to say nothing of able and active local disputants and journals.

Newspapers are valuable sources of history, but they are by no means all, or, in the march of opinion, even the chief. We must not forget that the newspaper cannot exist until it has a subscription-list large enough to pay the printer; and it is, therefore, quite as essentially the voice of opinion already formed as it is the organ of its propagation. The workings of the individual conscience, the brooding over a new idea of right which a lonely apostle of an unpopular faith has given to a little circle who have listened to him in an upper chamber, are not advertised in popular journals. The historian has to hark back from the outburst of popular convictions to the unseen and unheralded lessons of epoch-making truth. It is good logic to argue that the millions of voices that shouted for free soil in 1854 had back of them the millions of hearts that had somehow been taught to beat impatiently for the time when doubt as to the practicable road would no longer silence the shout of exultation and resolve when it was found. The number of them could not be counted in the poll-lists of votes for Birney or for Hale, nor yet in the membership of the anti-slavery societies. Hosts of them were scarcely conscious of their own conversion, and smothered the acknowledgment of the change in their own belief by quarrelling with those whom they called impracticable in their efforts to carry it out. It had been going on for a quarter of a century at least, yet the most diligent reader of newspaper files will find in them little or nothing of it. The age of miracles is past. The sagacious historian of to-day assumes not that some heavenly portent appeared as to Constantine and his host, but that he must delve till he discovers the natural causes which, with so little outward sign, had worked so wonderful effects. Only so can he teach us the true history of reform.

When we come, however, to the published evidences of progress, it would be hard for anybody to do better work within his chosen field than Mr. Smith has done. He has rescued from the dimness of half-oblivion many sturdy champions who did not live to see the triumph of their cause, or who had spent their strength in the earlier campaigns, and had to transfer to younger but not better soldiers the leadership in the final struggle. He has also given with great fulness the progress of opinion in the convictions and conduct of such leaders as Chase, Birney, Giddings, Wade, and others. We learn how they felt their way toward embodying their anti-slavery convictions in political formulas, and toward that political organization which was finally to supplant the Whig party to fight out the issue of the spread of slavery into the Territories.

In dealing with Mr. Chase, the author, without explicit judgment against him in the matter of his election to the Senate by a coalition with the Ohio Democrats, leaves the impression that he disapproves the transaction, and this impression is strengthened as we follow the history of Mr. Chase's course in the next two or three years of diplomatic effort to commit the Democracy of the West to the anti-slavery platform of the True Democracy (as he loved to call the party of freedom). Mr. Smith's tone is quite different from that he uses when describing later the election of Mr. Wade to the Senate by a similar coalition with the Whigs. We see so clearly now that the Whig party was foredoomed to dissolution, and that its opponent was becoming the national exponent of the theories and purposes of the ultra-South, that it requires no little effort to adopt the point of view of Chase and his friends when the Barnburner movement was defeating Cass for the Presidency, and the Ohio Democracy were resolving that slavery was an evil which must not be extended, but must be mitigated and finally eradicated.

To obtain the repeal of the "Black Laws" and to elect to the Senate so sturdy an anti-slavery man as Mr. Chase was a very great political triumph and a signal advance towards the party revolutions of 1856. Chase could not foresee that the followers of Van Buren would drop away when the excitement of the Presidential canvass of 1848 should be over, and it was good statesmanship in him to make as much as possible of the apparent committal of the Barnburners to a new departure. As Senator elected by their votes, he had the right to assume that he had a leadership among them, and to emphasize the principles of True Democracy to which he exhorted them to rally. In all this he did not withhold the strong doctrines of free soil, and never left it a moment doubtful that his coöperation with the Ohio Democracy would end whenever they were recreant to the anti-slavery platform they had accepted. In the Senate and in his popular addresses, his anti-slavery principles were advocated with consummate skill and cogency; and when he had thoroughly tested his allies and found them falling from grace and yielding to the discipline of the "hunker" organization, he exposed their inconsistency, denounced their lack of principle, and carried into the new Republican party a strong contingent of converted Democrats who made their mark in the political history of the next period. If he had possessed the gift of prophecy and had known the course party politics would take, it would still have been sagacious management to affect faith in the professions of his allies until their backsliding should be without semblance of excuse and they be shown up for the "doughfaces" they were.

Giddings and Wade had quite another rôle to play. As anti-slavery Whigs of the Western Reserve, they shared with their constituency the disgust which Greeley expressed in his "spitting upon the platform" of the national party, and had little need to defend themselves personally from the charge of inconsistency in supporting Taylor or Scott. They avowedly worked for the conversion of the party to the advanced anti-slavery doctrine which they earnestly pro-

fessed, and, in their different surroundings, acted upon the same principle as Chase, in being careless of formal consistency, while thoroughly in earnest in the essential purpose of consolidating their party friends in vigorous opposition to slavery. They were both far behind Chase in making themselves independent of the old national party organizations, but their immediate environment was such that their delay was as fairly to be attributed to shrewd political wisdom in choice of the steps toward the final result as was Chase's diplomacy with the Democrats. Wade's sturdy combativeness was such, after he was in the Senate and committed to the fight, that it is curious to find Giddings writing to Sumner in 1851 of "his want of straightforward determination of purpose." They had been partners in the practice of the law and life-long friends, and the remark of Giddings speaks volumes as to the force of party ties and the hesitation practical politicians felt in believing that the time for reorganizing political parties had really come.

Chase's intellectual qualities were always of the calm and philosophic cast rather than those of the impassioned and vehement advocate. Indeed, he could not be called eloquent in the common meaning of the word. He was weighty, often even ponderous. His voice was not a clear and ringing one, but a little muffled, as if his tongue were overlarge for his mouth. But his reasoning was so good, his thoughts so strong, his sentences so well-framed and so clear, that men listened with satisfaction, though they were not stirred to enthusiasm. He was easily chief among the draughtsmen of platforms, happy in his choice of issues, strong in his way of putting them, and nobly elevated in the style of appeal to high motives. Through all the critical time of anti-slavery politics he was in demand for the formulation of the creeds, whether in the form of a single legislative resolution or in the elaboration of many-sided platforms like that of Buffalo in 1847.

Giddings was a much more impulsive man and a warmer and more sympathetic advocate. As large as Chase or larger, with his florid open countenance, his great shock of gray hair, his vehement tensity of feeling and vigorous expression, he roused a peculiar enthusiasm in his followers and an equal antagonism in his opponents. It was the common feeling that Chase should enunciate the principle and lay down the plan, and that Giddings should lead in its execution. In such a crisis as the excited meeting of May, 1859, at Cleveland, in view of the jail where the "Oberlin Rescuers" lay, many believed that, but for Chase's calm thoughtfulness and caution, Giddings and his Sons of Liberty would have stormed the prison and begun an insurrection against the Government, in defiance of the Fugitive Slave Law. Indeed, as Chase was Governor, his presence at the meeting was understood to be a check upon extreme words or actions.

Mr. Smith's book is a noteworthy digest of the printed sources of the anti-slavery history of the Northwest, viewed from the standpoint of political organization, and it is so well done that it is not probable there can be any call to repeat the task. It will be a permanent authority as to the period it treats. It were greatly to be wished, however, that he could have given it a literary handling that should better match the value of the material. The style is careless, and in places rough-hewn and even crabbed. The labor of marshalling his facts into annals of a great moral and political movement seems to have so taxed his strength that he has been content to throw his notes together, with a feeling that he had no time to consider the form and style of his work. It is perhaps more important than he thought when writing it, and more worthy of finish in the respects we have noted.

BUTLER OF WANTAGE.

Life and Letters of William John Butler, late Dean of Lincoln, and sometime Vicar of Wantage. Macmillan & Co. 1897.

Dean Butler's career was a striking example of what an earnest clergyman can accomplish by remaining long in one parish. No doubt he was peculiarly well fitted for his duties, yet he could hardly have attained his generally conceded reputation as the model parish priest of the Church of England, had he not been Vicar of Wantage nearly half his lifetime, until the charge of an ever-increasing work threatened to prove too much for his advancing years. Born in 1818, educated at Westminster School and Trinity College, Cambridge, he was ordained deacon in 1841, and priest the following year. In January, 1847, after serving as curate in small country parishes, he became Vicar of Wantage, a market town of over 3,000 people, near the Vale of White Horse, so well known to all readers of 'Tom Brown.' The living was in the gift of the Dean and Chapter of Windsor, and came to Butler through the good offices of his wife's uncle, Canon Canning (brother of Lord Stratford de Redcliffe), to whom Butler himself was also related. Wantage's claim to distinction was as the birthplace of Alfred the Great (849) and Bishop Butler (1692), and the coincidence of names—for there was no relationship with the latter's family—led Mr. Keble to say, "It is a good omen, *Butler* of *Wantage*," thus giving to the new vicar that distinctive name by which thenceforth he was often known.

When with a reading party in the lake country in 1838, Butler had borrowed the 'Christian Year' from a friend; and subsequent influences, as well as his own earnest and reverent cast of character, developed the fruits of this first acquaintance with Tractarian principles, especially after he came to know Mr. Keble himself. While Butler's strong common sense, aided by a keen sense of humor, made ritualism an impossibility for him, he was essentially a High Churchman, and, being a man of tireless energy as well, his advent to a parish long neglected by non-resident vicars meant a great change. His letters on first visiting Wantage show thorough dissatisfaction with what he found, as well as his abiding conviction that the spread of Dissent was mainly due to neglect of duty by the clergy of the Established Church.

"B— [the officiating clergyman]'s sermon was as dry as hay. Not a word of sense in it. I only wonder so many people can sit through such discourses. I was as fidgety as possible, and were I likely to undergo such things continually, I must join one of the sects with which Wantage is rife. Lengthy, too. . . .

"Then the horrid apathy and irreverence of the whole concern, the crowd of idlers, etc. [at a funeral], made me rather downhearted. The churchyard is in an abominable state. It ought at once to be remedied, so noisy and unclean, with long, rank grass all over it. Bury me at Wareside [the parish he was leaving]. Railroad will take me cheap."

Any one who in recent years has passed from the peaceful churchyard into Wantage Church, beautifully restored, and even (almost alone of all old churches in England) enlarged to receive the throng of worshippers, and who reads Butler's first descriptions, will begin to have some conception of the results of his thirty-four years' work.

Realizing that the religion of the peasantry, and of the farmers and shopkeepers too, was wholly confined to generalities, Butler's aim was to spiritualize these classes by definite teaching, such as would affect their daily lives. At the same time he was well aware of the intense popular feeling against High Church principles, and hence of the need of intimate acquaintance and sympathy with his people if he was to lead them as he wished. To this end he was indefatigable in visiting, and welcomed to his own study all who wished to consult him, whether gentle or simple. After he became Dean of Lincoln, some one compared the cathedral on Sundays to Clapham Junction, on account of the rapid succession of services, and it was much the same at Wantage, yet he did not let the new services interfere with those to which his people had been long accustomed, therein exhibiting a moderation which, if more general, would have prevented serious trouble in many parishes. Though in the end he completely won the hearts of his people, his path was at first far from smooth, and when, after five years, he proposed the restoration of the church and abolition of box-pews, the vestry (which included dissenters) voted down the project at a stormy meeting, although they were not asked to provide the funds. For a time the party of reaction seemed to prevail in the parish, and Butler was very unpopular, but in 1855 the restoration was begun, and finished two years later; the farmer who was the first to voice the opposition in 1852 himself giving £25 to the work.

When Butler came to Wantage, not over 50 children attended the parish schools, but in 1880 there were over 750, all in new, well-appointed buildings. He visited the schools daily, usually taking the opening prayers himself, besides sharing in the instruction of the pupil-teachers. His chief educational work was, however, strictly religious, his system being to group the communicants into classes, according to age and sex, and to teach them regularly himself. He also concerned himself with all matters affecting the public welfare, such as water supply, drainage (of which Wantage was greatly in need), street-lighting, the housing of the poor, and beneficial and savings societies; but he always refused to serve as a magistrate, holding the duties of that office to be incompatible with those of a clergyman. As regimental chaplain of the Berks Volunteers, he annually went into camp, holding daily open-air services, and taking a keen interest in drill and rifle-practice. With such a vicar, Wantage became known as a training-school for curates, among whom was Canon Liddon; and though afterwards one or two of the ex-curates seem to have shown more zeal than discretion, it is significant that none of them ever abandoned the Church of England.

In 1848 Butler founded a sisterhood, the second in England, for educational and charitable work—a venture which narrowly

escaped failure in its first years, through the secession to Rome of two of the four members. Under his care and guidance, however, the community took root again, ultimately establishing several branches in other parts of England and in India, so that to-day the Wantage sisters are widely known in their special lines of work.

In 1866 Butler seemed about to enter a wider sphere, being elected Bishop of Natal to succeed the deposed Colenso. He did not shrink from the sacrifice demanded by such a call, yet, realizing the disturbed state of the diocese, he left the decision absolutely with the Archbishop of Canterbury (Longley) and his own bishop (Wilberforce); and after a year of suspense the former advised against acceptance, on the ground that it would be better to have a man of less pronounced High Church views. Whatever may have been thought of the decision in some quarters, it was at all events heartily welcomed by the people of Wantage, who had no wish to part with their vicar for the benefit of South Africa.

Butler's one annual relaxation was a trip to the Continent, where, unlike the typical British tourist, he always interested himself in the people of the country. One year he made a special study of French charitable institutions, and, being thus brought into contact with many of the clergy, he was much amused at their efforts to convert him. When assured of the logic of the Roman position, he would parry with "L'esprit anglais est très inconséquent." In 1870 he spent some time with the Red Cross Society about Sedan and Saarbrücken, visiting the wounded French prisoners and distributing supplies. At the close of 1880 he was made a Canon of Worcester, and in 1885 Dean of Lincoln, both appointments coming from Mr. Gladstone, of whom, however, he was not a follower. He had strong convictions as to the practical usefulness of cathedral institutions at the present day, holding that although at one time they did little more than maintain the standard of beauty and dignity in worship, that day was passed. His influence on the services in both cathedrals was very marked, especially at Lincoln, where there was much room for improvement, and he certainly earned the gratitude of all who have felt the inspiring effect of the Sunday evening service instituted by him, in the nave of that noble minster. He was not a great preacher, being, for one thing, unable thoroughly to control his voice, but his addresses always carried the weight that comes from sincerity and definiteness. When a Lincoln non-conformist was asked whom he preferred to hear in the cathedral, he said, "The dean, because he *means business*."

Both at Worcester and at Lincoln, Butler showed the same broad public spirit as at Wantage. In the former he established a school for the cathedral choristers, and took the leading part in founding a high school for girls, while at Lincoln the School of Science and Art and the Free Library owe much to his support. In spite of constant work his active frame retained much of its strength to the last, and at seventy-five he could walk twenty miles in a day and hold service afterwards. He died on January 14, 1894, after a short illness, Mrs. Butler, who had been attacked by paralysis three months before, surviving him just one week.

THE CORRESPONDENCE OF CICERO.

The Correspondence of M. Tullius Cicero. By R. Y. Tyrrell and L. C. Purser. Vol. V. Longmans, Green & Co. 1897.

The appearance of a new volume of this important work is of itself sufficient cause for rejoicing; the announcement that the final volume of the commentary is partly in print and may be expected within the present year is extremely pleasant reading; but best of all is the modest promise of a complete translation, "with a historical running comment somewhat after the model of Carlyle's 'Letters of Cromwell.'" It should be mentioned that the Index to the Correspondence is to occupy an additional (seventh) volume; this statement conveys assurance of an approach to satisfactory fulness.

The reference to the prospective translation is perhaps not so modest after all, for it follows a severe, albeit verbally kind and telling criticism of an obtrusive characteristic of Mr. Jeans's rendering of the letters of Mr. Watson's selection. These strictures, while in the main deserved, are hardly in good taste in their connection with the announcement of the new translation, and indeed seem to us to put Mr. Jeans in a false position. The misrepresentation is no doubt unintentional, but all the more mischievous for its very unconsciousness. In the introduction to his first volume, Prof. Tyrrell noticed the possibility of the occasional happy rendering of a Greek word or phrase of the letters by an equivalent French word or phrase familiar to English readers. He now charges that his "aim has been slightly misconceived"; that "some recent translators, especially the Rev. G. E. Jeans, have shown a flattering appreciation of our little remark by always rendering Greek expressions in French." Now Prof. Tyrrell made his feeling on this subject perfectly clear by his original utterance, and Mr. Jeans did not misunderstand him, or show a particularly "flattering appreciation" of his "little remark." On the contrary, he took pains to state explicitly in his preface that he had arrived independently at the same conclusions with Prof. Tyrrell in respect to the use of Greek words in the Letters, and ventured to maintain a view of his own with regard to the translation of a large class of these words, preferring the use of French to Prof. Tyrrell's *argot*. So, too, he defended his anachronisms in the use of quotations from the later Latin poets in rendering Cicero's quotations from the Greek poets. Most of us have felt with Prof. Tyrrell that this was misleading and unscholarly, as we have set his slang above Mr. Jeans's French, and laughed with him at *sel attique* and the like.

The correspondence included in the present instalment is confined within narrow limits of time, from March, 45 B. C., to September, 44 B. C. Some of the most important of Cicero's letters, however, were written during this period, a period that saw the final loss of all domestic hope in the death of his beloved daughter, and the glimmer of a renewal of political hope in the death of Cæsar. But, if important, they are not altogether pleasant reading. The letters of condolence on the death of Tullia, which themselves contain much that, somehow or other, does not ring true to our ears, are followed by daily notes to Atticus on the subject of the monument to her memory and the purchase of a site for it, and follow another series of notes on the final financial settlement with his divorced wife. One wonders how long a man of business of the present would patiently reply to the same question day after day, and day after day, even from a friend, receive the same instructions. Indeed, Cicero's letters show that Atticus did not always come quite up to his expectations in this regard. To the letters of the time of mourning succeed those that deal with the death of Cæsar and the uncertain future of the rescued Republic. In these, too, there is much that saddens the reader in the despair into which Cicero soon falls and the shadow of impending doom. Had Cicero only been self-reliant, confident, optimistic, what a difference it would have made in our regard for him!

The sections of the Introduction treat of "Cicero's Case against Cæsar," and the lives of Vatinius and of Cicero's son, with the inevitable critical discussion and an addendum to the commentary on *Fam.* 4, 5, 4, maintaining the sincerity of Cicero's belief in the immortality of the soul. The argument on the latter point is far from conclusive, and we greatly fear that a comparison of some of Cicero's words on the subject, even in his letters of condolence and replies to such letters, would scarcely show a greater faith or higher trust than the letter of Sulpicius.

The first section is republished from the *Quarterly Review*, and is at most points a complete reply to Froude's misrepresentations. There is, however, the enthusiastic overstatement of the case to which the introductory articles of the earlier volumes have accustomed us. The accounts of the vulgar and repulsive, but good-natured, Vatinius, and of Cicero's not altogether worthless son, are unusually lively and interesting. The critical question chosen for discussion in this volume of the work is that of the value of the *codex Mediceus* in establishing the text of the *Epistulæ ad Atticum*. The opposite views of Schmidt and Lehmann are briefly stated, and adherence is expressed to the belief of the latter that "a large class of MSS. exists which is independent of M."

While the style of the senior editor of the 'Correspondence of Cicero,' with its colloquialisms and witticisms, and indeed almost perfection of lightness and vivacity, joined as it is with sane and inspiring scholarship, makes him the ideal interpreter of comedy and of familiar epistles, it is sometimes entirely and absurdly unsuitable to his theme and thought. The volume we are considering opens with what seems to us an inexcusable flippancy. We are told of a schoolboy who described Cæsar as "a gentleman and a Christian." This is delicious; but our essayist goes on to comment on the moderation of the description as proof that the schoolboy had not read Froude. Had he, he would probably have classed his hero with the Founder of Christianity. Exuberances and Latinisms abound. Thomas Hardy and 'Jude the Obscure' may be fittingly quoted in the *Quarterly Review*, but they seem sadly incongruous in an edition of Cicero. The derivation of the name of Brasenose College, however instructive (p. 39), also seems extraneous.

In 'Cicero in his Letters' Prof. Tyrrell made public confession of his failure as a corrector of proof, and each successive volume of his more ambitious work serves further to confirm our acquiescence in this self-judgment. The last volume has the usual

list of *Corrigenda*, but it scarcely makes an appreciable diminution in the total of mistakes. We notice only a few: "to the command [of] a squadron" (p. lxii); "for his noble nature and had [his?] hatred of tyrants" (p. lxii); *Ciceronis* for *Ciceroni* in the greeting of Letter DLV; omission of the greeting of Letter DLVI, this letter having been first printed in the 'Cicero in his Letters,' in which the greetings are for some mysterious reason almost altogether omitted; a transposition of notes on p. 36; mistakes in syllabification on pp. 24 and 45; "March" for "May" on p. 59; μή for μὴ (p. ix). Such minor typographical slips, with carelessness in the use of italics and of punctuation, are to be found on nearly every page.

Is it not going too far to say the younger Cicero's "common nature" was "transmitted to him in all probability from Terentia"? But our editor cannot ackowledge the possibility of any flaw in the husband's character as a factor in the estrangement. Did Cicero in his letters to his friends labor "to put his case at the worst, and thus make sure that their judgments should not err on the side of leniency"? It would be difficult for any mortal to do this steadily year after year, and of all men most difficult for Cicero. It is not often that elementary matters are given room in the commentary, but we are told in one place that L. Paullus "defeated Perseus at Pydna"; and in another, examples are cited for *quamquam* introducing an independent clause.

The imagination must be allowed some part in any attempt to explain many allusions in these letters to the exact meaning of which we have no key, but we rarely find in the present edition the refinement of hypothesis to which Continental scholars are prone. The Dublin editors are least sure in some of their discussions of textual matters, but in this respect there is much improvement over the earlier volumes. The most unsatisfactory of all the "new readings" given in the new volume is perhaps the retention of the MS. *aritia* in *Att.* 14, 19, 1, on the ground that Cicero is repeating a careless mistake in the spelling of *avaritia* of the letter to which he is replying. Of the several emendations which show a decided departure from tradition, none commends itself to us as especially happy. On the other hand, the return to the MS. reading is usually cogently sustained. Moreover, the protest against the tendency of critical scholars to make all of Cicero's correspondents write as elegant Latin as Cicero himself is sane and salutary. When all is said, the work of Prof. Tyrrell and Mr. Purser must be acknowledged to be a most sympathetic and satisfactory interpretation of this valuable portion of Roman literature, a decided addition to the apparatus of the classical scholar, and a lasting monument to the learning that distinguishes the venerable Dublin college.

Montaigne and Shakspere. By J. M. Robertson. London: The University Press. 1897. 8vo, pp. 169.

This work is the enlargement of a study on "Hamlet" which was printed twelve years ago, and contains much that is of interest to the student of Montaigne and the student of Shakspere. Its purpose is to present evidence that Montaigne distinctly influenced Shakspere; that in the plays—more especially in "Hamlet"—written after the publication of Florio's translation of the 'Essays,' in 1603, there are proofs that Montaigne's thought became Shakspere's thought. It is much to be wished that others would carry on the investigations Mr. Robertson has begun; he is really the first reaper in this field, though its possible harvest has long been pointed out.

To what extent those thoughts which are found alike in the Essays of Montaigne and in Shakspere's plays have passed from one to the other, is an insoluble question, since the thoughts of the wise have too close correspondence to let it be said with confidence, in any special instance, "This was derived from that"; yet, on the other hand, it is generally unquestionable that strong similarities in the expression of thoughts indicate communication of ideas—in one word, borrowings. These direct and unacknowledged "borrowings" from Montaigne are traceable here, there, and everywhere in English literature. They must have been abundant by 1605, since in that year Ben Jonson (in his "Volpone"), writing of Guarini, said:

> "All our English writers,
> I mean such as are happy in the Italian,
> Will deign to steal out of this author mainly
> Almost as much as from Montaignie."

These stealings that Jonson discerned in his contemporaries have not yet been pointed out. Mr. Robertson is inclined to believe that Jonson had in mind similarities of thought and phrase to be found in "Hamlet" and in "Measure for Measure," the one published, the other produced, in the previous year (1604).

This may be; but it also may be that he had in mind similarities of thought and phrase to be found in the writings of Bacon. In Bacon's very first Essay (and it is to be observed that this very title "Essay" is stolen from Montaigne, who first used the word in this sense)—in Bacon's first Essay he quotes openly from Montaigne: "Montaigny saith prettily . . ."; and in the next Essay there are four singularly parallel passages. Such recur again and again in his Essays, and not less frequently in his other writings, especially, perhaps, in the 'Advancement of Learning.' In 1867 the late Edward FitzGerald wrote to Mr. Aldis Wright:

> "When Robert Groome was with me a month ago, I was speaking to him of having found some Bacon in Montaigne; and R. G. told me that you had observed the same, and were indeed collecting some instances; I think quotations from Seneca, so employed as to prove that Bacon had them from the Frenchman. . . . I had not noticed this Seneca coincidence; but I had observed a few passages of Montaigne's own, which seemed to me to have got into Bacon's Essays."

He then quotes a passage from Montaigne's Essay, 'De la Vanité,' and adds:

> "In the same essay is a piece of 'King Lear,' perhaps [and he quotes again]. One doesn't talk of such things as plagiarisms, of course; as if Bacon and Shakspere couldn't have said much better things themselves; only for the pleasure of tracing where they read, and what they were struck by."

These things are indeed no "plagiarisms." In the passage in "King Lear" referred to by FitzGerald, Shakspere takes the philosophic thought of Montaigne and touches it into passion and poetry by the emotion he breathes into it. In only one instance he actually "plagiarizes" from Florio's translation in the same manner that he so frequently did from North's Plutarch and Holinshed's 'Chronicle,' simply versifying the prose. John Sterling, writing in 1838, put the case as regards parallel passages judiciously in saying: "It would doubtless be easy to trace many apparent transferences from the Frenchman into the Englishman's works, as both were keen and many-sided observers in the same age and neighboring countries." It is not perhaps so very easy (in one sense) to trace these apparent (or real) transferences, since it demands very considerable familiarity with all Shakspere's plays and all Montaigne's Essays, and a rather unusual power of memory. At any rate, it has never till now, by Mr. Robertson, been attempted.

It began to be suggested in France about the middle of this century, but nothing has been done about it there. In Germany, twenty years ago, Dr. Elze remarked that Shakspere's obligations to Montaigne had not been adequately recognized, and Mr. John W. Hales, in his excellent notes on Shakspere, commenting on this remark, adds: "We think that there are many more indications of direct contact than have yet been collected; but we cannot now stay to particularize." No one has "stayed to particularize" before Mr. Robertson—if, as may be assumed, there is no occasion to mention, in any serious study of the question, the book of Mr. Jacob Feis, published some years ago, 'Shakspere and Montaigne,' which is based on the fantastic notion that in the character of *Hamlet* Shakspere had had the character of Montaigne in mind.

Mr. Robertson notes, besides the passage in the "Tempest," three correspondences of phrase already observed, as he says, by others, which he thinks "prove reminiscence beyond possibility of dispute." To these he adds ten "parallels" which seem to him "striking correspondences" and "inevitably to suggest a relation"; and these again are followed by some thirteen "parallelisms of thought of a less direct kind." It shows how much in this matter hinges on personal impressions that the present writer finds it impossible to perceive that in two or three consecutive pages of Montaigne's 'Apology of Raimond Sebonde' "we find, poetry apart, nearly every notion that enters into *Claudio's* speech" (in "Measure for Measure," III. 1); and would equally question (as of any importance) another parallelism suggested by FitzGerald as occurring in "Othello"; while, on the other hand, there are some half-dozen parallels, in "Hamlet" and in the speech of *Henry V.* before Agincourt (IV. 1), not as yet even referred to, which seem to the present writer to stare one in the face in this connection.

If we turn from Shakspere to Ben Jonson again, we may suspect that he himself stole from "Montaignie." One of his most beautiful odes is based on one of Seneca's Letters; this Letter must have been also in Montaigne's mind when writing the nineteenth Essay of the first book; and it would seem as if Jonson must have had floating reminiscences of Montaigne's reminiscences, for two of his lines recall a sentence in the Essay, which is Seneca's thought phrased by Montaigne in a manner hardly likely to have been recreated spontaneously by Jonson. In Jonson's case, again, "it would," in Sterling's words, "doubtless be easy to trace many apparent transferences," all the more that Jonson was a personal friend of Florio,

and must have been interested in his translation.

Passing from Jonson to Jeremy Taylor, we find the great divine calmly "conveying" a page of Montaigne into his 'Holy Dying' without the slightest acknowledgment—the beautiful page that closes the Essay just referred to. But our space shortens, and we must skip hastily from one famous name to another. Sir Kenelm Digby made "his" one of the most beautiful sentences of the Essay on Friendship, and paraphrased a page of it. Locke's views of education, it is universally recognized, were to a very remarkable degree the same as those of Montaigne, whether derived from him or not; and in page after page of Locke's 'Treatise on Education' there is sentence after sentence which is the very echo of Montaigne's words. It would be most interesting to see the Treatise printed as notes to Montaigne. As Mr. Robertson remarks, in regard to Shakspere: "The influence is of that high sort in which he who takes becomes cothinker with him who gives."

Passing over one or two generations, in each of which, however, is to be found more than one cothinker with Montaigne, we lay our hand on the shoulder of Sterne and ask, "Where did you get all that page in 'Tristram Shandy' about your Dr. Howenas's notes?" "From Montaigne," he answers very alertly, but a little sorry to be found out—"from Montaigne. Book first, chapter twenty-five." And on all sides, roused by his confession, we hear "From Montaigne! from Montaigne! book first! book third! book second! chapter this, chapter that, and the other!" And it is no matter for surprise if, as FitzGerald would say, we "find some Shakspere in Montaigne."

Charles Dickens: A Critical Study. By George Gissing. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1898.

In the matter of Dickens, it becomes more obvious, every decade, that the whole reading world lies in heresy. The youth of today reads Kipling and Stevenson, and leaves a quoting knowledge of "Boz" to the elder generation. This seems, at first sight, to mean failure for one who measured his success by the applause of the public; one to whom the attitude of the modern "realist," whose motto is Cyrano de Bergerac's *Déplaire est mon plaisir*, would have seemed absolutely mysterious. A novelist who writes with a purpose, be it theological or political or social, limits his immortality by the inevitable changes of fashion. Less than a generation passes, and the heterodoxy that was meant to move us to pity and terror assumes the flavor of toast and water. For modern readers of Dickens, paradox has become platitude; old abuses have vanished with the Fleet and the Marshalsea; they are confronted with abuses of a new pattern. Yet, since the novels of Dickens did undeniably contribute to the social revolution which has produced a change of taste, he at least could not regard their neglect as an indication of failure. It is, after all, a neglect which he shares with those far greater artists Fielding and Swift. Who reads Swift's 'Polite Conversations' nowadays? Only the professional critic. And the day is fast approaching when only he will read that great Cockney Epic, Carlyle's "lowest trash," the 'Pickwick Papers.'

We fear that a three-hundred page study of him who was once the darling of the English people is calculated to strike terror even into the lone, lorn Dickensite. To unskilled, scattered criticism of Dickens the world has long since turned a resolutely deaf ear. The English suburb that still mistakes the absurd and impossible comparison of Dickens and Thackeray for literary discussion must be truly remote. But even the heretics whom he would fain persuade will give Mr. Gissing a respectful hearing. The incursion of a novelist into criticism is always interesting and has usually proved disappointing. In the present case, two facts make Mr. Gissing's essay noteworthy. Though his stern realism is unrelieved by humor, he has dealt in his novels with much the same aspects of life that appealed to Dickens; and he now reveals himself in the character of one of those survivals on whom Dickens exercises the old glamour. When Mr. Gissing criticises, as he does unsparingly, it is with the air of one who "lifts up his hands against my father Parmenides." When, on the other hand, he praises, as he does with almost tearful enthusiasm, he disarms the reader by his readiness to concede that, viewed as a literary artist, Dickens failed lamentably when he did fail. Mr. Gissing does not, like Mr. Henley, attempt to defend the plots, and, for a devout Dickensite, he is severe in his criticism of the tragic personages of the novels:

> "The popular voice pleads for Sidney Carton; yes, he is well presented—but so easy to forget. Think, on the other hand, of the long list of women meant to be tragic who, one and all, must be judged failures. Edith Dombey, with her silent wrath and ludicrous behavior; . . . Rosa Dartle, at first a promising suggestion, but falling away into exaggerations of lime-light frenzy; Lady Dedlock and her maid Hortense—which is the more obvious waxwork?" (p. 122).

We know that Jeffrey, that stern critic, shed floods of tears over "the dying of that sweet Paul Dombey." Mr. Gissing, too, has an inexplicable weakness for the Dickens death-bed, and could weep with Jeffrey over Little Nell and her metrical last words: "When I die | put me near something that has loved the light | and had the sky above it always." This terrible metrical prose into which Dickens, like Kingsley, would drop instinctively when he was moved by strong emotion, Mr. Gissing rightly regards as the greatest of his faults of style.

The discussion of Dickens as an early Victorian "realist" is interesting. Realistic he could be, but he almost always avoided the remorseless realism of the moderns. He himself tells us that his Cheap Jack is "the real thing, of course refined and humored." It is curious to find Gérard de Nerval, after reading a translation of Dickens, congratulating the English nation on its power to read and write "chapitres d'observation dénués de tout alliage d'invention romanesque. . . . L'intelligence réaliste de nos voisins se contente du vrai absolu." Surely there is little enough of the *vrai absolu* in Dickens. Did Nerval think that London pickpockets and monthly nurses talked the comparatively refined lingo of the Artful Dodger and Sairey Gamp? It is true that Dickens, like Gautier, was a man for whom the visible world existed, but we think that Mr. Gissing goes too far when he says that "not one page of Flaubert gives proof of sight and grasp equal to that evinced in a thousand of Dickens" (p. 246). By the way, for what section of the English public did Mr. Gissing write this essay, in which he apologizes for "assuming familiarity with the principal works of Balzac, Victor Hugo, Dostoieffsky, Daudet" (p. 284), and explains that Flaubert is a French novelist (p. 246)?

Mr. Gissing is a clever and interesting advocate. But he strikes the critical note so often, and so entirely to our mind, that it is with something of a shock that we confront this *volte-face* at the conclusion: "In speaking of Dickens's triumphs as an author, I have felt that the most fervent praise could not err by excess; every time I open his books, as the years go on, it is with ever more of wonder, delight, admiration, and love." After all, we are left with the uncomfortable doubt whether, when he reads Dickens, Mr. Gissing does not confuse the intimations of his heart and head.

Bouvier's Law Dictionary. By John Bouvier. A new edition, thoroughly revised and brought up to date by Francis Rawle. Vol. I. The Boston Book Co. 1897.

The first edition of this Law Dictionary was published in 1839; in sixty years the work has passed through sixteen editions, a striking proof of its popularity and value. Meantime, like all law-books which do not speedily die, it has grown. The first volume of the second edition, which was brought out in 1843, contained some 740 small pages; the first volume of the present revision contains 1,125 large ones. In obedience to another law of legal evolution, "it has been the editor's aim to make the work a complete dictionary of the law, and also to develop still more fully its encyclopædic side," and at the same time, by rearranging titles and by cross references, to "unify and harmonize the whole." He has treated fully the most important topics of the law, especially those in which the law has shown marked development in the last fifteen years. The new ones alone number several hundred, and "the recent investigations in the early history of the English law and its relation to the Roman law have been used by the editor in the various titles which relate thereto." "A large part of the work has been rewritten, and every title has been carefully revised and corrected."

To characterize an edition of this sort in a few words is very difficult, and we shall not make the endeavor. In actual use we have found the revision convenient for a purpose to which the original Bouvier was not so well adapted—that of putting a lawyer on the scent of recently developed doctrines and collections of authorities. In modern practice this is the function of a legal encyclopædia, and in this respect many of the titles will be found valuable—for instance, to mention only half-a-dozen obvious ones, Causa Proxima, Conflict of Laws, Foreign Judgment, Fixtures, Ejectment, Executive Power, Eminent Domain. On the other hand, the learning and accuracy of research demanded by a legal lexicon are not always conspicuously present in this edition. Under Fiction we miss all allusion to fictions in ejectment; *a consiliis* is translated "a counsellor"; *Legal Ethics* consists of two or three long extracts from essays on the subject, and the titles of a number of works and articles; *Deduction for new* is described without any explicit statement that it is an arbitrary rule of maritime insurance; the Declaration of Paris is given as made by the "leading Powers of Europe," without

any list of the signatories, or reference to the fact that the United States declined to sign; under *Contraband of War* there is no explanation of how contraband articles are condemned or forfeited. *Contents unknown* is said to be a phrase used in a bill of lading, "denoting that the goods are shipped in apparently good condition." A case decided by the Supreme Court is referred to as authority, but what the court said was, as may be imagined, not just this. Under *Arm of the Sea* there is no reference to the "three-mile rule." Under *Hook*, the Indiana Supreme Court is referred to as having decided that the verb "to hook" *may not* mean "to steal"—surely an unnecessary piece of information. If the fact were otherwise, strange consequences would follow. It is news to us that "greenback" applies to "all United States Treasury notes"; the editor has been misled, however, into this statement by the Supreme Court of Indiana (Hickey vs. State, 23 Ind., 21, miscited here as p. 121), which really decided only that "greenbacks" must mean *some* sort of Treasury note.

These instances, taken at random, have convinced us that the highest degree of accuracy has not been attempted. We are not disposed, however, to quarrel with the result, so good in many respects. The editor has certainly given Bouvier a new lease of life. He was the father of the hand-books of American law, dictionaries, encyclopædias, and all, by which we are surrounded and sometimes overwhelmed. Amid them he holds his own, through the inherent excellence of his arrangement, system, and execution. As we go for the law to Kent, Story, Marshall, or Greenleaf, so we still go for our "Termes de la Ley" to Bouvier.

The Durket Sperret. By Sarah Barnwell Elliot. Henry Holt & Co.

The Charmer: A Seaside Comedy. By Shan F. Bullock. London: James Bowden; New York: M. F. Mansfield.

King Circumstance. By Edwin Pugh. Henry Holt & Co.

From the rather vague background of mountain scenery, "Covites," and "Versity people," in 'The Durket Sperret,' two figures stand out, vigorously drawn. "Strong, simple, silent," Hannah Warren moves before us, a homespun heroine, in whose possibility one is glad to believe. She is made to pass through an improbable experience, but she herself is never improbable. The other genuine bit of life, termagant old Grandmother Warren, adds such vivacity to the page that one is grateful to the indulgent Providence which averts until the last chapter her third and fatal fit. The "Durket Sperret," rending and tearing her like a demoniacal possession, is the cause of this final catastrophe—a warning to all cherishers of undue family pride. The rich resource of Mrs. Warren's vituperation is delightfully displayed, at Dave Durket's "buryin'," in the downing of that Minervy who looked as "biggity as a settin' hen."

The author writes of her mountaineers with discrimination born of intimate knowledge. Too often they are treated very much in the spirit of the song, "All 'coons look alike to me," without regard to the social gulfs that may yawn between dwellers in a Cumberland cove. Here and there in the book one wishes for words more fitly chosen to accord with the simplicity of the theme. The description of the Warren homestead, with its "lobby" and "piazzas," gives no clear vision of the two-pens-and-a-passage style of architecture invariable in the Southern mountains. Nor do mottoes from Browning and Omar Khayyám seem the proper preluding for the rustic melodies which follow.

Irish story-writers have perhaps this advantage in the great literary handicap, that they are able, solemnly and with an appearance of good faith, to impose a more incoherent farrago than would be accepted from any other quarter. In 'The Charmer' a young English artist and his bride, evidently unmindful of the trouble which overtook Abraham for a similar deception, pass themselves off as brother and sister during their stay at an Irish coast village. This attempt, unusual enough among "honeymooners," is made in order to protect themselves from the curious attentions of the villagers. The situation, skilfully treated, might have provided some amusing scenes. But the author, innocent of dramatic rule or instinct, commits the blunder of leaving audience as well as actors in the dark. Not until the last chapter is the gentle reader himself informed of the real relationship between the twain. He has been alone with them under the shining stars and by the sounding sea when, without a villager in sight, the bridal couple might not unnaturally have exchanged a caress or dropped a compromising word, but nothing of the sort has ever happened. In consequence of all this the author, who knoweth the end from the beginning, is the only one in a position to derive amusement from the spectacle of country bumpkins prostrating themselves before Kate, the "Charmer," while the artist sketches on a distant rock. The racy bits of brogue which abound are manifestly the author's justification, though they scarcely atone for the absurdities of the book.

The many different types of short story contained in the volume of 'King Circumstance' give one the impression of an author who has not yet found his *métier*. He ranges from the old-fashioned romance, skeletonized, to be sure, of highwayman and outlaw, to the most modern afternoon-tea episode. With here and there some display of cleverness, particularly in the management of dialogue, there is in all a depressing artificiality. One is never convinced that these things are so. Moreover, this literary birth seems indeed to have been but a sleep and a forgetting, and the author trails cloudy recollections which bewilder one until the resemblances are fairly established. John Oliver Hobbes is most frequently suggested, but, throughout, the reader's mood is one of tender reminiscence until in "The Anterior Time" he becomes wearifully conscious that Tom Sawyer is not yet an abandoned mine for juvenilia. Still, the author's realism is all his own. Not even in life would one undertake to discover the prototype of the "emancipated bar-maid," "brought up in the fetid atmosphere of a public-house," "an infusion of beer in her mother's milk," who could say to her betrayer: "I was delicately nurtured; this enforced niggardliness is killing me." Beer had not at any rate made thick the tongue that could utter so unwieldy a word. The lurid imaginings of the "Martyrdom of the Mouse" are perhaps the best indications of the author's power that the book affords.

Principles of Political Economy. By J. Shield Nicholson. Vol. II., Book III. The Macmillan Co. 1897.

The segment of Political Economy here treated is Exchange in the largest sense. It includes not only the subjects of exchange-value, price, demand and supply, cost of production, foreign trade, and the foreign exchanges, but also the general theory of money, credit, and banking, with chapters on the historical development of banks, the rate of interest and of discount, and the chartered trading companies. The scheme is perhaps too comprehensive to be worked out with scientific completeness; at least, some parts of it are much better done than others. The digression on the history of Scottish banking, for instance, we should regard as distinctly inferior to that given by Adam Smith in the 'Wealth of Nations,' although it furnishes a few later particulars. Bimetallism is disposed of in fifteen pages, most of which are taken up with a presentation of the difficulties of bringing it about, leaving scant room for defending the author's view that it is desirable. There are other chapters which, although well written, are too superficial; the author is so sure of his own position that he does not quite appreciate the opposing arguments.

On the other hand, the discussion of value and price, with which this volume opens, is thorough, and takes account of the most recent speculations and theories. Here we find some much-needed cautions forcibly stated. The doctrine of final or marginal utility has been pressed altogether too far. It is fascinating to economists of a mathematical turn of mind; and, in place of the assumption of likeness among phenomena, which alone makes classification, and thus science, possible, we have had such profound analyses of these phenomena as to make it hopeless, for practical purposes, to attempt to classify them. As illustrating Prof. Nicholson's clearness of view, we quote a part of his comment on some modern attempts to identify value and utility:

"Utility and exchange-value are essentially different. Perhaps the best way to bring out clearly the contrast is to refer to actual records of prices, such as are given in the works of Tooke, Newmarch, and Rogers. By reference to these records we can determine the relative exchange-values of a large number of important commodities (including labor of various kinds) over several centuries. We can obtain from the records the precise rates of exchange, but as regards the feelings of buyers and sellers, or the utilities and disutilities acquired or endured through the exchanges, the records are silent. We can discover the actual rents of lands and houses, but there are no records of so-called consumers' rents. . . . We may say that within certain narrow limits every purchaser pays the same price at the same time in the same market, but we can say nothing of the corresponding utilities to the various purchasers except that—such is the variableness of circumstances and human nature—they are probably very different in different cases. The great banker and the small investor pay the same price for their marginal purchases of consols, but their feelings on the matter cannot be expressed in terms of money. . . . The money measures of marginal utilities have never been set down except in hypotheses."

The most interesting part of the book, to readers of the present day, will be that which relates to monetary problems, and here Prof. Nicholson's analysis is very elaborate. In general, we may say that he brings economic discussion down to the present date, and makes clear to the reader what the present issues are. Under these

circumstances, it could hardly be possible that many of his conclusions should not fail to command immediate assent. This, however, is no reflection on Prof. Nicholson's reasoning, which is fair, careful, and well informed. His book is not above the head of any intelligent reader, but it is of course of especial interest to economists, who know already that what its author has to say is worth hearing.

The General Manager's Story. By Herbert E. Hamblen. Macmillan. 1898.

It is a long reach from the deep-water sailorman to the railroad hand. Mr. Hamblen, however, has accomplished the transition with an ease that betrays that he is equally at home on the deck of a ship and the footboard of a locomotive. In his first book, 'On Many Seas,' he showed his competence to treat of the life of a sailor; in his second, the one under notice, there is no reason to doubt equal familiarity with his subject, as it is understood that he is now a steam-engineer, a calling he has adopted since his retirement from the sea. In his first book he delineated the hardships and dangers incidental to the vocation of the mariner; in his last, 'The General Manager's Story,' he portrays with the same power the perils that encompass the career of the railroad man. In both he dwells with special fondness on the bodily mutilations and violent deaths that appear to be ordinary incidents in either occupation. In most tales in which commonplace *argot* or speech is employed, the illusion is marred through the interjection of literary words which the speakers would not employ in colloquial intercourse. Mr. Hamblen never offends in this particular. The talk of his seafaring people as well as that of his railroad men is held strictly within the limits of their educational or intellectual capacity. Their vocabulary is that of their narrow environment. This strongly marked quality of Mr. Hamblen merits special commendation.

'The General Manager's Story' purports to give the experiences of a young man who enters the railway service thoroughly enamoured of it. He is in turn brakeman, fireman, locomotive engineer, assistant superintendent, and ultimately general manager, of a great railway system, which, when he assumes charge of it, is on the brink of ruin. With astonishing celerity, he desiccates the heavily watered stock, "wipes off" the huge floating indebtedness, reduces "fixed charges," and in the end poses as an object of adoration to a large band of jubilant investors. The verisimilitude of the story had been better sustained if the two or three concluding chapters had been omitted.

In the second chapter, which relates to the hero's first seeking employment, he encounters two worthies, one of whom, having lost a leg, is trimming switch-lamps, while the other, who is "stuffing axle-boxes," "had only one eye and a terrible scar that ran diagonally across his face from eyebrow to chin. This had crushed and distorted his nose, drawn one corner of his left eye down and the opposite corner of his mouth up." . . . "His left arm was cut off just below the elbow, and finished out with a three-pronged iron hook." These two encouraging specimens were, according to Mr. Hamblen, the victims of the ordinary vicissitudes of railway life. The hero, himself, as may be imagined, throughout the various stages of his career, does not escape physical blemishes. His ribs are delicately crushed while coupling cars; he receives a few scratches in "head-on" and "tail-end" collisions; he is pursued down steep grades, when on his locomotive, by the sundered rear section of his freight-train. Open switches greet him with hospitable welcome; he is "held up" by tramps; and he unavoidably kills careless pedestrians walking upon the track. An occasional broken leg, scalds, and scalp wounds vary the monotony of his daily life. The crowning achievement, however, is a collision that requires such a nice adjustment of favorable conditions as to border on the miraculous. Two trains travelling on a single track meet immediately beneath a bridge (which the accident destroys) that carries the track of a second railway across that of the first. Into this chasm an opportune train of the second railroad tumbles upon the débris of the other two a few moments after the collision. As may be imagined, this causes serious complications, to no one more than our hero, who is pinioned beneath the wreck with fire sweeping down upon him. Of course he escapes, but with the loss of all that is consumable about his person except the actual flesh.

'The General Manager's Story' is an interesting contribution to railway literature, in all that relates to train-service from the point of view of those who, practically, operate it. To masters of transportation of the distant future it will be a revelation of recklessness.

With the Conquering Turk: Confessions of a Bashi-Bazouk. By G. W. Steevens. With four maps. Dodd, Mead & Co. 8vo, pp. 315.

There are two ways of looking at this book —one as entertaining light reading in the highest style of the war correspondent's art, which is nothing if not vivid; the other as authentic information touching the qualities of the Turkish soldier, the organization of the Sultan's army, and the absurd fiasco of the Greeks who insisted upon war and then scampered out of Thessaly hardly waiting for a brisk skirmish. Viewed either way, the book has its attractions. Merely as a lively bit of travel and adventure the most careless reader will find amusement in it, and gain no little knowledge of what such a town as Salonica or Larissa is like, with its mixed population of Jews and Gentiles, Turks, Greeks, and Macedonians.

But it is as the story of an eye-witness of the degradation of Greece and the renewal of Turkish importance in Europe that the book will have a higher and more lasting value. The author admits the natural growth of predilection for those among whom he was cordially received, and who showed him the amiable side of their character; but, as we accompany him, we gain faith in his truthfulness of descriptions of men and things and in his keen observation of whatever helps to make the campaign intelligible. The Turkish soldier he finds a strong, patient man, shambling along in his sandals and his dirty makeshift of a uniform, with no sign of dash or enthusiasm, taking naturally to skirmish tactics, and fighting by preference from his little heap of stones or the trunk of a tree. Yet he keeps going, like other good skirmishers, from one bit of cover to another, and, establishing himself in good range of his enemy's position, picks off one after another till the Greeks get tired of it and retreat, when he grows jovial over their running away, but seems never to think of a prompt or sharp pursuit.

With few exceptions, Mr. Steevens found the Turkish officers ill-instructed, careless, and unenterprising, "the finished product of one of the worst governments in the world." With the rank and file, he says, "good officers could do anything in the world." The ridiculously easy promenade from Elassona near Olympus, through the Vale of Tempe, by Pharsala and Domoko to the passes of the Othrys Mountains, he attributes to the cowardice of the Greeks and not to any leadership among the Turks. "Cowardice"—he says—"it is useless to try and explain facts away with any other word"; and as we go along with him day by day, we find ourselves absorbing the same opinion. Officers and men must share the condemnation: "They did not realize what fighting meant. They fought well the first day, at Meluna, and never once afterward. The great battle of Mati, which broke them down, was not a battle at all."

In the matter of looting and of personal outrages, we are told that all former accusations against the Turks were belied by the events of this campaign. The one thing officers seem to have been taught was that they must be responsible for the civilized treatment of captured people and places. It is a comfort to believe, by what seems an authentic example, that a Turkish army can be made as little terrible to non-combatants as an English or a French army. If the outcry of the civilized world and the strong representations of great Powers wrought that result, we need not wholly despair of the future.

Mr. Steevens noted this amenability to discipline in the frontier camps about Elassona, before war was declared:

> "Greek women are washing clothes there in the sunshine, and not one of the untaught Asiatic Reservists dreams for a moment of offering them an incivility. Greek tradesmen make their profit out of the troops; the Greek Consul flies the Greek flag, manufactures stories of outrages, and circulates predictions of coming Greek attacks. But the rudest Anatolian or Circassian never lifts a finger against the Greek" (p. 86).

Again, in mid-campaign, when Larissa was taken, he says: "I patrolled the city for hours, and I do say that the order, the discipline, and the good humor of the Turks could have been exceeded by no nation in the world. . . . The officers had forbidden pillage and violence, and the soldiers obeyed" (p. 181). "Sentinels stood at every corner, mounted patrols paced down every street. The bank and all the other principal buildings had sentries of their own, and it was pleasant to see how hard Albanians scorned the Greek sentry-boxes and sat down contentedly on the stones. There was only one possible objection to the arrangements made—they were not necessary" (p. 182). It is a reputable Englishman who tells this, and, unexpected as the story is, there is no apparent reason for questioning it. Naturally, also, it suggests this reflection, that if outrages in other quarters of the Turkish Empire are authentically proved, they cannot be charged to the inability of the Government and the army officers to enforce discipline.

Another point on which there has been a general misapprehension is the participa-

tion of German officers in the campaign. Here again Mr. Steevens confines himself to what he saw in the field; and to the question how many German officers were really with the Turks, he answers, not one. A single one was there from the third to the eighth day after hostilities began, and then left. Mr. Steevens was back and forth at headquarters, and well acquainted with the staff. His letters and dispatches were submitted to censorship there; and he explicitly declares that no German was on duty. Indeed, he laughingly insists that nobody except a Turk could possibly have conducted such a happy-go-lucky campaign.

When we reflect that Germany was acting with the other great Powers in the attempts at friendly intervention, Mr. Steevens's statement is a very probable one. Germany has been in the habit of allowing some of her officers to serve with the Turks in time of peace, giving them leaves of absence for the purpose. Von der Goltz is the best known of these in late years. But after war began and Germany took part with other Powers in trying to limit its effect, it seems a matter of course that German officers would be ordered home. Mr. Steevens's direct testimony appears to establish the fact. The picture is all very Oriental, from the beginning at Meluna Pass, where the Marshal, Edhem Pasha, was "seated cross-legged on the ground, gazing impassively in front of him, as if this were somebody else's battle and he was an intelligent critic," but looking up and laughing now and then at a good shot from the artillery.

The author closes his book with some well-put reflections on the "devilishness" of war, in spite of the sense of power and exhilaration in it, so long as you are with the winning side. "It is an intoxicating privilege," he says, "to be able to ride straight across a field of young vines in war-time; but, after all, the vines were planted for purposes of peace. You cut green corn for your horses —you have to—but you can't help thinking of the man who ploughed and sowed and will never reap." Such thoughts must "give us pause," without going into still more gruesome scenes and actual bloody horrors.

Rousseau and Education According to Nature. By Thomas Davidson. (Great Educators Series.) Scribners. 1898.

This volume, aside from worthily filling its place in the series to which it belongs, is a useful contribution to Rousseau literature in general. Though dealing in the main with Rousseau as an educational writer and reformer, the author gives a clear and straightforward account of the entire life, activity, and influence of the man, such as is not to be found anywhere else, certainly not in so readable a form and in such small compass.

There is little danger, in Rousseau's case, of the biographer's or critic's becoming a mere eulogist; Mr. Davidson is so far from it that in reading him one is more than ever impressed with the disproportion between poor Jean-Jacques, the man, and the mighty figure he represents in the intellectual history of the race. Instead of being the orginator of the ideas to which he gave currency by means of the passion and magic power of his language, he owed them largely, as is here well shown, to Hobbes, Locke, Montesquieu, Morelly; they were in the air, "fermenting in men's minds when Rousseau came upon the stage." The deplorable defects of his moral and mental nature, the inglorious, discreditable, ignominious circumstances of his life, compressed by Mr. Davidson into an unvarnished, matter-of-fact narrative of fifty pages, stand out far more glaring than they appear through the lyric haze of the 'Confessions.' Rousseau's social and political theories—mistaken and "pernicious or impossible in practice"—are discussed only so far as a knowledge of them is indispensable for an understanding of his educational system as expounded in the 'Émile.' The latter itself "has no redeeming feature."

The author's judgment would have lost some of its harshness, and the chasm between Rousseau's erroneous theories and his powerful influence for good would appear less deep and abrupt, if, aside from the "system," more emphasis had been put upon certain ethical and educational ideas expressed partly in the 'Émile' itself (Book IV.), partly in the 'Nouvelle Héloïse,' and in certain letters. Mr. Davidson acknowledges, however, the excellent work done by Rousseau in laying bare existing defects and abuses, and in demanding reforms, as well as his right purpose. But his influence, which "extended to all departments of known activity—philosophy, science, religion, art, politics, ethics, economics, and pedagogy," was due, according to Mr. Davidson, "to the fact that he took the 'motions' which were 'toiling in the gloom' of the popular mind of his time and made them flash, with the lurid lightning of his own passion, before the astonished eyes of the world." This is no doubt true, but it is not all: Rousseau's ideas went beyond, and penetrated deeper than, those of his predecessors and those which "were in the air"; and it was this added depth and inherent force as well as the irresistible power of his words that gave them such marvellous sway.

That Mr. Davidson must attribute to Rousseau's own thought greater importance and power than his treatment of him would lead one to infer, appears from certain statements in his concluding chapter, where we read, *e. g.*, that "Kant, in his three Critiques, does little more than present, in philosophical garb, the leading doctrines of Rousseau"; that "in Art, and especially in Literature, Rousseau's influence has, from his own days to ours, been almost paramount throughout Christendom." From one to three dozen of the foremost writers in each of the principal countries are mentioned by name as disciples of Rousseau, the remaining ones being disposed of collectively under the terms of "many more," or "hundreds more." To say that "under the influence of Rousseau the poets of Great Britain broke away from the monotonous, aphoristic stiltedness of Pope and his school, and returned to 'Nature' and simplicity," is forgetting that Thomson and Richardson had preceded Rousseau, and that the indebtedness of the Genevese to the Englishmen is great and unquestioned. Why Goethe's 'Triumph of Sentimentality,' styled by Goethe himself a *tolle Grille*, and ridiculing his own 'Werther' and Rousseau's 'Nouvelle Héloïse,' should have been cited in connection with 'Werther' is not intelligible. Emerson's state of a "loyal disciple" the author has thought it best to establish by some proof, but lack of space, no doubt, precluded any attempt to do likewise in the numerous other cases. Had he undertaken it, he would have found that frequently the supposed (and possibly real) influences were too subtile and the guiding threads too delicate to sustain a chain of evidence. However, the last twenty pages of the book contain themes for a series of interesting volumes.

Album d'Antiquités Orientales; Recueil de Monuments inédits ou peu connus—Art, Archéologie, Épigraphie; publié par Clermont-Ganneau, Membre de l'Institut, Professeur au Collège de France. Paris: Ernest Leroux. 1897.

The Album before us is a selection from a selection, and contains plates i.-vii. and xlii.-l. of the first series of fifty plates. The Album is to appear at short intervals, in parts, each provided with ten quarto plates. The first series of fifty plates will be accompanied by a general descriptive text, and the last number by a table of contents. We are not told how many series of fifty plates there are to be; the edition will be limited; subscribers will get the volume for thirty francs, and others for forty francs.

In these specimen plates, two are devoted to Aramean stelæ from Neïrab, four to various antiquities from Cyrene, including terracotta figurines, vases, and lychnaria; one to unimportant antiquities from Crete, one to a six-faced Nabatean cippus from D'Meir in Syria, one to a Phœnician inscription from Narnaka (?) in Cyprus, one to glassware from Syria; one to the dedicatory inscription on the pedestal of the statue of King Rabel (Ptera), a funeral bust with Palmyrene inscriptions (Palmyra), and a Phœnician cippus of Narnaka, (?) Cyprus; one to the bas-relief of Bar-Rekub, with an Aramean inscription (Zendjerli); one to Latin and French inscriptions of the crusaders (Palestine), an inscribed Arabic milestone from the road between Jerusalem and Jaffa, belonging to the first century of the hegira, and a lychnarion, with a Kufic inscription; one to pottery found in the ancient cemeteries of Malta, one to assorted antiquities from Syria, and lastly one to the fragments of a leaden sarcophagus from Syria. Some of the plates are excellent, while others, notably those dealing with the antiquities of Cyrene, are very poor and unsatisfactory.

It will be seen from the above that the Album is an unmethodical pot-pourri. Selections subserved a very good purpose in the reckless days of dilettanteism, but the time for selections in any field of art or archæology is happily past. The strict science of the day is satisfied with and benefited only by complete *corpora*, chronologically arranged; nothing else will suit the requirements of the historical study of art and archæology. It is a pity to waste the energy of scholars by mere selections, no matter who makes them, nor how well the work be done. There is no reason for the existence of this Album.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barcus, J. S. Public Service within the State of New York. Globe Publishing Co.
Barrows, S. J. The Isles and Shrines of Greece. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.
Basford, J. L. Seven Seventy Seven Sensations. New York: Alliance Publishing Co. 50c.
Bate, W. S. Berth-Deck Ballads. New York: Lockwood Press.
Bill, E. L. The Sword of the Pyramids. F. T. Neely.
Böhm-Bawerk, Prof. Eugen von. Karl Marx and the Close of his System. Macmillan. $1.60.
Burt, Mary E. Odysseus the Hero of Ithaca. Scribners. 60c.
Church, Rev. A. J. Stories from English History. New ed. Macmillan. $1.25.
Dickens, Charles. Our Mutual Friend. 2 vols. [Gadshill Edition.] Scribners. $3.
Dowie, Ménie M. The Crook of the Bough. Scribners. $1.25.

Dryden's Palamon and Arcite. American Book Co. 20c.
Du Maurier, George. Social Pictorial Satire. Harpers. $1.50.
Dunbar, Paul L. Folks from Dixie. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Ferguson, W. S. The Athenian Secretaries. [Cornell Studies in Classical Philology.] Macmillan. 50c.
Flagg, W. J. Yoga; or, Transformation. London: George Redway; New York: J. W. Bouton.
Fontaine, C. Douze Contes Nouveaux. American Book Co. 45c.
Ford, P. L. The Federalist. Henry Holt & Co. $2.50.
Fox, Rev. Norman. Christ in the Daily Meal. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Francis, M. E. The Duenna of a Genius. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Frink, Prof. H. A. The New Century Speaker. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Garner, J. L. The Stanzas of Omar Khayyám. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co. $1.
Graetz, Prof. H. History of the Jews. Index volume, with a Memoir of the Author. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society. $3.
Granger, M. M. Washington vs. Jefferson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Gray. Selected Poems. American Book Co. 20c.
Grenfell, B. P., and Hunt, A. S. Menander's Georgos. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Griffis, W. E. The Pilgrims in their Three Homes, England, Holland, America. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Grimm, Jacob and Wilhelm. Deutsches Wörterbuch. Erste Lieferung. Leipzig: S. Hirzel; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Harlow, W. B. Aunt Elvira Abroad. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co.
Hatton, Joseph. The Vicar. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Herrick, Robert. The Gospel of Freedom. Macmillan. $1.50.
Hichens, Robert. The Londoners. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Holm, Ad. Geschichte Siciliens im Alterthum. 3 vols. Leipzig: W. Engelmann.
Hyde, W. De W. The Evolution of the College Student. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
King, Capt. Charles. Ray's Recruit. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Koopman, H. L. Morrow-Songs, 1880-1898. Boston: H. D. Everett. $1.
Macarthur, James. The Bookman Literary Year-Book. 1898. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
MacBeth, Rev. R. G. The Making of the Canadian West. Toronto: William Briggs.
McConachie, L. G. Congressional Committees. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.75.
Meredith, George. The Ordeal of Richard Feverel; Diana of the Crossways. Scribners. Each $1.50.
Morton, Annie H. Heirlooms in Miniatures. 2d ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Nicolls, W. J. Coal Catechism. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
O'Conor, Rev. J. F. X. Facts About Bookworms. F. P. Harper.
Palmer, Prof. G. H. The Glory of the Imperfect. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
Parker, Gilbert. Novels in 5 vols. Appletons.
Peters, Rev. M. C. The Panacea for Poverty. New York: Bloomingdale Church Press. $1.
Ross, Clinton. A Trooper of the Empress. Appletons. $1.
Stircke, Louis. Primary Election Legislation in the State of New York. Wynkoop, Hallenbeck, Crawford Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 26, 1898.

The Week.

The rumors circulated last week that a fresh call for volunteers would be issued soon are renewed. The reasons for it given in the Washington dispatches to the *Tribune* are two in number: first, that the capture of the Philippine Islands was not anticipated when the call for volunteers was issued, and that the necessity for sending 15,000 soldiers to that quarter has greatly crippled the proposed expedition to Cuba; second, that the help expected from the Cuban insurgents is not to be depended upon, because the insurgent army is a mythical organization. As regards the latter, there has been a great disillusionment. From thirty-five thousand men (Senator Proctor's estimate) it has dropped by degrees to not more than thirty-five hundred, probably much less. "For nearly two years," says the *Tribune's* dispatch, "positive assertions had been numerous that the Cubans, with merely the moral encouragement of the United States through a recognition of belligerency, would quickly accomplish their own independence. Within the last month the falsity of these assertions has been demonstrated to the complete satisfaction of the authorities here, and, through the reports of regular army officers who have recently made reconnoissances in the island, it is now definitely known that little or no assistance from the vaunted 'armies of liberation' need be expected." In other words, we are compelled to proceed upon the basis of the fact that there is a Spanish army of 80,000 trained and acclimated and thoroughly loyal soldiers in the island, and no opposing force worth mention.

The sudden desire of so many sons of Senators and Representatives and other political magnates to serve their country as captains and majors stationed in Washington, shows how determined the Government is, in all its branches, to prosecute the war with vigor and in a way most to do good to friends while most harming the enemy. These young men may be valorous and patriotic above all others, but there is something uncanny about the way in which their superior merits have been so promptly discerned by their own fathers and their fathers' political friends. Some one should let the President know what wry faces are made by people in general, and particularly by officers in the regular army, over these appointments by favor. The affair is but the worse for the fact that many retired army officers are available for these appointments in the volunteer force, and are willing and even eager to serve their country in any capacity. Prevented by absurd laws from being called upon for service in the regular army, as retired naval officers may be and are called upon, they would be eligible for the appointments flung to the Congressmen and the bosses, and would certainly be able to perform the duties of their office at last as well as "Captains" Sewell and Brice and the other sons of their fathers.

The war has upset all of Bryan's plans, and he has had a hard time trying to adapt himself to the new conditions. At first he attempted to keep the Cuban business in the background by shouting "sixteen to one" more loudly than ever, but he soon found that even his voice was unequal to this task. Then he began to consider how he could get into the army in some spectacular way. The happy thought struck him of offering his services to the President, with the expectation that his successful rival would offer him a major-generalship, or something of that sort; but Mr. McKinley was able to get out of this dilemma by confining these appointments to men who had behind them the military service which Bryan lacked. Then he conceived the idea of enlisting as a private at his home in Nebraska, and having his comrades first elect him captain of his company, from which position he could presently be promoted to the colonelcy; but so much opposition developed to this scheme at the start that he had to withdraw his name from the canvass, and the Populist Governor will now have to "jump" him to the command of the regiment, after the manner denounced by all good Populists as intolerable.

The President of the Louisiana Board of Health recently wrote to the supervising Surgeon-General of the United States Marine Hospital Service, asking what measures are contemplated by the United States Government to prevent the introduction of yellow fever and smallpox by troops, seamen, and others returning from Cuba, and informing him that the State Board holds that the quarantine regulations of Louisiana should be fully complied with, so that even troops coming through after the close of the regular quarantine season should submit to thorough disinfection of their clothing and baggage, lest such clothing and baggage should be the cause of infection in the following summer. Surgeon-General Wyman replied that the United States Government proposes that all returning troops shall be subject to quarantine inspection, and that provision will be made for the detention and disinfection of suspected persons and effects. A representative of the United States Marine Hospital Service will be detailed in every Cuban port occupied by United States troops, to take such measures as may be possible to prevent persons with infectious diseases, or articles that may be infected, from leaving the port, and to give the quarantine officers at the ports of arrival all necessary information with regard to the same. The officers of the fleet will also be instructed to pay special attention to small craft which make from Cuba and attempt irregular landing at places in the United States, and to carry such craft to the nearest quarantine station for disinfection and detention. By these and other precautions it is hoped that the danger of introducing yellow fever into the United States through military operations may be minimized, but it is conceded that here is a serious risk growing out of war which few thought of beforehand.

We have not yet observed any thorough discussion, either in the Senate or in the press, of two provisions in the Senate revenue bill which are enough to stamp the entire measure as iniquitous. There are two branches of the banking industry which have been exempted, by the common consent of civilized states, from onerous taxation. These two are the business of savings institutions and of mutual life insurance, and the reason for the exemption is plain. Both are in their nature benevolent institutions, and both do business in the main with the hard-earned savings of citizens who have little to spare, but who, by an instinct of self-sacrifice, lay by that little against the chances of the future. We cannot do better than to quote the clauses of the Senate act which refer to these two industries. "Every person, firm, company, or corporation," says the bill, "engaged in the business of banking, shall pay a special excise tax which shall be equal to one-forty-eighth of one per centum each month upon the average amount of the deposits of money subject to payment by check or draft." This, of course, strikes at the savings bank. Moreover, "every person, firm, company, or corporation who shall own or conduct or have the care or management of any business for life, fire, marine, or accident insurance . . . shall pay a special annual excise tax equivalent to one-fourth of one per centum of the gross amount of all the receipts from premiums and assessments collected." There appears to be no exemption or exception. Life companies have been taxed on capital and surplus, but never before, so far as we are aware, on every premium received. With such

clauses in the bill, it is scarcely necessary to advert to the bearing of the "deposit tax" on the banking business generally. This tax was, of course, conceived on the theory that banking is a source of boundless wealth to its promoters, whereas most people know that the annual tax of one-quarter per cent. on deposits would in unfavorable years exhaust the entire profits of a number of smaller institutions—unless, indeed, they were able to recoup themselves through higher rates on loans.

The discussions of the war-revenue bill in the Senate are doing at least this good, that they bring to light some elementary principles of taxation which have been long obscured in this country. Senators complain that this or that proposed tax will be "burdensome." Somebody will have to pay it, will know that he is paying it, will not like it, will grumble, will, perhaps, even begin to doubt the supernal wisdom of Senators who lay the tax. Such is the result of years of teaching that taxes for Federal purposes are something that no American has to pay. The foreigner pays them, they come secretly and automatically out of the "general business of the country," they flow into the Treasury like the gentle rain from heaven—the Treasurer peeps in, and there is the money, he knows not whence—but no citizen ever puts his hand in his pocket and forks over to the general Government. This has been our complacent theory, which the indirect operation of protective taxes has given the demagogue a show of reason for asserting, and the ignorant a plausible ground for believing. What abuses and extravagances have sheltered themselves behind this opinion we all know. If there had been a perfectly clear relation between every inflated pension bill and the margin of saving of each citizen, we should not have seen what we have seen. But the war and the Dingley deficit combined are giving us saner notions. Taxes are so much taken from the wealth of the nation, and the process by which it is taken cannot be concealed when a resort to direct levies has to be made as now. Let us hope the lesson will not be forgotten before the next war comes to teach it over again.

The scheme to rush through the annexation of Hawaii as a "war measure" caps the climax of absurdity, but that is no reason why it should not be popular with members of Congress. Its advocates claim that Speaker Reed and Representative Johnson of Indiana are the only men on the Republican side in the House who have not been carried off their feet by it, and they predict the easy passage of a joint resolution through that branch. But it will be another matter to secure the concurrence of the Senate. Mr. White of California, who has been a persistent opponent of annexation from the start, serves notice that no snap judgment can be secured. He claims that the power to admit a Territory or dependency by resolution is doubtful, and points out that, while Texas came in by resolution, it was admitted as a State under a provision of the Constitution expressly giving Congress the right to admit new States. He promises that this and many more equally cogent arguments will be elaborated whenever the subject shall be publicly debated, and well says that "the sensible thing to do is to suspend further proceedings on the subject of annexation until the war with Spain is over, and we face the new problems resulting from our success at arms." With Senators occupying this position, there seems ground for hope that we may be spared the scandal of seeing Hawaii taken in through an abuse of the war power.

The action of a Prohibition State convention is usually dismissed as a matter of no consequence, but it is not beyond the range of possibility that the body which met at Harrisburg on Friday may have put at the head of its ticket the man who will be the next Governor of Pennsylvania. Last year the Rev. Dr. S. C. Swallow, running only as the candidate of the Prohibitionists for State Treasurer in an "off year," polled nearly 120,000 votes, and carried a number of counties. He was then unknown and the nominee of a party which had no effective organization. The campaign which he made last year attracted the notice of the whole State, and insured his hearty support (if he should be in the field again this year) by a host of voters who felt that they did not know enough about him to enlist in his cause at first. Many leading Independents some weeks ago organized "the Honest-Government party," and made Dr. Swallow their candidate, with "Thou shalt not steal" as the rallying-cry of the campaign. The Prohibitionists were, of course, only too glad to nominate him again in their convention on Friday, and most of their platform was devoted to the cause of reform in State government.

It seems to us that the duty of every friend of good government in Pennsylvania is to support Dr. Swallow. Mr. Wanamaker has done excellent work, for which he deserves the highest praise, in exposing the corruption of Quay rule; but he is, to speak plainly, an impossible candidate for independent voters to support. The reason is that, although he now charges and demonstrates that the machine despotism has been intolerable for many years, he has invariably supported the candidates of the machine, and only a few years ago raised an immense sum of money for Quay to use in a Presidential campaign. The man who is to make a fight for honest government in the future must be a man who has had no relations with the dishonest government of the past. Dr. Swallow is such a man, and he has, besides, an unlimited supply of courage, enthusiasm, and proselyting power. That he believes in the policy of prohibition of the liquor traffic is, for the purposes of the pending campaign, a matter of no consequence. Prohibition could be introduced in Pennsylvania only by legislative enactment, and a majority of lawmakers in favor of that policy is out of the question. We can see no reason, therefore, why the anti-Quay Republicans whom Mr. Wanamaker has been organizing, and the anti-Quay newspapers, of which the Philadelphia *Ledger* is most conspicuous, should not support Dr. Swallow, and, with the help of Democrats, hardly less disgusted with the tone of management in their party, elect him.

The Mayor of New York has taken possession of the police force for the benefit of the Croker Bossocracy, and has done it in good Tammany style. The only sign of weakness which he exhibited in the performance was in giving a public explanation of it; but as this was mainly a defiance of the respectable portion of the public and a notification that he has a majority of the voters of the city surely behind him, this does not count for much. He says he will hold his office and administer the government in the way he has been doing till the end of his term, when he is sure the people will elect him to the bench "by the largest majority ever given to a candidate in this city." In other words, he claims that, in taking possession of the police for Tammany purposes, he is carrying out the will of the people who put him in office, and that hence nobody has any right to complain. We do not see how any one can dispute this successfully. There was no disguise whatever about the Croker-Van Wyck campaign. Van Wyck was selected by Croker, put in the field by Croker, and run for Mayor on the open platform of the restoration of Tammany rule as it existed prior to the Tammany overthrow in 1894. No political organization ever conducted a campaign with so complete an absence of humbug as Mr. Croker conducted this. He said that Van Wyck was his man, and Van Wyck was content to stand as his man. After election, Croker at once took upon himself the business of organizing the new government, and in this operation also the Mayor was content to act as his man. In due course of time Croker decided that he must have possession of the police force for purposes which need not to be mentioned, and he went to Europe leaving

orders with his man to take possession. These have now been carried into execution.

Mississippi, as we show in another column, has practically disfranchised the black majority of voters who once ruled the State, but the white minority finds that something else is necessary to secure good government. Democratic newspapers are publishing most serious charges against the men who are now in power and the methods which they employ. One such journal declares the administration of affairs during the past two years the most unsatisfactory Mississippi has had since the Democrats came into power after the reconstruction period. The Jackson correspondent of the New Orleans *Picayune* pronounces the situation "deplorable"; says that "taxes are higher than since the black vampires of radicalism—Ames and his minions—were choked from the neck of the commonwealth"; and makes these further counts in the indictment against the present administration—the absence of public improvements; the issuance of $400,000 of "interest-bearing bonds in times of profound peace"; the appropriation of $200,000 to feed a depleted treasury and to pay the expenses of the State government; the imminent closing of the Industrial Institute and College or the calling of another extra session to keep it open, at the cost of, perhaps, $40,000 more; and the spending of thousands of dollars in discussing resolutions to investigate official drunkenness in high place. This is certainly a pretty bad showing for that "Caucasian rule" from which so much was promised after the carpet-baggers were expelled and the negroes were disfranchised.

The sketch of Mr. Gladstone's career by James Bryce, which we print on another page, leaves us little to say beyond giving reasons why Americans should share in the English mourning, and cry that from among us also a great figure has gone out. During sixty years of public life Gladstone lived in essentially the same religious and political atmosphere as ourselves. He shared most of our political and religious ideals. He shared all, or nearly all, our legal and political traditions. He was, in early life, as Macaulay said, "the rising hope of the stern and unbending Tories," but long before he had closed his career he had identified himself with all the great hopes and expectations with which we in this country, whether rightly or wrongly, are in the habit of surrounding human progress and destiny. He embraced with ardor the creed which makes the popular comfort and welfare the chief end of statesmanship. He cast aside all traditions and habits which made anything but the condition of the masses a legislator's chief concern. And he did this at much sacrifice of associates, of reputation, of influence. During all his later years he was deserted by most of his earlier political friends. But, much obloquy as he endured, no record ever leaped to light that brought him to shame or dishonor. It was a character of many defects and blemishes, but it was a singularly pure one. In running through that rare body of biography of illustrious men which has issued from the English press during the last fifty years, and which to-day constitutes one of England's greatest glories, we find numerous mentions of Gladstone, for he filled a very large place in English society and history, but they are invariably mentions of love and praise. They may "hate Gladstone's politics," but, as Tennyson said, "they love Gladstone."

He belonged to a generation of men the like of whom have not been seen since Rome, except in England—that is, a race of men of culture and leisure, who devoted themselves with ardor to the management of public affairs, without other reward than the approval of their own consciences and the admiration and applause of their fellow-citizens. They were produced by peculiar social conditions and brought to perfection by long ages of practice. The nearest approach that has ever been made to them in historic times has been by the Roman patrician. The success of both in building up empires has long and widely diffused the opinion that it is only such men who have the judgment, the forethought, the indomitable persistence by which alone long-enduring political structures can be produced. But, even if such a point could be decided by discussion, the side of a great man's bier would be a poor place for the inquiry. Gladstone has played his part so well that there are but few of us of commoner clay whom his hopefulness, his diligence, and his charity may not make ashamed by comparison. No vilification was ever sufficient to make him break his magnificent silence, and no ingratitude or inconstancy was ever great enough to prevent his hoping for better things.

The German Reichstag did not expire in exactly a blaze of glory. In its earlier sessions it had shown a marked degree of independence and even a good deal of praiseworthy firmness in resisting the undue demands of the crown. Its refusal to pass the resolutions congratulating Bismarck may have been an ungracious and unwise thing to do, but it at least spoke for the fact that the Reichstag had a will of its own. In withstanding the Emperor's demand for more stringent laws repressing the right of public meeting and discussion, it played well its part of representative of the people in the face of threatened tyranny. But the revived war spirit, the dramatic seizure of Kiao-Chau, and the increasing pressure for colonial expansion and a fighting navy broke down its spirit, in the last months of its existence, and left it little but a docile instrument in the hands of the Ministry. What the complexion and temper of its successor may be is a question which can be answered better after the elections. But it is becoming increasingly true of legislative assemblies all over the world, that the more they are changed the more they remain the same thing. This truth was bitingly set forth for France in one of Caran d'Ache's recent cartoons. Mademoiselle République Française, complaining of the slow progress of her chariot, is told by President Faure that the horses are very poor, but that after the next relay (the elections of May 8) things will march. But the next picture shows the chariot still creeping, after the 8th of May post-house was passed, and the reason was obvious, for there were the same old wheezing and knock-kneed horses hitched in again.

Brunetière's sneer at the "intellectuals" in his article denouncing those who declared Dreyfus innocent, or at least unjustly condemned and deserving a new trial, has brought him a severe though dignified answer from one of the said intellectuals. It is M. Duclaux, head of the Pasteur Institute, and he writes in the legal periodical, the *Revue du Palais*, of May 1. He had been singled out for attack by Brunetière, under the thin disguise of the author of a 'Treatise on Microbiology'—a book which, the critic scornfully said, would be so much waste paper in ten years. M. Duclaux begins by lamenting that a man of Brunetière's standing should have been swept away by "the wind of madness which has blown over France." Hinting that this may have been due to Brunetière's anxiety for his political future—he had announced his intention of standing for Parliament—M. Duclaux goes on to show how it is precisely the "intellectuals," the educated men, the scientists, who should be calm in the midst of popular fury, and insist upon reason and justice in public proceedings. And he nobly rejoins to the fling at his own book by saying that he himself, in the preface, had predicted that new discovery would soon make it obsolete; that a scientific book necessarily marks only one step in advance, to be followed by many others; that it is of the essence of the scientific spirit to be conscious that everything coming from its pen is "imperfectly true, contingent, and destined to be superseded, though surely leaving an influence behind it." Brunetière's misconception of the spirit and methods of science, and his flouting of savants, may help him into the Chamber, but it will hurt him terribly out of it.

THE IMPERIAL POLICY.

It is pleasant and encouraging, in times of excitement, to find any public man who is given to talking, keeping his head clear and retaining courage enough to speak out his honest thought. As a general rule, at such times nowadays, most men never think of keeping their heads clear. Their one duty, as it presents itself to them, is to fall in with the prevailing fury, whatever it may be, and, if possible, yell harder than some other man. In time of war, deliberation seems impossible. It was a Roman who said that the laws were silent in the midst of arms. What he meant was, however, that when hostilities were raging the civil law could not be executed or obeyed as usual. He did not mean—a Roman could not mean—that deliberation over questions of public policy should cease, or had to cease; that the national destinies should no longer cause any concern; and that everybody, instead of deliberating, should take to shouting and reading "yellow journals."

For this reason we have read with pleasure the remarks Mr. Chauncey Depew has seen fit to make about the annexation of the Philippine Islands, particularly as he has not won fame as a man apt to despise the "civium ardor." He appears to be our one publicist who has bestowed any *thought* on the question of annexing the Philippines or providing ourselves with a "colonial policy." What the others seem to do, when in doubt about our course, is to give three or four hearty yells and then go to bed with the stars and stripes wrapped round their bodies.

The history of this Philippine enterprise is very curious and even a little alarming. During the prolonged discussion which raged over the Cuban deliverance, we do not believe the conquest of fifteen hundred islands, inhabited by half savages and bigoted Spaniards, entered into the head of a single human being in this republic. The man who proposed it would have been generally laughed at. We do not believe the members of the Government thought of it any more than the rest of the community. Dewey's instructions were, doubtless, to destroy the Spanish fleet if he could. The only reason for directing him to undertake operations in the far Pacific was that there was a Spanish fleet there. No one thought of Spanish territory there.

But the ease and celerity with which Dewey did his work, fairly turned people's heads, coming on us, as it did, at a time when the capture of even a tramp steamer filled some of us with frantic joy. It seemed so easy to destroy a fleet that we all rushed to the conclusion that it must be just as easy to rule a far-off province. So we fell to shouting and yelling for distant islands to govern, and began to hurl defiance at everybody who said they would not be good for us, just as if the government of islands was what we were most used to, and what we had succeeded best in. It suddenly, within a week, came out that our long and prosperous existence without islands inhabited by savages was a horrible dream or nightmare; men began to wonder how we had got on so long without them, and why on earth we had so long regarded ourselves as different from and better off than the monarchies of the old world, and we began to look around, Hawaii fashion, for some one who wanted the Philippines for himself, or was waiting to buy them from Spain if we did not take them, so that we might have a nice war with him. As far as we know, not one public man, not one writer or speaker of note or authority, has said a word, or been asked his opinion, upon this terrible launch of ours on a sea of difficulties, centuries old.

Another curious thing about the matter is this: We started on our present war with Spain in order to liberate Cuba, and the principal reason why it fell to us in a peculiar manner to liberate Cuba was that it lay so close to us, that we had so much commerce with it, and that our ears were so constantly pained with its tales of sorrow, wrong, and ruth. Nobody said or dreamed that we had any responsibility whatever for the happiness or good government of any other country than Cuba. For the prosperity and happiness of all distant continents and islands we denied all accountability, no matter how badly off we acknowledged them to be—for Ireland, for Spain herself, for Italy, for New Guinea, for China, for Africa, for Turkey, for the Caroline Islands, or even for the Spanish-American republics on this continent, although they, too, are very near us and annoy us much by their goings on. Providence has mercifully spared us the burden of looking after the political condition of the entire earth, competent though he knows us to be for the task; but from one thing he will not let us off, and that is the reclamation of the Philippine Islands from barbarism and superstition. It is true that they are not very near us, six or seven thousand miles away, but what is that in these days of steam and electricity? Then he doubtless has remarked the great leisure we enjoy, owing to our having settled all our own difficulties so nicely that he feels it would be a shame not to make us go civilizing elsewhere. If he did not mean us to take entire charge of the Philippine Islands, why did he let us win the Dewey victory? The declaration of the local archbishop, of course, looks bad, but we will soon settle him. He accuses us of an intention to forbid the sacraments of baptism, matrimony, and burial, to cut off from the people the benefit of absolution, and to desecrate the churches and convert them into Protestant chapels. With Cardinal Gibbons on our side we really need not pay any attention to this vile priest; but if he gives us any more trouble, we would deal with him as we deal in camp with men who are not willing to "volunteer," and fancy they are in a free country. We would drum him out of some camp, tear his clothes, throw eggs at him and mud, and small articles.

Meanwhile, we call renewed attention to the necessity, if we are to have a colonial policy and a full line of islands to govern, of the training and preparation of a totally new civil service, not for subordinate or clerical places only, but for responsible positions, where discretion is to be exercised, and where the highest order of judgment will be constantly needed. For an imperial policy something far better is required than the kind of men we thrust into consulates and embassies and governorships and judgeships. We shall need a corps of administrators such as the English have in India, in Egypt, in Burmah, in Jamaica, and all the crown colonies. By this we mean a large body of men who have been trained from their youth up to the discharge of the most delicate executive functions among a subject ignorant, heathen population, with a religion to be respected which the average American politician despises and laughs at, with prejudices to be humored, with customs which cannot be safely meddled with, with strange laws to be administered, with nice points of inheritance or traditional land tenure to be elucidated. In our politics as practised to-day, the last thing that would be thought of would be the selection for such a place of a man who had resided in any of these countries, or knew their languages, or was familiar with their customs, or had practised their laws. The salaried places would, as a rule, be given to men who had "worked" hard in the last campaign, old journalists who had "written somebody up" and were out of a job, consumptive men who needed a warm climate, sons of rich fathers who had contributed handsomely to the campaign chest, and rich fathers themselves who wanted to do a little governing of poor heathen and "cut a swell" among foreign "bigwigs." If any one thinks we are putting this too strong, or, as the "Well Nows" say, "we are going too far," let him go carefully over the list of our diplomatic and consular appointments during the last thirty years and then tell us if we lie, or even exaggerate.

THE NICARAGUA CANAL.

The voyage of the battle-ship *Oregon* around Cape Horn has revived the demand in certain quarters for the Nicaragua Canal. Two months' time has been occupied in the passage, whereas the voyage could have been made in two, or at the most three weeks, if there had been a canal across the isthmus of

sufficient size to admit her. The occasion seems to call for a glance at the canal project as it stands to-day.

The parties who have been crying out for a canal across Nicaragua heretofore have been mainly of two varieties, viz., those who have a pecuniary interest in the Warner Miller canal—we give it that name because it serves to identify the investment made there by private capitalists some years ago—and those who want a canal for political purposes. The former had commercial ends in view when they put their money in the project. Perhaps they were visionary, perhaps they overestimated the amount of traffic that would pass through the canal when finished. It is certain that they underestimated the difficulties of the work and its cost in money. But they had only commercial considerations in view, and, therefore, were and are entitled to respectful consideration. The other class were the Jingo element in politics. They wanted a canal, not for commercial uses chiefly, but as a source of foreign embroilment. They wanted it as means of irritation and provocation and possible war with the only country in Europe that we can count as our friend to-day. All the nations of the old world except Great Britain are at heart our enemies to-day, and would like to see us humbled in our present conflict with Spain, and yet the Nicaragua Canal Jingoes, of whom the late James G. Blaine was the leader and the type, desired the canal mainly because it would prove a convenient instrument in their hands for "twisting the lion's tail."

Proof of this is found in the fact that the first step taken towards achieving the canal was an attempt, made by Mr. Blaine himself when Secretary of State, at the beginning of the Garfield administration, to abrogate the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. The public mind was prepared for this step by various outgivings, in the customary Jingo tone, that we did not need foreign assistance to guarantee the neutrality of the canal, that we were sufficient for that purpose ourselves, that this was an American canal, and that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty was rather a hindrance than an aid to its early completion and successful operation. Coupled with these outgivings was also the suggestion, bruited about in the newspapers, that a canal built by us, whose neutrality was to be guaranteed by us exclusively, would be fortified by us in such a way as to make our guarantee effective.

Here was a complete inversion of ideas, but quite characteristic of the Jingo mind. Neutrality means no advantage to one more than to the other, but the kind of neutrality proposed was a claim on our part to every possible advantage that the nature of the thing admitted of, including the right to decide all disputed points in our own favor. Absolute control by one party out of several is the very opposite of neutrality. It was for the purpose of excluding absolute control by one, and securing real neutrality, that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty was negotiated and ratified nearly fifty years ago. The first clause declares and agrees that neither the United States nor Great Britain shall ever obtain or maintain for itself any exclusive control over any ship canal which may be constructed between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, through Nicaragua, nor ever fortify or maintain any dominion over any part of Nicaragua, Costa Rica, or any part of Central America in the vicinity of such canal, or make use of any alliance they may have or influence they may possess with the countries through which the canal may pass, to gain any advantage for their own citizens in respect of commerce or navigation by said canal which shall not be offered on the same terms to the citizens of the other. It was provided also that, in case of war between the contracting parties, the ships of both should be exempted from capture or detention in the canal, or within a certain distance of the two ends. It was agreed, moreover, that both parties should invite every other country to enter into the same stipulations, to the end that the neutralization of the canal should have the guarantee of the whole commercial world.

This is the treaty which Mr. Blaine as Secretary of State sought to abrogate and annul. Great Britain, speaking through Lord Grenville, her Foreign Secretary, declined to give her consent to the abrogation. She held that it was a valid agreement, highly proper in itself, not limited as to time, and that she should expect the United States to live up to its terms. There the correspondence ceased, but the idea that Mr. Blaine put forward fastened itself upon the Nicaragua Canal project, and if it has ceased to exist, it has so ceased because events have brought England and the United States to a better understanding with each other than they have had at any other time since Messrs. Clayton and Bulwer put their names to the paper in question. We think that all Americans are now agreed that as a preliminary step to the construction of the Nicaragua Canal nothing could be more advantageous, nothing more desirable than this Clayton-Bulwer treaty, and that if there were no such treaty, the first thing to be done would be to negotiate one on the same terms. We believe that the greatest obstacle to the undertaking of the canal hitherto has been the fear on the part of capitalists and sober-minded citizens that the aims of its promoters in Congress were not so much commercial as political, and that the construction of it was intended to be a source of bickering and irritation and foreign embroilment. If this motive for the canal no longer exists, if the project can now be considered on its merits as a commercial problem solely, if the neutralization of the canal can remain undisputed as it stands in the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, then the only obstacles in the way of it are those physical ones which nature has erected on the isthmus.

THE CAMPAIGN IN PENNSYLVANIA.

Mr. Wanamaker is prosecuting his warfare against the Quay machine in Pennsylvania with growing courage and effectiveness, week by week. Thursday was one series of skirmishes against the foe in Huntingdon County, beginning upon the arrival of the commander by sleeping-car at Mount Union about sunrise, including sorties at a number of towns during the next twelve hours, and closing with a prolonged attack in the evening. On the whole, this was the most telling day's work since hostilities were declared.

Mr. Wanamaker had previously discussed various ways in which machine legislation is driven through the Legislature—the methods of intimidation, the use of money, the promise of office, the pressure from great corporations, and the wholesale distribution of passes. On Thursday he showed how these practices are supplemented by the boldest and most flagrant violations of the law by certain officers of the Legislature who keep the record of roll-calls. He declared that "many and very important laws are to-day upon the statute-books of Pennsylvania that are said to have never received the constitutional majority of votes in the Legislature, but which were passed by being deliberately counted in by the clerks of the House or Senate." The names of many members are recorded as having voted on scores of appropriation bills that have passed by just the constitutional majority, or at least with slender margins, although these members were absent at the time the bills were considered, and did not respond to the roll-call. Moreover, an ingenious rule has been adopted by which it is held that, if a roll-call is questioned and the names of members who were not present are found to be recorded as having voted, the roll can be corrected only by the personal statement of any member whose vote is thus questioned, no matter if it is found that this one disputed vote is necessary to make the constitutional majority. A roll may thus be padded, and though the Legislature has full knowledge of the fact, it is unable to correct it; a machine-controlled Governor can sign the bill, and it becomes a law, and can in no way be affected, though later a dozen members might testify that they had not voted. Mr. Wanamaker gave this illustration of the reckless methods pursued:

"During the last night of the last session

an effort was made to pass the notorious pool bill. After the roll had been called, Representative Moore of Chester demanded the reading of the roll. The Chief Clerk tried to evade it; the demand for a reading was renewed; and again it was refused. Finally, the Chief Clerk was forced to read the roll, when it was discovered that several members who were absent were recorded as having voted. The climax was reached when the name of Representative Sloan of Washington County, who, it was stated, was at that time in Denver, Col., was read as having voted for the bill. His name is still recorded as having voted on the pool bill in the affirmative, and on the same day, July 1, 1897, he is recorded as having voted for the Grant monument junketing trip expense bill, and also for the machine revenue bill."

Mr. Wanamaker presented further evidence of the sale of post-offices for cash by the Quay machine. One correspondent writes him that it is needless to go to a certain county previously mentioned for evidence of such sale, and says of his own county: "I understand all the offices here were promised when —— was a candidate for renomination. The corruption in this county is so bad, and our party here so rotten, that it is a disgrace to civilization. Truthfulness, honesty, and sobriety are lost for the sake of office. Congressman —— must be an angel to our Congressman."

Early last week announcement had been made by Quay that his man, Congressman W. A. Stone, would be nominated for Governor at the Republican State convention on June 2. Mr. Wanamaker thus described how the work of this State convention of hundreds of delegates was settled in advance by half-a-dozen men:

"The convention to nominate a Governor for the next four years for Pennsylvania met last Sunday. The session was held at Avalon, N. J., at the house of Mr. Becker, State Senator, author of the Becker bill, which intended to destroy the effectiveness of the provisions of the Bullitt bill [for the government of Philadelphia]. There were six persons present, convened by the boss: United States Senator Quay, State Senator Durham, State Chairman John P. Elkin, deposed from the Attorney-General's office; Collector of the Port Wesley Thomas, State Senator Becker, Allen B. Rorke, contractor for the new capitol and proposed candidate for Mayor. These six men, who toil not, neither do they spin, all office-holders except the contractor of the capitol, held the convention and put through the slate. It robbed W. A. Stone of the disguise he was travelling under as late as Saturday night last, by declaring him the candidate of the Republican party. On June 2, 362 men are to meet together in Pennsylvania, at great expense, to ratify this Sunday convention for Pennsylvania's Governor, made in New Jersey."

Mr. Wanamaker's speech was noteworthy for what seems to have been a distinct announcement that he will not stand by the Republican party if the Quay machine shall carry out its programme at the State convention. These were his words:

"The time has come that thousands would sooner go out of politics altogether than be dumb beasts, driven at the will of one man; but there are more parties than one, and room perhaps for new parties when the old outlive themselves. I believe it would be better for a great party to go down than to permit a few thousand office-holders, by virtue of patronage control, to become absolute rulers of six millions of people, who are practically beyond any power to intervene. When neither protest, entreaty, divisions, nor respectful demands avail, it is not likely that six million taxpayers will idly retreat before six hundred or six thousand of their servants, paid with taxpayers' money.

"Force will never cure discontent. In American politics, where each man is entitled to an equal right, concession conciliates and coercion crushes. These great popular representative assemblages mean something, and that meaning is that States are not founded and society banded together to sustain an office-holding class who arrogate to themselves continuous rulership."

Certainly neither Mr. Wanamaker nor those who support him in his present warfare against the Quay machine can preserve their self-respect if they shall fall in behind the boss after the convention has done his will. The writer of the letter from which we have quoted regarding the sale of post-offices says: "I have been a Republican since 1860, but our party now stinks in the nostrils of any decent man"; and he adds, "if the people are willing to uphold this corruption and dishonesty, God save the country!" And truly one might almost despair of the republic if Pennsylvania could elect Quay's man for Governor after the revolting exposures of Quay rule that have been made this year.

DISFRANCHISING A RACE.

Only the fact that the public mind is engrossed with the war has permitted a recent decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, involving the constitutionality of the suffrage provisions in the new Constitution of Mississippi, to pass almost unnoticed. On the whole this judgment is the most important and wide-reaching pronounced by the highest tribunal on the race question in the South since the days of reconstruction in that section, thirty years ago.

When Mississippi was readmitted into the Union, Congress imposed the condition that its Constitution should "never be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen or class of citizens of the United States of the right to vote who are entitled to vote by the Constitution herein recognized, except as a punishment for such crimes as are felonies at common law, whereof they shall have been duly convicted under laws equally applicable to all the inhabitants of said State." Apparently Congress had thus insured the permanent rule of Mississippi by the blacks, who largely outnumbered the whites. Yet to-day the blacks exercise no influence whatever over the government of the State, and the Supreme Court, a majority of its members Republicans, validates the policy by which the race has practically been disfranchised.

The first step in this revolution was the application of what was called "the Mississippi plan" in 1875. The white minority bulldozed as many negroes as they could frighten so as to keep them from the polls, and cheated the rest in the count. But this system was so offensive to respectable people that they insisted upon reaching the same result by legal methods. In 1890 a convention was called to frame a new constitution. The late Senator George was its most influential member, but the small Republican minority included ex-Gov. Alcorn, ex-Chief Justice Simrall, and a wise colored man. These three worked in perfect harmony with their Democratic associates, and the result was the adoption of a system by which the suffrage was denied to every man who could not read the Constitution, or understand it when read to him, and who had not paid a poll tax. Nominally applying to all men, these provisions were devised with a view to depriving most of the blacks of the right to vote. Comparatively few adult negroes could read, or understand the more abstruse clauses of the Constitution when read to them, and most negroes are so averse to paying an unnecessary tax that they would forfeit the chance to cast a ballot rather than pay something for the opportunity. The system has worked exactly as was expected. Although there were 150,469 blacks of the voting age in 1890, only a few thousand of them now have the right to vote or to sit on a jury, for the first is essential to the second.

The negroes have always claimed that this was a violation of the fifteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution, which declares that "the right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude." Finally a case was carried up to the Supreme Court which involved the whole question. In 1896 a negro named Williams was indicted for murder by a grand jury composed of white persons, and was tried and condemned by a white petty jury and sentenced to be hanged. The judgment of the trial court was affirmed upon appeal by the State Supreme Court, and the Supreme Court of the United States has now sustained it.

This latter court had held in previous cases that the prohibitions of the Federal Constitution are against the denial of equal rights to the races by the Constitution or laws of a State. In the pending case it was not claimed that either the Constitution of the State or its laws discriminate in terms against the negro race, either as to the elective franchise or the privilege or duty of sitting on juries, but only that these results were effected by the abuse of the powers vested in certain administrative officers, and this allegation was not established. The conclusion of the whole matter is, in the closing words of the decision, that "the Constitution of Mississippi and its statutes do not on their face discriminate between the two races, and it has not been shown that their actual administration was evil, only that evil was possible under them."

The significance of this decision was

emphasized by the fact that the Federal Supreme Court quoted and endorsed the decision of the State Supreme Court, which said that "within the field of permissible action under the limitations imposed by the Federal Constitution, the convention which framed the Mississippi Constitution swept the field of expedients to obstruct the exercise of suffrage by the negro race," and which further said of the negro race:

"By reason of its previous condition of servitude and dependence, this race had acquired or accentuated certain peculiarities of habit, of temperament, and of character which clearly distinguished it as a race from the whites—a patient, docile people, but careless, landless, migratory within narrow limits, without forethought, and its criminal members given to furtive offences rather than the robust crimes of the whites. Restrained by the Federal Constitution from discriminating against the negro race, the convention discriminates against its characteristics and the offences to which its criminal members are prone."

Under this interpretation of the Constitution, it is obvious that an inferior race can be practically disfranchised under the forms of law. It is an interesting coincidence that this important decision is rendered at a time when we are considering the idea of taking in a varied assortment of inferior races in different parts of the world, which must be governed somehow, and which, of course, could not be allowed to vote.

GLADSTONE.

No man has lived in our times of whom it is so hard to speak in a concise and summary fashion as Mr. Gladstone. For forty years he was so closely associated with the public affairs of his country that the record of his parliamentary life comes near to being an outline of English politics. His activity spread itself out over many fields. He was the author of several learned and thoughtful books, and of a multitude of articles upon all sorts of subjects. He showed himself as eagerly interested in matters of classical scholarship and Christian doctrine and ecclesiastical history as in questions of national finance and foreign policy. No account of him could be complete without reviewing his actions and estimating the results of his work in all these directions.

But the difficulty of describing and judging him goes deeper. His was a singularly complex nature, a character hard to unravel. His individuality was extremely strong; all that he said or did bore its impress. Yet it was an individuality so far from being self-consistent as sometimes to seem a bundle of opposite qualities capriciously united in a single person. He might with equal truth be called, and he has been in fact called, a conservative and a revolutionary. He was dangerously impulsive, and had frequently to suffer from his impulsiveness; yet he was also not merely wary and cautious, but so astute as to have been accused of craft and dissimulation. So great was his respect for authority and tradition that he clung to views regarding the unity of Homer and the historical claims of Christian sacerdotalism which the majority of competent specialists have now rejected. So bold was he in practical matters that he transformed the British Constitution, changed the course of English policy in the Orient, destroyed an established church in one part of the United Kingdom, and committed himself to the destruction of two established churches in two other parts. He came near to being a Roman Catholic in his religious opinions, yet was for twenty years the darling leader of the English Protestant Nonconformists and the Scotch Presbyterians. No one who knew him intimately doubted his conscientious sincerity and earnestness, yet four-fifths of the English upper classes were, in his later years, wont to regard him as a self-interested schemer who would sacrifice his country to his lust for power. Though he loved general principles, and often soared out of the sight of his audience when discussing them, he generally ended by deciding upon points of detail the question at issue. He was at different times of his life the defender and the assailant of the same institutions, yet he scarcely seemed inconsistent in doing opposite things, because his method and his arguments preserved the same type and color throughout.

Any one who had at the beginning of his career discerned in him the capacity for such strange diversities and contradictions, would probably have predicted that they must wreck it by making his purposes weak and his course erratic. Such a prediction would have proved true of any one with less firmness of will and less intensity of temper. It was the persistent heat and vehemence of his character, the sustained passion which he threw into the pursuit of the object on which he was for the moment bent, that fused these dissimilar qualities, and made them appear to contribute to and to increase the total force which he exerted.

Theories of character based on race differences are dangerous, because they are so easy to form and so hard to test. Still, no one denies that there are qualities and tendencies generally found in the minds of men of certain stocks, just as there are peculiarities in their faces or in their speech. Mr. Gladstone was born and brought up in Liverpool, and always retained a touch of Lancashire accent. But, as he was fond of saying, every drop of blood in his veins was Scotch. His father was a Lowland Scot from the neighborhood of Biggar, in the Upper Ward of Lanarkshire, where the old yeoman's dwelling of Gledstanes—the kite's rock—may still be seen. His mother was of Highland extraction, by name Robertson, from Dingwall, in Ross-shire. Thus he was not only a Scot, but a Scot with a strong infusion of the Celtic element, the element whence the Scotch derive most of what distinguishes them from the English. The Scot is more excitable, more easily brought to a glow of passion, more apt to be eagerly absorbed in one thing at a time. He is also more fond of abstract intellectual effort. It is not merely that the taste for metaphysical theology is commoner in Scotland than in England, but that the Scotch have a stronger relish for general principles. They like to set out by ascertaining and defining such principles, and then to pursue a series of logical deductions from them. They are, therefore, somewhat bolder reasoners than the English, less content to remain in the region of concrete facts, more eager to hasten on to the process of working out a body of speculative doctrines. The Englishman is apt to plume himself on being right in spite of logic; the Scotchman delights to think that it is through logic he has reached his conclusions, and that he can by logic defend them.

These are qualities which Mr. Gladstone drew from his Scottish blood. He had a keen enjoyment of the processes of dialectic. He loved to get hold of an abstract principle and to derive all sorts of conclusions from it. He was wont to begin the discussion of a question by laying down two or three sweeping propositions covering the subject as a whole, and would then proceed to draw from these others which he could apply to the particular matter in hand. His well-stored memory and boundless ingenuity made this finding of such general propositions so easy a task that a method in itself agreeable sometimes appeared to be carried to excess. He frequently arrived at conclusions which the judgment of the sober auditor did not approve, because, although they seemed to have been legitimately deduced from the general principles just enunciated, they were somehow at variance with the plain teaching of the facts. At such moments one felt that the man who was charming but perplexing Englishmen by his subtlety and ingenuity was not himself an Englishman in mental quality, but had the love for abstractions and refinements and dialectical analysis which characterizes the Scotch intellect. He had also a large measure of that warmth and vehemence called in the sixteenth century the *perfervidum ingenium Scotorum*, which belongs to the Scottish temperament, and particularly to the Celtic Scot. He kindled quickly, and, when kindled, he shot forth a strong and brilliant flame.

With these Scottish qualities, Mr. Gladstone was brought up at school and college among Englishmen, and received at Oxford, then lately awakened from a long torpor, a bias and tendency which never thereafter ceased to affect him. The so-called "Oxford Movement," which afterwards obtained the name of Tractarianism and carried Dr. Newman, together with other less famous leaders, on to Rome, had not yet in 1831, when Mr. Gladstone won his degree with double first-class honors, taken visible shape, or become, so to speak, conscious of its own purposes. But its doctrinal views, its peculiar vein of religious sentiment, its respect for antiquity and tradition, its proneness to casuistry, its taste for symbolism, were already potent influences working on the more susceptible of the younger minds. On Mr. Gladstone they told with full force. He became, and never ceased to be, not merely a High Churchman, but what may be called an Anglo-Catholic in his theology; deferential, not only to ecclesiastical tradition, but to the living voice of the visible Church, respecting the priesthood as the recipients (if duly ordained) of a special grace and peculiar powers, attaching great importance to the sacraments, feeling himself nearer to the Church of Rome, despite what he deemed her corruptions, than to any of the non-episcopal Protestant churches. Henceforth his interests in life were as much ecclesiastical as political. For a time he desired to be ordained a clergyman. Had this wish been carried out, it can scarcely be doubted that he would eventually have become the leading figure in the Church of England and have sensibly affected her recent history. The later stages in his career drew him away from the main current of political opinion within that church. He who had been the strongest ad-

vocate of established churches came to be the leading agent in the disestablishment of the Protestant Episcopal Church in Ireland, and a supporter of the policy of disestablishment in Scotland and in Wales. But the color which these Oxford years gave to his mind and thoughts was never obliterated.

When the brilliant young Oxonian entered the House of Commons at the age of twenty-three, Sir Robert Peel was leading the Tory party with an authority and ability rarely surpassed in parliamentary annals. Within two years the young man was admitted into the short-lived Tory Ministry of 1834, and soon proved himself an active and promising lieutenant of the experienced chief. Peel was an eminently wary and cautious man, alive to the necessity of watching the signs of the times, of studying and interpreting the changeful phases of public opinion. His habit was to keep his own counsel, and even when he perceived that the policy he had hitherto followed would need to be modified, to continue to use guarded language and refuse to commit himself to change till he perceived that the fitting moment had arrived. He was, moreover, a master of detail, slow to propound a plan until he had seen how its outlines were to be filled up by appropriate devices for carrying it out in practice. These qualities and habits of the Minister profoundly affected his gifted disciple. They became part of the texture of his own political character; and in his case, as in that of Peel, they sometimes brought censure upon him, as having withheld too long from the public views or purposes which he thought it unwise to disclose till effect could promptly be given to them. Such reserve, such a guarded attitude and conservative attachment to existing institutions, were not altogether natural to Mr. Gladstone's mind, and the contrast between them and some of his other qualities, like the contrast which ultimately appeared between his sacerdotal tendencies and his political liberalism, contributed to make his character perplexing and to expose his conduct to the charge of inconsistency.

Mr. Gladstone sat for sixty-three years in Parliament, and for more than twenty-six years was the leader of his party, and therefore the central figure of English politics. As has been said, he began as a high Tory, remained about fifteen years in that camp, was then led by the split between Peel and the protectionists to take up an intermediate position, and finally was forced to cast in his lot with the Liberals—for in England, as in America, third parties seldom endure. No parliamentary career in English annals is comparable to his for its length and variety; and of those who saw its close in the House of Commons, there was only one man, Mr. Villiers (who died in January, 1898), who could remember its beginning. He had been opposed in 1833 to men who might have been his grandfathers; he was opposed in 1893 to men who might have been his grandchildren. It took fourteen years, from 1846 to 1860, to carry him from the Conservative into the Liberal camp. It took five stormy years to bring him round to Irish home rule, though his mind was constantly occupied with the subject from 1880 to 1885; and those who watched him closely saw that the process had advanced some considerable way even in 1881. And as regards ecclesiastical establishments, having written a book in 1838, as a warm advocate of state churches, it was not till 1867 that he adopted the policy of disestablishment for Ireland, not till 1890 that he declared himself ready to apply it in Wales and Scotland also.

No great popular leader had in him less of the true ring of the demagogue. He saw, of course, that a statesman cannot oppose the popular will beyond a certain point, and may have to humor it in order that he may direct it. Now and then, in his later days, he so far yielded to his party advisers as to express his approval of proposals for which he cared little personally. But he was too self-absorbed, too eagerly interested in the ideas that suited his own cast of thought, to be able to watch and gauge the tendencies of the multitude. On several occasions he announced a policy which startled people and gave a new turn to the course of events. But in none of these instances, and certainly not in the three most remarkable—his declarations against the Irish church establishment in 1868, against the Turks and the traditional English policy of supporting them in 1876, and in favor of Irish home rule in 1886—did any popular demand suggest his pronouncement. It was the masses who took their view from him, not he who took his mandate from the masses. In all of these instances he was at the time in Opposition, and was accused of having made this new departure for the sake of recovering power. In the two former he prevailed, and was ultimately admitted by his more candid adversaries to have counselled wisely. In all of them he may, perhaps, be censured for not having sooner perceived, or at any rate for not having sooner announced, the need for reform. But it was very characteristic of him not to give the full strength of his mind to a question till he felt that it pressed for a solution. Those who discussed politics with him were scarcely more struck by the range of his vision and his power of correlating principles and details, than by his unwillingness to commit himself on matters whose decision he could postpone. Reticence and caution were sometimes carried too far, not merely because they exposed him to misconstruction, but because they withheld from his party the guidance it needed. This was true in all the three instances just mentioned; and in the last of them his reticence probably contributed to the separation from him of some of his former colleagues. Nor did he always rightly divine the popular mind. Absorbed in his own financial views, he omitted to note the change that had been in progress between 1862 and 1874, and thus his proposal in the latter year to extinguish the income tax fell completely flat. He often failed to perceive how much the credit of his party was suffering from the belief, quite groundless so far as he personally was concerned, that his Government was indifferent to what are called Imperial interests, the interests of England outside England. But he always thought for himself, and never stooped to flatter the prejudices or inflame the passions of any class in the community.

Though the power of reading the signs of the times and moving the mind of the nation as a whole may be now more essential to an English statesman than the skill which manages a legislature or holds together a cabinet, that skill counts for much, and must continue to do so while the House of Commons remains the supreme governing authority of the country. A man can hardly reach high place, and certainly cannot retain high place, without possessing this kind of art. Mr. Gladstone was at one time thought to want it. In 1864, when Lord Palmerston's end was evidently near, and Mr. Gladstone had shown himself the most brilliant and capable man among the Liberal ministers in the House of Commons, people speculated about the succession to the headship of the party; and the wiseacres of the day were never tired of repeating that Mr. Gladstone could not possibly lead the House of Commons. He wanted tact (they said), he was too excitable, too impulsive, too much absorbed in his own ideas, too unversed in the arts by which individuals are conciliated. But when, after twenty-five years of his unquestioned reign, the time for his own departure drew nigh, men asked how the Liberal party of the House of Commons would ever hold together after it had lost a leader of such consummate capacity. Seldom has a prediction been more utterly falsified than that of the Whig critics of 1864. They had grown so accustomed to Palmerston's way of handling the House as to forget that a man might succeed by quite different methods. And they forgot also that the man may have many defects and yet in spite of them be incomparably the fittest for a great place.

Of Mr. Gladstone's oratory, something must now be said. By it, he rose to fame and power, as, indeed, by it most English statesmen have risen, save those to whom wealth and rank and family connections have given a sort of presumptive claim to high office, like the Cavendishes and the Russells, the Cecils and the Bentincks. And for many years, during which Mr. Gladstone was distrusted as a statesman because, while he had ceased to be a Tory, he had not fully become a Liberal, his eloquence was the main, one might almost say the sole, source of his influence.

The permanent reputation of an orator depends upon two things, the witness of contemporaries to the impression produced upon them, and the written or printed—we may, perhaps, be soon able to say the phonographed—record of his speeches. Few are the famous speakers who would be famous if they were tried by this latter test alone, and Mr. Gladstone was not one of them. It is only by a rare combination of gifts that one who speaks with so much readiness, force, and brilliance as to charm his listeners, is also able to deliver such valuable thoughts in such choice words that posterity will read them as literature. Some few of the ancient orators did this; but we seldom know how far those of their speeches which have been preserved are the speeches which they actually delivered. Among moderns, some French preachers, Edmund Burke, Macaulay, and Daniel Webster are perhaps the only speakers whose discourses have passed into classics and find new generations of readers. Twenty years hence Mr. Gladstone's will not be read except, of course, by historians. They are too long, too diffuse, too minute in their handling of details, too elaborately qualified in their enunciation of general principles. They contain few epigrams, and few of those weighty thoughts put into telling phrases which the Greeks called γνῶμαι. The style, in short, is not sufficiently rich or finished to give a perpetual interest to matters whose practical importance has vanished. The same oblivion has overtaken all but a very few of the best things of Grattan, Pitt, Canning, Plunket, Brougham, Peel, Bright. It may, indeed, be

said—and the examples of Burke and Macaulay show that this is no paradox—that the speakers whom posterity most enjoys are rarely those who most affected the audiences that listened to them.

If, on the other hand, Mr. Gladstone be judged by the impression he made on his own time, his place will be high in the front rank. His speeches were neither so concisely telling as Mr. Bright's nor so finished in diction; but no other man among his contemporaries—neither Lord Derby nor Mr. Lowe nor Mr. Disraeli nor Bishop Wilberforce nor Bishop Magee—deserved comparison with him. And he rose superior to Mr. Bright himself in readiness, in variety of knowledge, in persuasive ingenuity. Mr. Bright required time for preparation, and was always more successful in alarming his adversaries and stimulating his friends than in either instructing or convincing anybody. Mr. Gladstone could do all these four things, and could do them at an hour's notice, so vast and well-ordered was the arsenal of his mind. His oratory had many conspicuous merits. There was a lively imagination, which enabled him to relieve even dull matter by pleasing figures, together with a large command of quotations and illustrations. There were remarkable powers of sarcasm—powers, however, which he rarely used, preferring the summer lightning of banter to the thunderbolt of invective. There was admirable lucidity and accuracy in exposition. There was great skill in the disposition and marshalling of his arguments, and finally—a gift now almost lost in England—there was a wonderful variety and grace of appropriate gesture. But above and beyond everything else which enthralled the listener, there were four qualities, two specially conspicuous in the substance of his eloquence—inventiveness and elevation; two not less remarkable in his manner—force in the delivery, expressive modulation in the voice.

The note of genuineness and spontaneity which marked the substance of his speeches was no less conspicuous in their delivery. Nothing could be more easy and graceful than his manner on ordinary occasions. His expository discourses, such as those with which he introduced a complicated bill or unfolded a financial statement, were models of their kind, not only for lucidity, but for the pleasant smoothness, equally free from monotony and from abruptness, with which the stream of speech flowed from his lips. The task was performed so well that people thought it an easy task till they saw how immeasurably inferior were the performances of two subsequent Chancellors of the Exchequer so able in their respective ways as Mr. Lowe and Mr. Goschen. But when an occasion arrived which quickened men's pulses, and particularly when some sudden storm burst on the House of Commons—a place where the waves rise as fast as in a mountain lake under a squall rushing down a glen—the vehemence of his feeling found expression in the fire of his eye and the resistless strength of his words. His utterance did not grow swifter, nor did the key of his voice rise, as passion raises and sharpens it in most men. But the measured force with which every sentence was launched, like a shell hurtling through the air, the concentrated intensity of his look, as he defied antagonists in front and swept his glance over the ranks of his supporters around and behind him, had a startling and thrilling power which no other Englishman could exert, and which no Englishman had exerted since the days of Pitt and Fox. The whole proud, bold, ardent nature of the man seemed to flash out, and one almost forgot what the lips said in admiration of the towering personality.

Though Mr. Gladstone's oratory was a main source of his power, both in Parliament and over the people, the effort of his enemies to represent him as a mere rhetorician will seem absurd to the historian who reviews his whole career. If the memory of his oratorical triumphs were to pass completely away, he would deserve to be remembered in respect of the mark he left upon the British statute-book and of the changes he wrought both in the Constitution of his country and in her European policy. To describe the acts he carried would almost be to write the history of recent British legislation; to pass a judgment upon their merits would be foreign to the scope of this article.

His action in the field of foreign policy, though it was felt only at intervals, was on several occasions momentous, and has left abiding results in European history. In 1851, he being then still a Tory, his powerful pamphlet against the Bourbon government of Naples, and the sympathy he subsequently avowed with the national movement in Italy, gave that movement a new standing in Europe by powerfully recommending it to English opinion. In 1870 the prompt action of his Government, in concluding a treaty for the neutrality of Belgium on the outbreak of the war between France and Germany, saved Belgium from being drawn into the strife. In 1871, by concluding the treaty of Washington, which provided for the settlement of the *Alabama* claims, he not only asserted a principle of the utmost value, but delivered England from what would have been, in case of her being at war with any European Power, a danger fatal to her ocean commerce. And in 1876, the vigorous attack he made on the Turks after the Bulgarian massacre roused an intense feeling in England, so turned the current of opinion that Disraeli's ministry was forced to leave the Sultan to his fate, and thus became the cause of the deliverance of Bulgaria, Eastern Rumelia, Bosnia, and Thessaly from Mussulman tyranny. Few English statesmen have equally earned the gratitude of the oppressed.

Such a record is the best proof of the capacity for initiative which belonged to him, and in which men of high oratorical gifts have often been wanting. In the Neapolitan case, in the *Alabama* case, in the Bulgarian case, no less than in the adoption of the policy of a separate legislature and executive for Ireland, he acted from his own convictions, with no suggestion of encouragement from his party; and in the last instances—those of Ireland and of Bulgaria—he took a course which seemed to the English political world so novel and even startling that no ordinary statesman would have ventured on it.

His courage was indeed one of the most striking parts of his character. It was not the rashness of an impetuous nature, for, impetuous as he was when stirred by some sudden excitement, he was wary and cautious whenever he took a deliberate survey of the conditions that surrounded him. It was the proud self-confidence of a strong character, which was willing to risk fame and fortune in pursuing a course it had once resolved upon—a character which had faith in its own conclusions, and in the success of a cause consecrated by principle—a character which obstacles did not affright or deter, but rather roused to a higher combative energy. Few English statesmen have done anything so bold as was Mr. Gladstone's declaration for Irish home rule in 1886. He took not only his political power, but the fame and credit of his whole past life, in his hand when he set out on this new journey at seventy-seven years of age; for it was quite possible that the great bulk of his party might refuse to follow him, and he be left exposed to derision as the chief of an insignificant group. It turned out that the great bulk of the party did follow him, though many of the most influential and socially important refused to do so. But neither Mr. Gladstone nor any one else could have foretold this when his intentions were first announced.

The essential dignity of his nature was never better seen than during the last few years of his life, after he had retired (in 1894) from Parliament and public life. He indulged in no vain regrets, nor was there any foundation for the rumors, so often circulated, that he thought of reëntering the arena of strife. He spoke with no bitterness of those who had opposed, and sometimes foiled, him in the past. He gave vent to no disparaging criticisms on those who from time to time filled the place that had been his in the government of the country or the leadership of his party. Although his opinion on current questions was frequently solicited, he scarcely ever allowed it to be known, and never himself addressed the nation, except on behalf of what he deemed a sacred cause, altogether above party—the discharge by Britain of her duty to the victims of the Turk. As soon as an operation for cataract had enabled him to read or write for seven hours a day, he devoted himself with his old ardor to the preparation of an edition of Bishop Butler's works, resumed his multifarious reading, and filled up the interstices of his working time with studies on Homer which he had been previously unable to complete. No trace of the moroseness of old age appeared in his manners or his conversation, nor did he, though profoundly grieved at some of the events which he witnessed, and owning himself disappointed at the slow advance made by some causes dear to him, appear less hopeful than in earlier days of the general progress of the world, or less confident in the beneficent power of freedom to promote the happiness of his country. The stately simplicity which had been the note of his private life seemed more beautiful than ever in this quiet evening of a long and sultry day. His intellectual powers were unimpaired; his thirst for knowledge undiminished. But a placid stillness had fallen upon him and his household; and in seeing the tide of his life begin slowly to ebb, one thought of the lines of his illustrious contemporary and friend—

> "such a tide as moving seems asleep,
> Too full for sound or foam,
> When that which drew from out the boundless deep
> Turns again home."

Of how few who have lived for more than sixty years in the full sight of their countrymen, and have been as party leaders exposed to angry and sometimes dishonest criticism, can it be said that there stands on

record against them no malignant word and no vindictive act! This was due in Mr. Gladstone, not perhaps entirely to natural sweetness of disposition, but rather to self-control, and to a certain largeness and dignity of soul which would not condescend to anything mean or petty. Nor should it be forgotten that the perfectly happy life which he led at home, cared for in everything by a devoted wife, kept far from him those domestic troubles which have soured the temper and embittered the judgments of not a few famous men. Reviewing his whole career, and summing up the impressions and recollections of those who knew him best, this dignity is the feature which dwells most in the mind, as the outline of some majestic Alp moves one from afar when all the lesser beauties of glen and wood, of craig and glacier, have faded in the distance. As elevation was the note of his oratory, so was magnanimity the note of his character.

The favorite Greek maxim that no man can be called happy till his life is ended must, in the case of statesmen, be extended to warn us from the attempt to fix any one's place in history till a generation has arisen to whom he is a mere name, not a familiar figure to be loved, opposed, or hated. Few reputations made in politics keep so far green and fresh that men continue to read and write and speculate about the person when those who can remember him living have departed. Out of all the men who have played a leading part in English public life in the present century there are but seven or eight—Pitt, Fox, Canning, Wellington, Peel, O'Connell, Disraeli, perhaps Melbourne and Brougham—who still excite our curiosity. The great poet or the great artist lives longer—indeed, he lives as long as his books or his pictures; the statesman, like the musician or the actor, begins to be forgotten so soon as his voice is still, unless he has so dominated the men of his own time, and made himself a part of his country's history, that his personal character becomes a leading factor in the course which events took. Tried by this test, Mr. Gladstone's fame seems destined to last. His eloquence will soon become merely a tradition, for his printed speeches do not preserve its charm. His main acts of policy, foreign and domestic, will have to be judged by their still unborn consequences. If his books continue to be read, it will be rather because they are his than in respect of any permanent contribution they have made to knowledge. But whoever follows the annals of England during the memorable years from 1843 to 1894 will meet his name on almost every page, will feel how great must have been the force of an intellect that could so interpenetrate the events of its time, and will seek to know something of the wonderful figure that rose always conspicuous above the struggling throng.

There is a passage in the 'Odyssey' where the seer Theoclymenus, in describing a vision of death, says: "The sun has perished out of heaven." To Englishmen, Mr. Gladstone has been like a sun which, sinking slowly, has grown larger as he sank, and filled the sky with radiance even while he trembled on the verge of the horizon. There were able men, and famous men, but there was no one comparable to him in power and fame and honor. Now he is gone. The piercing eye is dim, and the mellow voice is silent, and the light has died out of the sky.

JAMES BRYCE.

THE RIOTS IN ITALY.

FLORENCE, May 7, 1898.

That riot and revolt, bordering on revolution, should be rife in peaceful Tuscany, is scarcely credible to those who had not been warned, by the strikes among the straw-plaiters last year and strikes among masons, that misery and hunger had raised their gaunt heads in the midst of the gentlest, mildest, most long-suffering people that ever tempted heedless, indifferent authorities to see how far the bow could bend without breaking. For weeks, rioting and disorder have been rife in Naples and the chief towns on the lower Adriatic coast; Bari, Barletta, Foggia, Minervino; again in and around Ferrara; while the rumors from Sicily become more and more ominous. But the prevalent discontent arising from failure of crops, want of work, and now the increase in the price of bread, had prepared one to hear of riots and rumors of riots. Not so in Tuscany; yet here we are, with Prato, Pigline-dell'-Arno, Sesto in full revolt. In Prato the rioters have carried their tactics to incendiary fires and barricades; at Sesto, where four are killed and twenty-two wounded, order is far from being restored; nor can the authorities this time lay the blame on the Socialists, the Communists, the Republicans, as the Government inspectors, civil and military, report that the "subversive parties" have had no voice, "no lot in the uprising."

The pity of it is that all these catastrophes might have been avoided if the powers that be had but listened to competent writers and speakers, who, beginning with last August, raised their voices in warning and entreaty. The Italian wheat crop was below the medium, even so throughout Europe. Hence, contrary to precedent, the price of bread and paste (maccaroni) rose as soon as harvest was over. In the north of Italy, alas, this "rise" was scarcely noticed by the peasantry or by the unskilled workmen, who live exclusively on polenta—yellow maize ground and boiled with more or less salt; nor did it affect the Tuscan peasants, who, by the laws (or rather customs) of the métayer system, are entitled to as much wheat as they need for bread and paste from harvest to harvest time. No matter what the price, they but repay in kind, and if the wheat crop fail a second time, they make things even by "leaving down" so much oil, so much wine, so many lambs or cheeses or whatever they may have in abundance when they make up their yearly accounts with the owner or the steward. But in central, southern Italy and Sicily, man literally "lives by bread alone"—more strictly speaking, by wheat, which they make into bread and a hundred forms of paste (just flour mixed with water, rolled out, dried, and boiled). Now, it was clear to all that had eyes to see that unless stringent measures were taken to provide the country with wheat, troubles would come; this before there were any signs of war between Spain and the United States.

The price of bread in Italy depends upon many causes, especially in the closed communes, *i. e.*, the large cities and towns enclosed by zones where the octroi or city tax on all food is paid down. First, of course, there is the price of grain in the world's market; second, the custom-house tax; third, the price of gold as compared with paper; fourth, the cost of grinding, *i. e.*, the difference in price between wheat and flour; fifth, the city tax on flour, bread, paste; sixth, the price put by the bakers on bread, paste, etc. Take the prices given last August by the *Sole* of Milan and the *Nuova Antologia*, and it appears that a quintal of flour made into bread (allowing 125 kilos for every 100 of flour) costs per kilo 40½ centesimi, and I speak of large loaves, such as the people eat, the small "bread" yielding only 118 kilos per 100 flour. Well, this 4½ cents was already too high for the light purses of the poor, and the sage advisers said to the Government, "Now that we are in summer, when grapes, fruits, and vegetables are abundant, do not abolish but *suspend* the custom-house duty on wheat and flour. This will insure large provisions for the winter, and we must find some way to fill the deficit. If you drift into riot and revolt, the cost of calling out fresh categories that you have decided to leave at home, the cost of transport for soldiers sent hither and thither to suppress the revolts, will far exceed the income derived from your present corn laws," which then imposed a duty of 7½ lire on wheat and from 9 to 12½ on flour. But the Government and the "majority" feared to offend the "agrari" (landed proprietors and large farmers); moreover the duty, paid in gold, was most convenient for paying abroad the coupons of the 5 per cent. rente. The entire duty was maintained till last January, when 2½ lire were struck off the custom-house duty without effecting the slightest reduction in the price of bread.

Besides the tax on foreign wheat paid at the frontier, up till the Sicilian revolution of 1891-2, two other taxes increased the price of bread in closed communes—the Government octroi and the municipal octroi paid at the city gates. The Sicilian revolts led to the abolition of the Government's tax, but the municipal authorities were left free to impose their own; and as in Sicily and the southern provinces the Signori boss the provincial and town councils, they find it convenient to lay the burden of taxation on the staple food of the very poorest—bread, paste, etc.—rather than tax land, buildings, servants, carriages, which belong to themselves. This is the chief grievance of the working classes in southern Italy. Yielding to reason and partly to sentiment, the municipal authorities of Florence abolished last year this octroi or city tax on wheat, flour, bread, paste, and rice; hence they cannot be greatly blamed if they counted on exemption from riots; and indeed until yesterday there was no sign of disturbance. But it should be noted that, since the commencement of your Spanish-American war, the price of flour has gone up by leaps and bounds. The price of bread increased in proportion, hence discontent; and as riots may be classed among endemic diseases, the news from the surrounding cities fomented the unrest. It is the general opinion, however, that the tumult of a few Florentine *gamins*, and the entry into the city of some hundreds of masons demanding higher wages, might have been met by the Mayor and Aldermen without any intervention of troops.

That the Florentine people are in a bad temper must be admitted. The enormous sums spent on the late festivals held in honor of Amerigo Vespucci and Toscanelli, with the inauguration of marble monuments to Ricasoli and Peruzzi, were enjoyed by foreigners and wealthy Florentines, but the

people could not participate in them. Hall tickets cost 20 lire; even the tickets for the football game, which cost generally 1 lire, 50 and 30 centimes, were raised to 5 lire each; the entire portion of the Cascine whence the races could be seen was enclosed; while the rain, which fell in torrents, prevented the fireworks, the illumination of the public buildings and Lung' Arno, the popular open-air concerts. All these were postponed till the 8th of May, and now, owing to the "deplorable events in neighboring cities," will not be held at all. But the riot (for here it was nothing more) has had the deplorable result of frightening away the vast concourse of foreigners who this year have come in greater numbers and lingered longer than usual. Their departure in shoals is a great loss to hotel and lodging-house keepers, trains, cabs, shop-keepers and flower-sellers. The Queen Regent and Queen of Holland were the first to depart, meaning to go to Milan, but were stopped at Bologna by news from that city far more serious than has been allowed to reach us either by telegram, newspaper, or private letter: the telegrams are confiscated, the newspapers sequestrated. The editor, sub-editor, and all the staff of the *Italia del Popolo* have been arrested and imprisoned, together with the Republican Deputy De Andreis; the offices closed. Such extreme measures as these were never resorted to by Cavour during the revolt of Genoa in 1857, scarcely in such sweeping fashion by Crispi in Palermo during the Fasci agitation. "But," said a veteran of '48, who left Milan last night at 10 and arrived here this morning, "Milan has a more revolutionary aspect than I have seen it wear since those eventful days."

"What are the immediate causes?" I inquired. "Firstly, the persistent refusal of the municipality to abolish the octroi or city tax on flour, bread, paste, rice. When the news came that the Government had suspended the customs tax and the municipality the octroi, it was too late; nay, people said one to another, 'By fair means we get nothing; only violence avails.' So when the summons came for the calling out of the first category of 1873, *i. e.*, of young men of twenty-five, who, having performed their term of service from twenty-one to twenty-three years of age, thinking themselves secure, had married and set up in life for themselves, and who feel not enthusiasm but loathing at the idea of being called on to fire on an unarmed starving populace, exasperation reached its height. News came this morning that Muzio Mussi, only son of the Milan Deputy and Vice-Speaker of the House, had been shot to death by the soldiers at Pavia, where he, a student, had passed the day in trying to appease the crowd, actually warning the cavalry not to charge, as zinc wire had been laid down to trip up the horses; and this did not contribute to lessen the general indignation."

"But, in point of fact, what is the situation?" "Well, this morning the workmen of several large factories decided to quit their work and call out their comrades. 'Long live our brothers of the army!' they cried when they met infantry and cavalry, and for a time the soldiers were patient; but later the cavalry charged and numbers were wounded. At Corso Venezia, barricades were improvised, 'in old Cernuschi fashion'; the tram-cars, the wagons laden with rations and forage for the troops, were all pressed into the service, the pavements ripped up; and the children and women, forcing their way into the houses, battered the troops with paving-stones and tiles. The soldiers and police fired; dead and wounded strewed the ground. The Bersaglieri and Alpineers came to the rescue, but the same scenes were repeated at the different gates. At Porta Ticinese the struggle was fiercest; the houses in the vicinity were left literally tileless, nor could the troops dislodge the assailants from the roofs. About four P. M. Gen. del Maino with his staff and four squadrons of cavalry arrived; result unknown." Barricades were erected at Porta Tenaglia; several gunsmiths' shops were sacked; but the number of killed and wounded on both sides could not even be guessed at when my friend left Milan. I am closing my letter, commenced yesterday at four P. M., on Sunday, May 8, but no authentic news is forthcoming. Even the official Stefani telegrams are stopped; the official *Fieramosca* has received neither telegrams nor newspapers from Milan.

The one gleam of light is the news of a slight fall in the price of grain at New York, and the arrival of heavy freights at Genoa, Naples, Leghorn, eagerly caught up now that the duty is rescinded. Too late, also, the Government is consenting to give work to the starving multitudes to whom it has been vainly promised throughout the winter. The money for it existed in the Treasury, but was detained there till ministers, municipalities, and contractors could agree as to who should get the lion's share.

J. W. M.

Correspondence.

MRS. STANTON'S VIEWS ON MARRIAGE AND DIVORCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While thanking you for the space you have given in your columns to a review of my book 'Eighty Years and More,' and for your comments, so fair in the main, I ask still more space to correct a statement misleading to your readers and unjust to me.

You accuse me of saying, "The State has nothing to do with either marriage or divorce." On careful reading you will not find such a statement in any of my writings. My speech on "Marriage and Divorce" delivered before our Legislature in 1861, with a careful digest of the laws, under my father's supervision, was published by the thousands and scattered all over the State. My strictures on Wendell Phillips's position on this question, published in the New York *Tribune* in 1861; my answer to Judge Noah Davis, on the same point, in the *North American Review*, in 1882; an article in the *Arena* in 1890; many others on the same subject published in newspapers; my speeches in debates in conventions; the chapter on Marriage and Divorce in my book recently published, all these alike show that I not only have recognized the wisdom of laws governing the marriage relation, but desired that, so far as they relate to the entering into the contract, they should be more restrictive.

To my mind, parties to the marriage contract should be over eighteen years of age, and it should be entered into only with the consent of their parents. Any person of common sense must see the necessity of laws regulating the duties of parents to their children and to each other, the right of property, inheritance, support, alimony, etc., all important for the welfare of the State as well as the family. The only point in this relation where I have claimed individual sovereignty is the right of choice, and of "separation" when the parties are wholly incompatible and antagonistic. If they desire "divorce" in order to marry again, then the State reasserts itself.

I have always asked for more liberal laws than unhappy husbands and wives enjoy in the State of New York. This is the extent of my heresy on the question of marriage and divorce. Having been true to one relation over fifty years, by example as well as precept, I have been a law-abiding citizen and rendered due honor to the State.

Elizabeth Cady Stanton.

New York, May 17, 1898.

"CAMPUS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of April 14 a writer comments on the absence from all dictionaries previous to the Century Dictionary of the word campus, gives an example of the term under date of 1868, and says "that it is natural to ask how long it has been in vogue, and when and where the usage originated" (p. 285).

May I be allowed to state that these questions were answered, probably as fully as it is possible to answer them, in a paper written in March, 1897, and shortly to be printed in the third volume of the 'Publications of the Colonial Society of Massachusetts'? Though writing from memory, I yet think the following statements are correct.

Campus originated at Princeton, its earliest appearance being in a letter by an undergraduate in 1774; it first occurred in print in a book of travels written by an Englishman named Finch in 1833; the first American book to contain it was Mr. B. H. Hall's 'College Words and Customs' (1851); from Princeton it spread South, then West, and about fifty years ago invaded New England, ousting the earlier *yard* or *green;* and now it is found in every State and Territory in the Union except one. Of our elder colleges, almost the only one still to refuse to accept the intruder is Harvard, and with reason, for surely it would be a pity to displace, after an existence since at least as early as 1639, the idiomatic though homely *yard*. But even at Harvard the life of the older term is threatened; for the graduates from other institutions who now flock there bring the newer term with them.

As to how the term originated, it is not easy to say; but the following explanation, though unsupported by direct evidence, is offered for what it is worth. After two migrations, the College of New Jersey was removed, in 1756 or 1757, to Princeton. At that time its grounds consisted of a field about three acres in extent, perfectly flat and treeless, in the centre of which stood a single building, Nassau Hall (now called North College). When, in 1768, Dr. Witherspoon came to Princeton, fresh from Scotland, is it not possible that, accustomed to collegiate buildings erected round a quadrangle, he was struck by the altogether different aspect of the American college, and applied to the grounds a classical term which fitly described their character? At all events, before the arrival of Witherspoon,

yard was the word in use at Princeton, and it was during his presidency that, so far as I have been able to ascertain, the new term arose.

It may be added that *campus* is now employed in two senses: first (and this is its usual signification), it means the grounds in which the college buildings stand; and secondly, at a few institutions, it is used to designate an athletic field only.

ALBERT MATTHEWS.

CROMER, ENG., May 12, 1898.

"OF PRAYERS"; AND THE PERSONAL EQUATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your recent editorials on the subject of the possibility of the conflict of prayers during the course of the Spanish-Cuban war must serve as an extenuation for this communication.

It is an old and a true saying that every crow thinks her own blackbird the whitest, or words to that effect, and hence the personal aspect must be forgiven me. Such forgiveness is permissible when writing of one's only four-year-old. But my little boy is the happy possessor of three uncles—two by blood and one by marriage—who, for many more years than he is old, have worn Uncle Sam's livery as cavalry and artillery officers. The first night after we received news that their commands had been moved, or were to be moved at once, the little one had finished his prayers after the usual routine, and his mother had made no mention of the war or its possibilities. Consequently, John thought he must try one on his own responsibility to supply the omission, and he added: "And God bless Uncle Tyree and Uncle William and Uncle Horn, and don't let the bullets hit the soldiers, but kill all the 'Spanyons.' "

Having thus delivered himself, the bloodthirsty little Jingo was at once reconciled to the deep sleep of childhood.

FLOURNOY RIVERS.

PULASKI, TENN.

Notes.

'Animal Intelligence,' from the point of view of the comparative psychologist, by Wesley Mills, is announced for early publication by the Macmillan Co.

T. Fisher Unwin, London, will publish next fall a study of the lithographic art, historical and æsthetical, by Joseph Pennell.

'The Art of Taxidermy,' by John Rowley; 'Familiar Life in Field and Forest,' by F. Schuyler Mathews; 'News from the Birds,' by L. S. Keyser; 'On the Farm,' by F. W. Parker and Nellie L. Helm; and Félix Gras's 'The Terror,' a romance of the French Revolution, translated by Mrs. Janvier, are current announcements by D. Appleton & Co.

A study of the "Paradiso," entitled 'Dante's Ten Heavens,' by Edmund G. Gardner, is in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

The second volume to appear in the Biographical Thackeray (Harpers) is 'Pendennis,' and Mrs. Ritchie's introduction of thirty pages is taken up mainly with letters and reminiscences relating to her father's Charterhouse and Cambridge days. The suggestion is, of course, that the raw material of personal experience in those years was afterwards worked up in the novel. Several new sketches appear in the introduction, two of which, "Telemachus Recounting his Adventures to Calypso" and "The Hogmagundy" (a suggestion to FitzGerald for a new musical instrument—a suggestion unconsciously plagiarized, by the way, in a recent *Fliegende Blätter*), are in Thackeray's best manner.

Of particular interest at the present moment is a collection of short tales by Mrs. Schuyler Crowninshield, entitled 'Where the Trade Wind Blows,' and published by the Macmillan Co., being descriptive of life on the banana plantations of a Spanish West Indian isle. Dramas of varying degrees of intensity we are given, such as there should be no lack of in a spot where the landed proprietor, native-born or exotic, takes an easy view of the seventh commandment, and the peon of all shades and as many dialects combines an ignorance of all the commandments with the possession of sundry vices and passions commonly credited in abundance to the inhabitants of the tropics. An agreeable manner of treatment, a knowledge of the people, the lands, and the fruits thereof, and a good sense of humor, make these tales interesting reading, if hardly an exposition of the pleasantest phases of human nature, or an encouragement to those ardent patriots who are so eager to add a mongrel population to our own.

The Bosworth-Toller Anglo-Saxon Dictionary (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde) needs no introduction to our readers. Part i. was published sixteen years ago, and few special lexicons are better known or have been more criticised. The end of the alphabet has at last been reached. Part iv., section ii. (pp. 961-1302), conducts the searcher from *swith-snel* to *ytmest;* and those patient and economical students who have kept their copies unbound, in spite of bother and dogs-ears, will receive this final instalment with something like rapture. But what will their feelings be when they read in the Preface that certain matters requiring revision "will be attempted in a supplement, which will be prepared as soon as possible"? That the earlier parts of the work need revision is undoubted—indeed, it is not too much to say that parts i., ii. ought to be rewritten—but it is hard to see how anything satisfactory can be done in a Supplement. Has any department of learning been unluckier than Anglo-Saxon lexicography?

The new Syriac text of the Gospels recently published in England is now followed by 'The Coptic Version of the New Testament in the Northern Dialect, otherwise called Memphitic and Bohairic' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde). The two volumes now issued, under the editorial supervision of the Rev. G. Horner, contain the four Gospels. In deference to the opinion of Profs. Stern and Guidi and the late Prof. P. de Lagarde, the text of a single MS. (Huntington 17, in the Bodleian Library) has been printed, without attempt at emendation—obviously the right course. There is an introduction, with critical apparatus, and a literal English translation. Schwartze's text has been the standard throughout. The editorial work appears to be carefully done, and the thanks of New Testament students are due to Mr. Horner, on whom the preparation of these volumes has entailed a great expenditure of time and labor (among other things the collation of over fifty Coptic MSS.). It is also a sort of international work; the editor has had the support and assistance of the English scholars, Neubauer, Ellis, Margoliouth, Headlam, Robinson, and Rieu; the Italians Guidi and Carini; the Germans Stern, Pietschmann, Erman, Steindorff, and Schmidt; the French Zotenberg and Taram; the Americans, Hyvernat and Gregory (the latter a professor in the University of Leipzig), and the Patriarch Cyril of Alexandria, and other Egyptians. A detailed comparison of the text with that of the Greek MSS. and other authorities cited by Tischendorf is promised by Mr. Horner.

The second volume of Alfred Zimmermann's "Die Europäischen Kolonien" (Berlin: Mittler) is entitled 'Die Kolonialpolitik Grossbritanniens.' It is a volume of nearly 500 pages, and traces the history of English colonization from the earliest times to the period of the American Revolution and the achievement of American independence. The work is written with admirable perspicuity and impartiality, and is rendered additionally attractive and instructive by three chromolithographic maps showing the growth of English colonies in North America till 1783, and of British possessions in India and other parts of the world at the end of the eighteenth century.

The latest number of "Litterarische Forschungen," edited by Prof. Schick of Munich and Prof. Von Waldberg of Heidelberg, and published by Feller in Weimar, is Georg Sarrazin's 'William Shakespeare's Lehrjahre.' The author points out what he deems two errors in the criticism of Shakspere: first, the rejection of his earlier works because they are not thought good enough for him, and, secondly, the rejection of him as a poet because, from what we know of his character and career, he is not thought good enough for his works. This latter view gave rise to the Baconian theory. The present monograph attempts to trace the development of Shakspere's genius as revealed in his youthful productions, before he attained the mastery generally associated with his name.

The change in the character of the work of the Boston Public Library is well illustrated by the May Bulletin of additions, in which, out of some four hundred titles, only thirteen are of works of English fiction. The Bulletin also contains the first two parts of a useful list of books on social reform, including those upon early and present industrial and social conditions; as well as a list of the 184 serials of which an analytical card index is being published by the American Library Association. This is in a measure supplementary to the scheme of the Royal Society of London for cataloguing scientific literature; the publications of the more important learned societies being chosen, together with those relating to sociology, political science, history, geography, philosophy, and other allied subjects.

In the combined Nos. 1-6 of Volume 30 of the Bulletin of the Essex Institute one may read the interesting proceedings at the festive celebration of the first half century of this unique foundation in Salem, Mass. Its success on the side of collections in antiquities, art, natural history, and publications has taxed all its resources for house room, and it is still an object for a wise public-spirited benevolence. At this festival an offer was received, from the son of the sculptor W. W. Story, of his late father's casts of his principal works; and announce-

ment was made by Mr. George R. Curwen that he intended to bequeath to the Institute all his domestic antique furniture, portraits, china, and glass—the portraits including the likenesses of ten generations of the donor's family, all Salem people. The Salem Lyceum has this year dissolved itself into the Institute, which will carry on its lecture courses.

In January of this year the *Archivio Storico dell' Arte* put on a new and highly ornamental cover, with a new title, *L'Arte*. The change appears to have been made in order that the review may treat on occasion of modern as well as of ancient art.

In the same month was published the first number of the *Rivista d'Italia*, a monthly magazine, whose list of contributors includes such names as Carducci, Arturo Graf, Isidor Del Longo, Domenico Grioli, Fogazzaro, Paolo Lioy, and many others of the most prominent names in Italian literature. There are a few good illustrations, wherever such can add to the value of the text. The price (20 lire for Italy and 25 for the countries included in the postal union) is moderate enough to promise success for the praiseworthy enterprise.

The Geological Survey of New South Wales has begun the publication of a new serial entitled *Mineral Resources*. The two numbers which have appeared treat of chromic iron ore, its modes of occurrence, mining, dressing, uses, and value, and of the occurrence of Tungsten ores. Both papers are by J. E. Carne, F.G.S.

"Petroleum in Burma" is the subject of an elaborate paper by Dr. F. Noetling in the latest volume of the *Memoirs* of the Geological Survey of India. The author describes the geological features of the localities where oil is found, and discusses the economic importance of the different oil-fields. There has been a great increase in the number of productive wells since 1888, and the amount of oil produced has increased several hundred per cent. Maps and illustrations accompany this memoir.

The latest issue of that excellent bimonthly, the *Zeitschrift* of the German Palestine Society, although a double number (vol. xx., parts 2 and 3), is devoted entirely to a splendid specimen of original research, namely, the investigation of the Southern Bashan districts, east of the Jordan, by Dr. G. Schumacher of Haifa, who has for months been traversing the country by appointment of the Society. The article discusses with accuracy and full details what has hitherto been practically a *terra incognita* in Biblical and Oriental geography. It is accompanied by seventy-seven illustrations, all new and given with exact measurements. The fine map, which covers Northern Adshlun and Southern Hauran, is on a scale of 1:152,000, and is based almost entirely on new researches of Schumacher's made during the years 1895-96. Its usefulness is materially enhanced by a list of names, covering all the localities mentioned; these are given in both Arabic and in transcription, together with explanatory notes.

The Ministry for Education and Public Worship of the Austro-Hungarian Empire has published a report of the attendance at the eight universities to be found in the kingdoms and countries represented in the Reichsrath. The data are for the winter semester of 1897-98. The grand total is 16,995, an increase of 274 over the preceding half year. The number of students is thus a little more than one-half the university attendance in Germany. Of this total, 1,200 are students of theology, 8,335 are in the law department, 4,316 in the medical, and 2,544 in the philosophical. These are distributed among the universities themselves in the following order: Vienna, 6,534; Innsbruck, 1,008; Prague (German), 1,321; Prague (Bohemian), 2,839; Lemburg, 1,726; Cracow, 1,443; Czernowitz, 385. The theological faculties report an increase of 111 students, the law department of 257, and the philosophical of 343, while the medical faculties show a decrease of 412.

The University of Erlangen has been put on the defensive against insinuations on account of the disproportionately large number of its doctor promotions. It seems that in 1896-97 Erlangen turned out more doctors than any other German university, and one-half of all the *doctores juris* of that year in the whole Empire (177 out of 355). This startling fact the University attributes to the "freedom from formalities and ceremoniousness" of its regulations—an explanation which does not fully satisfy some of the critics, who, however, disclaim imputing to the Bavarian university the principle formerly recognized by another small university: "Accipimus pecuniam et mittimus asinum in patriam."

The conception of the stage as an educational agency, which has been quite general in Germany since the time of Schiller, has in recent years produced practical results in the shape of representations for the special benefit of pupils of the common schools. At Hamburg eight thousand children were three times (in January, February, and March) taken to the Stadt-Theater, where such plays as "William Tell," "The Maid of Orleans," and "Minna von Barnhelm" were given with an excellent assignment of parts. The seating capacity of the house being two thousand, each play had to be given four times. The price of admission had been put at six cents, and when it was found that some children could not afford even this small amount, they were provided with tickets at the expense of beneficent citizens. It is interesting to read in the Hamburg *Jugend-Warte* the favorable expressions of teachers concerning the influence of these entertainments upon their pupils; they may be summed up in the words of one of them: "The school representations are an educational instrument of the first rank." At Leipzig and Breslau, and probably in other cities, similar advantages are offered to the pupils of the upper classes of the *Volksschulen*, though not on as generous a scale as at Hamburg.

The Danish Medical Association, with the assistance of the Government, has, during the past few months, distributed throughout Denmark placards and pamphlets giving careful instructions for the prevention of tuberculosis. The placards are to be hung up in conspicuous places in railroad carriages and stations, schools and factories, and are distributed without charge to those asking for them. This measure, combined with the efforts that are now being made for the establishment of hospitals for the special treatment of tuberculosis, ought to have an appreciable effect upon the present rapid spread of the disease in Denmark.

The abolitionists used to be credited with long memories, and longevity was also their portion. From time to time the press writes the obituary of the "last survivor" of the Garrisonian band, and there are always more to come. Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, sends us from his well-known photographic studio an imperial panel portrait of the late Robert Purvis of the same city, who was actually the last survivor of the little company that founded in Philadelphia the American Anti-Slavery Society in December, 1833. He was the youngest but one of all the members of the convention, being the senior by a few months of the late James Miller McKim. Mr. Purvis, though allied by blood and marriage with the African race, was a man of singularly handsome and wholly Anglo-Saxon appearance, of polished manners, and yet logically a target for the prejudice which would have subjected him to the usual indignities visited upon his "color." Mr. Gutekunst's portrait is excellent.

The same artist sends us a corresponding portrait of President Patton of Princeton; and this too is to be praised.

—*Hand, hang,* and *have* are the show-pieces in Dr. Murray's first instalment of H for the Oxford Dictionary (New York: Henry Frowde), which is unusually full of matter for curious study. Take the attributives, nouns, and verbs derived from proper names. *Hamiltonian* has no fewer than four allusions: to James Hamilton (1769-1831) and his system of teaching languages; to Sir William Hamilton (1788-1856), the Scotch philosopher; to Sir William Rowan Hamilton (1805-'65), the Irish mathematician; and finally to Alexander Hamilton. The *hansom* cab perpetuates the name of the architect and designer who in 1834 patented the prototype of this vehicle. The English botanist Stephen Hales is the namesake of the genus *Halesia*, to which belongs our Southern snowdrop or silver-bell tree; and, observing that this name is pronounced in four syllables, with the stress on the antepenult, we wonder if South African Rhodesia is or is to be a rhyme for it. To *Hansardize* means "to confront (a member of Parliament) with his former utterances as recorded in 'Hansard' "—to Chamberlainize, as it were; to employ the deadly parallel. To *Harvey* or *Harveyize* steel plates is to harden them "by a process invented by H[ayward] A. Harvey of New Jersey (patented in England 1888, No. 401)," as all who know the end-of-the-century armored vessel are aware. Lincoln's "half slave and half free" is quoted under *half;* and under *hang together* Franklin's "Yes, or we shall assuredly all hang separately." Franklin, by the way, would have missed the printer's "hanging indention," and Keats's Letters (Jan. 5, 1818) would have supplied an extra shade of meaning for *hang out:* "Stopping at a tavern they call hanging out. Where do you sup? is Where do you hang out?"

—Bentham's "greatest happiness of the greatest number" had a singular history. It "was first enunciated by Hutcheson, 1725, thence taken into Italian, 'la massima felicità nel maggior numero,' by Beccaria," in 1764, reappearing in English in a translation of this author's 'Dei Delitti e delle Pene' in 1766; "thence in Priestley, 1768, and Bentham, 1776," while Gen. Perronet Thompson in 1829 shortened it to "greatest happiness principle," "rule of greatest happiness." Types of such transmigrations are also *harlequin*, the Italian *arlecchino* being possibly the same as Old French *herlequin*, etc., of which "the ultimate origin is possibly Teutonic"; and *harquebus*, Middle High Ger-

man *hake(n)bühse*, transformed by Italian popular etymology into *arcobuso*, this in turn effecting a change of the earlier French name *haquebute* into *arquebus*, which was taken over into English. The dish *haggis*, "now considered specially Scotch," was popular in English cookery down to the beginning of the eighteenth century. A certain class of purists will be surprised to find *had rather* quietly ranged in line with *had better*, *had liefer*, *had sooner*, with a reference to Dr. F. Hall's "exhaustive treatment" of this idiom (as, by the way, for *Hansa* we are referred to Dr. Gross), and similarly to find the colloquial *have got* cited as a simple example of the present tense of *have* forming a present of completed action, or "present perfect." The noun *has-been* (the veteran who lags superfluous on the stage, one past his usefulness) ought to have retained its obsolete fellow *hadiwist* (vain regret, if I had known). The three forms, *hap hazard*, *hap-hazard*, *haphazard* suggest a principle of hyphenation (to avoid the ambiguous *ph* when the two words are written as one).

—In Mr. Arthur Waugh's 'Pamphlet Library' (Henry Holt & Co.) the volume of religious tracts is edited by the Rev. Percy Dearmer. His range is considerably wider than that of Mr. Rhys in the literary section, or than that of Mr. Pollard in the political. Whereas Mr. Rhys begins with Sidney's 'Apologie for Poetry' and Mr. Pollard with Sexby's 'Killing No Murder,' Mr. Dearmer goes back to Wyclif's 'Septem Hereses' and ends with No. 7 of the "Tracts for the Times." In further comparison with these predecessors his selections are shorter, more widely representative, and, it seems to us, more informed with the spirit of terse polemic. Out of his eighteen pieces only two deal with general religious topics. Fox's 'Concerning the Rule' and Swift's 'Abolishing of Christianity' neither of them gets far into the depths of abstract speculation, but, especially in the case of Swift, they are moré than sectarian. The rest centre round points connected either with the Church of Rome, or with the Church of England, or with difficulties cropping out between the Establishment and Dissenters. It should be remembered that the cornerstone of the series is a rigid test. Only those pamphlets are admitted "which, besides possessing the saving qualities of distinction and style, have also exercised a striking influence upon the current events." In Mr. Dearmer's volume the names of Halifax, Defoe, Swift, Sydney Smith, and Newman vouch for "style and distinction," while there is no denying the effect produced by Simon Fish's 'Supplicacyon for the Beggers,' Prynne's 'Looking-Glasse for Lordly Prelates,' and Law's 'Second Letter to the Bishop of Bangor.' Cartright, Parsons, Bastwick, Baxter, and Charles Leslie are among the other writers included. We must say that we always find Martin Marprelate a little tiresome, though we cannot deny the historical importance of the controversy. Apart from the amusement which one has in watching the deft cut and thrust of these old encounters, a valuable impression is left by the sight of sixteenth and seventeenth-century sword-play, as it was practised in religious broils. To use the editor's own words, "it cannot fail to encourage the growth of that historic sense which has proved so useful a solvent of many bitter disputations."

—The decision of the Minister of Public Instruction against the further admission of foreign (*i. e.*, non-Prussian) students to the department of mechanical engineering in the Technische Hochschule of Charlottenburg shows the most radical way of solving the "Ausländerfrage" which has for some time been agitating the public mind in various parts of Germany. A more gentle and no doubt quite effective remedy for the crowding of excessive numbers of students from without into some German technical institutions and universities would be found, as the editor of the *Hochschul-Nachrichten* remarks, in the enforcement of uniform requirements for admission in the case of all students. That the question itself may become a serious one appears from reports of several institutions. Thus, the non-German students at the Darmstadt Polytechnicum, one of the smaller institutions of its kind, numbered three hundred during the last semester. The authorities have, however, not thought it best to adopt any restrictive measures beyond requiring foreigners to furnish proof of sufficient means of subsistence. In Saxony the Ministry has had under consideration an increase of tuition fees for students from other states, in order to relieve the pressure for room in the lecture halls and laboratories of the famous mining academy of Freiberg. The senate of the Technical High School at Brunswick has somewhat stiffened the entrance conditions for foreigners without otherwise yielding to certain demands made by the student body which betrayed a narrow and hostile spirit towards foreigners. Various motives and interests, some perfectly legitimate and honorable, others rather selfish and narrow-minded, are at the bottom of this whole question, and there is every prospect that the near future will bring about changes in the conditions under which students from other countries can enter German technical schools and universities. The granting of the degree of M.D. by the University of Berlin to foreign students whose general preparatory training was sufficient, has already been made the subject of discussion in medical associations and in the press.

—The results of the investigation of the committee appointed by the Sociedad Geográfica of Lima (Peru) to ascertain exact data concerning the effect of high altitudes upon the human body, are beginning to appear in the Bulletin of that society, the first instalment of measurements of vital or respiratory capacity being published in the number corresponding to the second trimestre of 1897. The measurements were made by Dr. La Puente with modern instruments of precision, and include external dimensions of the thorax as well as the quantity of air exhaled after a forced inhalation—that is to say, the vital capacity. The results are stated in tabular form substantially without comment, and hence require some manipulation to fit them for comparison with the results obtained by Hutchinson and others. Taking one of the most interesting tables from measurements made on indigenous Indians resident in the vicinity of Oroya, 12,248 feet above sea level, and correcting for age and stature, the average vital capacity is 3,847.5 cubic centimetres, which is only 78.72 cubic centimetres greater than the European average for men thirty-five years old, and of an average stature of 1.727 metres. The Oroya Indians show an average stature of 1.65 metres. While the result is hardly what might have been anticipated, some individuals certainly possess extraordinary respiratory capacity, in one case reaching 4,400 cubic centimetres, the age being eighteen years, and the height 1.69 metres. This is equivalent to a capacity of 4,797.4 cubic centimetres for a man of normal height thirty-five years old. It would seem that the observations of travellers concerning the increase of lung capacity with rarefaction of the air must have been based upon such extraordinary cases rather than upon average ones. The same number of the Bulletin contains an interesting article by Federico Moreno upon mortality in the city of Lima. With the exception of one brief period from 1857 to 1860, the annual increase of population has never reached one per cent. since the year 1700. Considering the natural healthfulness of the dry western coast of South America, this is a condition which, as Señor Moreno well insists, should be promptly remedied. Bad sanitation is responsible in part for Lima occupying a position as the eighth unhealthiest important city in the world, although the ravages of consumption, due to the almost universal prevalence of tuberculosis in the cattle supplying the city with milk, mount up to 27.24 per cent. of the total deaths. In charming contrast to this state of things is the record of Piura, where, against 750 deaths, there were 1,780 births in three years; and even this is exceeded by Sullana, where, during the past seven years, there have been only 700 deaths, while the number of births reached 4,485.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Disaster. By Paul and Victor Margueritte. Translated with an introduction by Frederick Lees. D. Appleton & Co.

For Love of Country. By Cyrus Townsend Brady, Archdeacon of Pennsylvania. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Federal Judge. By Charles R. Lush. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Lin McLean. By Owen Wister. Harper & Brothers.

Three Partners, and Tales of Trail and Town. By Bret Harte. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Tales of the Home Folks in Peace and War. By Joel Chandler Harris. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Gloria Victis. By J. A. Mitchell. Charles Scribner's Sons.

An American Mother, and Other Stories. By Mary Lanman Underwood. Wausau, Wisconsin: Van Vechten & Ellis.

The Whirlpool. By George Gissing. F. A. Stokes Co.

The School for Saints. By John Oliver Hobbes. F. A. Stokes Co.

'The Disaster,' a translation of 'Le Désastre' by MM. Paul and Victor Margueritte, is a vivid and impressive account of the Franco-Prussian war. There are some fictitious persons, or, at least names, but artifices of construction are discarded, and the actual events of a consummate tragedy presented in chronological succession with an air of unaffected veracity. The opening scene is a state reception at Saint Cloud, when war was in the air, when it was felt that "war was wanted in high places"—an epitome of that splendid sham, the Second Empire. Here Pierre du Breuil, the connecting link of events, is introduced, and his observations

and feelings forecast that disastrous future whose spectre from the beginning obstructed for thoughtful men the pleasant, easy road to Berlin. Du Breuil is a soldier tried in Italy and Africa, and, at the moment, an orderly officer of the Minister of War. From the agitation and confusion of preparation for advance to the Rhine, he passes with Bazaine's corps to Metz as an officer of the general staff. So he has every chance to know all that the chiefs permitted to be known of their plans, to take part in several battles, to observe confusion, mismanagement, corruption in every department of the service, and to hear the officers' criticism of Bazaine—at first a whisper of discontent, growing to accusation of bad faith, culminating in rage, despair, and a cry of, "Treason."

The characterization of Du Breuil and a number of brother officers shows many remarkable literary qualities. They come from the nobility, the bourgeoisie, and the peasantry; some are passionate, impetuous, gay, some are cool, prudent, severe; but all are brave, patriotic soldiers, heedful of military discipline, obedient to the leader's orders even when their wisdom is doubted, consciously blind pieces in the game. When the end comes and a great army is handed over to the enemy, a few cannot endure such humiliation, the natural man asserts himself, and each takes his destiny in his own hands, finding liberty or death. But Du Breuil feels that as he would have shared the army's glory, so he must share its shame, and, bowing his head to the Prussian yoke, he goes into captivity, an obedient soldier, but a poor hero of romance.

The authors' object, however, is not to lead one man or a dozen men through a series of marvellous exploits to a picturesquely heroic conclusion. They have tried to describe vividly in detail the inception, conduct, and result of a war in which an army full of spirit and patriotism was vanquished as much by the incompetence of some powerful persons and the baseness of others as by the superior skill and force of the enemy. They have achieved even more than they undertook, for their description of one war includes, besides pictures of battles and fighting-men, pictures of the effects of the struggle on the condition and morale of the French people, and is an indictment of every war as a grim satire on the assumptions of Christian civilization. These authors, it is well to remember, were soldiers before they became authors, and their father fell at Sedan, charging at the head of his Chasseurs d'Afrique. Their observations, feelings, and conclusions cannot be scoffed at as the dreams and imaginations of mere literary fellows. Their book has the authority of knowledge and the bitterness of experience.

Love and war by sea and land divide the honors of Archdeacon Brady's tale of the Revolution entitled 'For Love of Country.' The author has the power to make an old tale appear better and clearer than a new one, a power born of enthusiasm for the cause, and a belief that the Revolution was a passionate struggle for human rights—as nearly as possible, a righteous war. His patriotism being a finer sentiment than partisanship, he treats the enemy with unfailing courtesy. The English sailor, Lord Desborough, is as fine a figure as his rival and foe, the American, John Seymour. The laurel for supreme courage is given to Capt. Vincent and the crew of the *Yarmouth*, who, after annihilating the little *Randolph*, went down with their disabled ship in perfect order, cheering the red flag of England nailed to the wrecked mast-head. This famous engagement is uncommonly well described, but perhaps not better than that between the *Ranger*, commanded by Capt. John Paul Jones, and the English frigate *Juno*. In these old-time fights the ship shares the life and spirit of the men, and the combat has vastly greater human interest than one between modern death-dealing machines. To the description the author brings knowledge acquired by service in the navy, which probably helps the uninitiated to understand and to feel as if he were in the thick of things. The chapters given to the crossing of the Delaware and the Jersey campaign are rather out of direct interest, and chiefly valuable for a natural and pleasing sketch of Washington. In the love romance, laughter and tears are fairly mingled, and a happy way found out of sore trial. The political faith of the young rebel, Kate Wilton, and of the old royalist, Mrs. Talbot, is an animating force, not a garment, and the suffering of each a personal contribution, from one to the Country and from the other to the King.

The potency of fashion is well illustrated by the prevalence of the novel of romantic and picturesque adventure. Many of the chroniclers of the commonplace so plentiful a few years ago have disappeared from public view, and most of the younger aspirants to fame dip their pens in blood. Mr. Lush, the author of 'The Federal Judge,' has rather flown in the face of fashion and written a sober novel about people engaged in commerce and the practice of peaceful professions. Still, the subject is war—war between a great corporation and the people; but the conflict is conducted by minds, and the most deadly implement is an injunction of doubtful validity, issued by the Federal Judge to restrain the employees of the Trans-American Railroad from striking. The story develops the methods Mr. Gardwell used to advance his corporation's interests without reference to honor or honesty, and to assure his own fortune at any cost. Gardwell is an unscrupulous person of infinite resource, but comes to an inglorious end through follies of which a duller villain, with a little prudence, would hardly have been capable. He is very well drawn, but not well enough to satisfy, because he succeeds too easily, and never encounters any serious opposition. His great achievement is the capture of the simple, honest circuit judge, Tracy Dunn, and the conversion of this sworn foe of corporations into a most pliable and useful tool. By his tact and keen judgment of men, he makes a friend of the Judge, and then, realizing the insufficiency of common methods of corruption, by bringing to bear subtle and well-calculated influences, without exciting a suspicion in the mind of the Judge, makes him perfectly his own. The characterization of the Judge is an excellent bit of work, and the moral of it is that every man has his price, though some may sell themselves unwittingly. Mr. Lush has a good deal to learn about novel-writing. His romance is hampered by lifeless conventions, and his style is not a style, but a way of telling things too plain and literal to charm. These are defects which may be overcome and probably will be by a writer with a desire to express things well worth that trouble, and with the very rare power of putting a real man in a book.

When America is so old that native heroes shall have become epical and legendary, the cow-boy will doubtless be the centre of an imposing cycle. Mr. Wister's Western sketches are valuable contributions to the tradition. The name of the last, "Lin McLean," is well chosen for perpetuation. The legend of Lin McLean sounds as well as the legend of Arthur, or Roland, or Amadis. Already his figure has the imaginative charm of a vanishing type, for Mr. Wister says that he lived long ago, in the "happy days when Wyoming was a Territory with a future instead of a State with a past, and the unfenced cattle grazed upon her ranges by prosperous thousands." He possesses qualities necessary for heroes of any race or nation, such as daring in war, gallantry in love, and a reserve of emotional sensibility. To these he adds an impassive demeanor, an ironical outlook on his world, and a command of sententious comment and sparkling metaphor without which no hero could be accepted as American.

Bret Harte will always be the great authority for the myth of the "Forty-Niner," though his later works tend to enfeeble the early vigorous conception of mid-century Argonauts. He seems to have lost his intuitive skill, and to have made no perceptible advance in art by the constant practice of writing. One of his recent productions, "Three Partners," is a vulgar intrigue without motive, badly constructed, and in the end quite incoherent. Another, "Tales of Trail and Town," is less discreditable to his reputation. Some of the episodes are thrilling, and some of the characters strongly imagined, but every tale is impaired in value or rendered worthless by faults that can be attributed only to laziness, or indifference, or an absolute failure of literary instinct.

Mr. Joel Chandler Harris has written many tales of Georgia, the civil war, and the colored brother, but has had the discretion not to overwrite. We are already familiar with the kind of people who move through his latest volume, 'Tales of the Home Folk,' and meet them without expectation of novelty, but with hope of being well entertained. The author's kind, genial, and humorous personality lives in every episode, and unfailingly excites the desirable sensations of pleasure and satisfaction. In one sketch, "The Late Mr. Watkins of Georgia," Mr. Harris recounts with excellent humor the troubles brought upon him by the "Uncle Remus" tales. The learned to the earth's remotest ends appear to have taken him with embarrassing solemnity, and call upon him in many tongues to engage in the most acrimonious controversies about folk-lore and myth.

In Mr. Mitchell's clever and original tale, 'Gloria Victis,' a country clergyman, Dr. Thorne, startles his congregation by declaring that Christ reincarnate frequently visits this earth to lift up those who despair and to lead sinners to repentance. By the miracle wrought in his last chapter, the author attempts to show that Dr. Thorne's conviction was not an hallucination. Though the attempt is perhaps too daring for complete success, it is not a failure, and the incident appears possible if not probable. Undoubtedly, since a miracle was needed to save Steve Wadsworth, objection to its use would be ungrateful. He is a most attrac-

tive youth, and, however surprising, never incredible, always a logical argument from his inheritance. This unpleasant and dangerous inheritance is described by Mr. Mitchell in uncompromising modern fashion, bluntly, tersely, with much insidious irony and humor. His manner is rather better suited to realistic narrative than to the discussion of Christian doctrines and ethics. For these serious subjects he is a trifle flippant, never, however, falling into irreverence or cheap cynicism.

Most of the tales in the volume entitled 'An American Mother' are impressions of New York's most fashionable society, not much more than gossip without the piquancy of scandal. The author, like most writers who present their observations of this class to the general public, firmly believes that its one aim is to repress individuality, that it abhors independent action and holds originality equivalent to irretrievable disgrace. Twenty or even ten years ago this may have been Gospel truth, but we feel that justice is not being done to the development of our aristocracy. It is hardly possible that a class intimately familiar with the ways of genuine aristocrats can have perpetuated errors natural enough in its primitive, experimental period. Some one must have been keen enough to discover that no mortal is so carelessly and confidently himself as is a duke, or an earl, or even a penniless younger son of unquestioned lineage. Such observations must surely have been whispered about New York and Newport and Lenox, and excited an earnest effort towards imitation of illustrious example. It is at all events wise to receive with caution the statements of persons who tell us that our aristocrats are still intensely preoccupied with questions of etiquette, and have no ambition except to be colorless members of a recognized "best set"—our shabby substitute for "nobility and gentry." The characters in two or three of these sketches are far removed from the paralyzing influence of a best set, and in dealing with them Miss Underwood shows some knowledge of human nature. She has an excellent notion of form and a lively style, which make one regret a waste of talent on the appearances of things.

The best of the people in Mr. Gissing's 'Whirlpool' are only upper-middle-class, yet have many points in common with the American aristocrat as celebrated in fiction. They have a similar solicitude about sets, and a similar regard for uniformity of manner and of taste in clothes and cookery. They have not nearly so much money, and indeed suffer great inconvenience through the inadequacy of bank accounts for desired expenditure. The families who are in, or are struggling to get into, the whirlpool of London life, derive their incomes from the professions or the stock exchange or the timely legacies of a maiden aunt—that special British providence of the helpless or unfortunate or spendthrift nephew. These families ought to be happy, but are not, and their discomfort is in every instance attributed to the folly of the women. Mrs. Abbott, Mrs. Rolfe, Mrs. Carnaby, Mrs. Leach are all blessed with affectionate husbands, who slave for them, believe in them, and run into debt for them. Some of these ladies give in return snubs, bad temper, constant demands for more money and for absolute freedom from domestic care. Others preserve a fair face, but cherish a deadly determination to get what they want, which is generally what their lords don't want, and always what they have to pay for. The only reasonably happy pair live in the country, where the wife—occupied with children and chickens—has no time to strike for freedom, and finds mental refreshment in the husband's Latin quotations. Fate has surely been especially cruel to Mr. Gissing in his experience of women.

The affairs of these families are closely enough interwoven to make a novel, but Mr. Gissing cares less for the whole effect than for the representation of individuals. He cannot see that though the separate characterization may be true, the combination is false. He falls into the commonest error of pessimists, so keen for defect and failure that they ignore perfection and success. So their labor, however sincere, is futile. They teach nothing, because nobody of age to read and understand them believes what they say.

In 'The School for Saints' Mrs. Craigie has relied but little on herself, and has shown an humble and catholic spirit in imitation. Her first scene, at Miraflores, and several others, including the important one near the end in Catesby Church, are very close copies of George Meredith's method and manner. The primitive Fathers and famous liturgies contribute largely to her expression of religious sentiment, the modern and minor romantic novelists to the adventures with the Carlists in Spain, while the hand of Disraeli, so long dead in letters, is over all. The author challenges comparison with Disraeli by introducing him in her story, epigram incarnate, "wearing a light overcoat, gray trousers, a white hat, and lavender gloves." These details of costume help us to know when he is being Delphic in his own person and when in Mrs. Craigie's. The worst of his domination of the page is that it casts suspicion on those dashing cynicisms and brilliant ironies which sparkle all over Mrs. Craigie's less serious and more amusing works.

Separately, the other literary influences have not affected her badly, but she has not assimilated them to the point of producing harmony and unity. The book, therefore, is tiresome and artificial except in the expression of religious sentiment, which has an ardor illogical and hot as of one newly come into inheritance of faith. Respectable though Mrs. Craigie's ambition may be, it has soared too high. She has not been able to sustain characters through a series of situations in which different aspects must show themselves—characters that cannot be hit off by a few epigrams. The intrinsic unreality of her book is not modified by such devices as italics, footnotes, and marginal references to lost documents. These are but feeble protests to establish a suspected veracity, and suggest the author's consciousness of weakness and insufficiency.

A DICTIONARY OF CLASSICAL QUOTATIONS.

A Dictionary of Quotations (Classical). By T. B. Harbottle. The Macmillan Co. 1897.

"Quotation," said Dr. Johnson, "is a good thing; there is a community of mind in it. Classical quotation is the parole of literary men all over the world." That was in the happy *tempus actum* when a background of solid classical scholarship was to be assumed in the literary man. Even in these days of dictionary erudition the adroit journalist recognizes that, in the embroidery of quotations which he is to palm off as an essay, an occasional gold thread of classical allusion gives an agreeable and easy effect of learning worn lightly. To offer the world an idea with the air of an inventor, and drive it home with a classical illustration in which it has already been crystallized in inevitable language, is a literary trick that has always been crowned with success. The appearance of the first really exhaustive manual of classical quotations may be, from the old-fashioned point of view, but a sign of the distemper of learning. But the old-fashioned point of view is one that the breathless hack writer cannot afford. For him Mr. Harbottle's book is a whole armory of weapons. "Quicquid bene dictum est ab ullo, meum est," is an article of his unspoken creed, and, with Mr. Harbottle by his side, he need never open Seneca.

It was no slight task that the compiler of the book set himself when he attempted to select from the whole range of Greek and Latin authors, classical and post-classical, those utterances on life and men and manners that have been echoed through literature, and are still in many cases alive in the mouths of men who could never refer you to the *locus classicus* for them. Mr. Harbottle can have derived little assistance from existing manuals of the kind, for such works as King's 'Classical and Foreign Quotations' or Riley's old-fashioned 'Dictionary of Latin Quotations' cover a very limited field and are hardly to be placed in the same category with his scholarly achievement. To make such a collection exhaustive was naturally out of the question in a volume of 542 pages. In any case, another man's selection of *loci classici* will never be entirely to the taste of the scholar. But the general reader who should turn to this manual for the originals of the stock phrases for which he dimly suspects a classical source, would seldom be disappointed. There are even learned men, we imagine, who would come off badly in an examination in the curiosities of literature, such as could be set from Mr. Harbottle's pages. How many are there, for instance, who could tell you offhand that the εὕρηκα of Archimedes must be looked for in the pages of Vitruvius, 'De Architectura,' or that the *experimentum in corpore vili* dates from the sixteenth-century writer Teissier? Mr. Harbottle has perforce left *poeta nascitur non fit* and *quem deus vult perdere prius dementat* in the provoking anonymity that has so long obscured their origin. For the latter, at any rate, the scholiast on Sophocles, 'Antigone,' 620, furnishes a fairly satisfactory Greek prototype. It would be a curious inquiry how Justinian's *in flagrante crimine* was transformed for purposes of quotation into *in flagrante delicto*, or why Pliny's *ne supra crepidam sutor* regularly figures as *ne sutor ultra crepidam*.

One of the compiler's chief difficulties was to secure an effect of *lucidus ordo* for such a manual. By means of three indices, of authors, subject-matter, and Greek and Latin words, he has supplemented the alphabetical arrangement which, taken alone, lands one in hopeless confusion. Even as it is, we think that much might have been done in the way of cross-reference and more judicious grouping of subject-matter. The alphabetical order is, with apparent caprice, occasionally abandoned for such grouping—

not always with happy results: *e. g., nil admirari* is not found in its alphabetical position on p. 161, but appended to a less well known dictum of Cicero on p. 164. This would be well enough if it had been done consistently; it would certainly have been better, for example, to place together the *mens conscia recti* of Virgil, Ovid, and Ausonius (we note in passing that the Virgilian reference is ignored in the index). We fail to see why Cicero's reference to the triumphant death-song of the swan should be given, while the original passage from the 'Phædo' is altogether omitted. We defy any one to find *nescit vox missa revcrti* by the index, and the alphabetical order will fail him unless he knows the whole passage. On p. 57, Sallust's translation of a famous line in the 'Septem' of Æschylus is given with no indication that the original appears on p. 450; on p. 207 we ought to be told that the passage from Claudian is a translation of a couplet in the Anthology; on p. 253 the quotation from P. Syrus should be referred back to the Greek of Plutarch. One feels that the author has defrauded his readers on finding that the famous Lucretian passage about the handing on of the torch is given without the slightest indication that it is a translation of the still more famous sentence in the 'Laws' of Plato. On p. 262, Pliny's ever appropriate saying that "something new is always coming out of Africa" is not given as a translation from Aristotle, as it should be.

Mr. Harbottle's omissions are many and striking; every intelligent reader can make a list for himself, and later editions of the book will doubtless remedy the pardonable deficiencies of the first. We should have expected to find more of the *mensonges de l'antiquité*—those famous short sayings which historical etiquette has ascribed to great men—the "short speeches which fly abroad like darts and are thought to be shot out of their secret intentions." What though the Emperor Julian did not say "Vicisti, O Galilæe"? We demand that fiction of the Christian fathers, together with its Greek original, in a work of this sort. We have no time to read Suetonius, or Appian, or Tacitus; why, then, does Mr. Harbottle omit Vespasian's dying jest "Ut puto, deus fio," the "Philippis iterum me videbis" of daily quotation, and Galba's "Feri, si ex re sit Populi Romani"? We find here the immortal epitaph of Simonides, but not Cicero's translation of it—the celebrated "dic hospes Spartæ." The following are at any rate hackneyed enough to deserve a place: the *Surgit amari aliquid* and the *vivida vis animi* of Lucretius, the epitaph of Ennius, Seneca's *Ultima Thule*, Virgil's *arma amens capio*, and that passage which Fénelon never read without admiring tears, beginning *aude hospes contemnere opes;* that other line in the Second Æneid, *infelix simulacrum atque ipsius umbra Creusæ*, which St. Augustine would cite as typical of Pagan art from which the Christian must flee; the passage that is for ever associated with Pitt's great speech on the slave-trade when, at daybreak, he pointed to the sunrise that was gilding the windows of the House of Commons and uttered with tremendous effect the lines from the first Georgic,

> "Nos ubi primus equis Oriens afflavit anhelis,
> Illic sera rubens accendit lumina Vesper."

Another phrase that, as Tacitus himself would say, is conspicuous by its absence, is Tacitus's remark about Priscus, *etiam sapientibus cupido gloriæ novissima exuitur*, from which Milton drew his "last infirmity of noble mind." It is hard to trace this saying to its source. A Greek writer quoted by Athenæus tells us that Plato said that "love of glory is the last garment we discard in death," but it is of course not in Plato, and by the time that the Emperor Julian uses the phrase τὸν ἔσχατον χιτῶνα ἀποδύσασθαι, it had passed into a proverb. An interesting modern instance of its use is found in Chamfort's 'Dialogues entre Saint-Réal, Julien,' etc.:

"Julien loq. La gloire est la dernière passion du sage; c'est la chemise de l'âme, m'a dit tout à l'heure un philosophe aimable né parmi mes chers Gaulois.

"Saint Réal. Ah! je reconnais Montaigne."

This list by no means represents the omissions from the Latin Section that occur to us. In the Greek we miss Plato's ὁμοίωσις τῷ θεῷ, the μονόχρονος ἡδονή of Aristippus, Heraclitus's πάντα χωρεῖ—not to mention others no less famous. On p. 51 Seneca's translation of the Stoic hymn of Cleanthes is given, but Mr. Harbottle has omitted the original Greek. On p. 333 the earliest literary use of the "god from the machine" should have been traced to the 'Cratylus' of Plato. On p. 487 the phrase πολυτελὲς ἀνάλωμα χρόνος is quoted from Diogenes Laertius as a saying of Theophrastus; Antiphon, however, had said it long before him, and it is first recorded in Plutarch, 'Vit. Anton.,' 28. The 'Cratylus' is quoted as the authority for the Heraclitean saying that one cannot step twice into the same river—here the words of Heraclitus (p. 41) should have been quoted. It was Heraclitus, again, and not Herodotus, who said first that "men's ears are less trustworthy than their eyes."

Mr. Harbottle occasionally mistranslates. The most astonishing case is the familiar Horatian *fallentis semita vitæ*, which he renders (p. 67), "The pathway of my declining years"! In spite of Heraclitus we distrusted our eyes and passed on to p. 171, where *oderint dum probent* is mistranslated, "They will hate the doer while they approve the deed." On p. 372 Mr. Harbottle, in the passage from Epictetus, reads εὑροήσεις, but translates the reading of Stobæus εὑρήσεις. On p. 54 he has altogether missed in his translation the point of Seneca's "brave man pitted against fate—especially if he be the one that gave the challenge."

The book is marred by not a few misprints, which are especially to be deplored in a work of reference. It is a case of *corruptio optimi pessima*—a maxim that Mr. Harbottle should first take to heart and then include in a second edition. We note the following: p. 4, for negligemus read negligimus; p. 44, for immortalis, immortales; p. 57, for ardælionum, ardelionum; p. 274, for seculi, sæculi; p. 274, for Pliny reference read 97 for 98; p. 282, for invoivens, involvens; p. 283, for virtutis, virtutem; p. 328, for ἀμάρτη, ἀμάρτῃ; p. 333, for being, bring; p. 355, for κεκφέρῃ, κἀκφέρῃ; p. 368, for ἀδικείτο, ἀδικείτω; p. 394, for σημαινοῦσ', σημανοῦσ'; p. 402, for ὀμνύοισι, ὀμνύουσι; p. 417, for μεταφευτενεῖν, μεταφυτεύειν; p. 492, for ὠφέλεσεν, ὠφέλησεν; p. 514, for βραχὺ, βραχὺς.

When all has been said that can be said in criticism, our gratitude to Mr. Harbottle remains. Undeterred by a slight disconnection of plot, we found ourselves reading his book continuously with unflagging interest. Its faults are faults of detail, which can easily be removed in a later edition.

The Silva of North America: A Description of the Trees which grow naturally in North America, exclusive of Mexico. By Charles Sprague Sargent, Director of the Arnold Arboretum of Harvard University. Illustrated with figures and analyses drawn from nature, by Charles Edward Faxon. Vol. XI. Coniferæ. Pinus. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897. Pp. 163, plates 55.

Of the seventy species of Pinus known to botanical science, about one-half (or, more exactly, thirty-four) are regarded as coming within the geographical limits of this work. The seventy species are survivors of a host, numbering a hundred or more, which flourished in the miocene tertiary. Some of these survivors have had a troubled life, and now find a temporary refuge in very restricted regions. How soon they may be forced to give up even these narrow habitations and relinquish their unequal contests with the fates, we cannot tell, but if pines, as was once thought, could speak or even whisper, they would doubtless complain of the great prosperity and wide diffusion of their more fortunate kinsfolk which flourish over vast areas. But the jealous pines which think they have fallen on evil times, and which are envious of those which grow thriftily over hundreds and hundreds of square miles, ought to be comforted by the reflection that this very prosperity of their relatives is the greatest peril of all, and that these widely diffused and numerous individuals are dangerously near their end.

For it is on these vast forests of pines and their allies that the selfishness of spendthrifts has cast its fatal glance. The scanty groups of survivors of all sorts of climatal hardships may continue to escape a while longer, but not so the thriving forests of vast extent. These latter seemed to be doomed to speedy extinction. Take the terrible illustration of the recent course in Congress. To our Senators and Representatives came word that a wise national policy of reservation and preservation of forests had been inaugurated. A commission of large experience, and containing not one unpractical member, framed a report showing what ought to be and could be done in saving our national heritage of forest trees. But, after a short period of apparent prosperity, the report began to meet with persistent opposition—some of it open, and much of it underhand. In few cases of opposition to a sound policy has the case for the opponents been more skilfully managed. Local prejudices were aroused, and all the vested interests took a quiet hand in the matter. Many persons who ought to have known better were confused by the clamor and scoffing, and were made to look upon the report as an impracticable scheme of doctrinaires who hardly knew a forest when they saw one, and doubtless some of our readers may have thought that the report regarding reservations went too far. The fact is, it hardly went far enough.

To all who feel that the report was a mistake, we commend the present volume. We advise them to glance through these pages, which present in a cautious but telling manner some of the economics of the pines. In addition to the careful presentation of these matters on conservative lines there has been given a great amount of interesting matter of a more trivial character, such as the utilization of the less important products of the plants. One of the most curious of these is the statement (on page 93, communicated to the author in a letter from M. W. Gorman) that a variety of the scrub pine, growing in

Alaska, is employed by certain natives as a source of food. The bark of this tree is subjected to a complicated treatment, which ends in the production of a smoked cake, relished by the children, but a trifle too hard for the worn-down teeth of adults. On thinking over what the cakes must taste like, we feel like congratulating the adults on their happy escape. All the other foods derived from the pines are pretty fully given, and we may further say that the different uses are all well put. Nor has the wealth of historical allusion attaching to this genus been overlooked by the author. Therefore, with its botany and applied botany, the volume is uncommonly attractive.

It is impossible to praise too highly the excellence of Mr. Faxon's drawings. They are in every way as good as the best he has given before, and the reproduction of his plates is above the average of the preceding volumes. The whole work is highly creditable to the author and artist and to American botany.

Norwegian Grammar and Reader, with Notes and Vocabulary. By Julius E. Olson, Professor of Scandinavian Languages and Literature in the University of Wisconsin. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co. 1898. Pp. x + 330.

In order properly to justify the title of "Norwegian," applied to a grammar and reader, such a book should concern itself with the language and literature of the dialects of Norway, as well as with the common literary language and the literature which it embodies. The author dislikes, as he says in his preface, "the cumbersome and awkward term Dano-Norwegian," and has therefore discarded it. His book, in point of fact, is, nevertheless, a "Dano-Norwegian Grammar and Reader," in that he does not take the dialects into consideration in the grammatical part, and only incidentally exemplifies them in his "Reader."

It is, of course, quite apparent that the literary language of Norway is not by any manner of means coincident with the language of Denmark. It has, to quote the author, "numerous differences in pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammatical details," which the dialects and local environment have introduced and developed; but all these together have none the less not made Norwegian out of it. It is very much as if a grammar and reader of the English language in America were put forth with "American" instead of "English" on the title-page. There is a Norwegian literature in the same way that there is an American literature; but as truly as the latter is written in the English language, so truly, in a fundamental sense, is the former written in Danish.

The *raison d'être* of Prof. Olson's 'Norwegian' manual is, then, not essentially different from Groth's and Sargent's books, which have "Dano-Norwegian" in their titles. The grammar is inferior to Groth's, its defects particularly being a lack of precision in statement in the phonetic part and the general paucity of such material—points in which the latter work excels. Its inflections, however, are adequate, and the illustrative sentences in the main excellent. By far the best part of the book is the "Reader" and the accompanying "Notes"; the former being an excellent anthology of the literature of Norway since 1814, both in the selection of the material and in its arrangement, and the latter an admirable commentary upon it. There are, however, one or two surprising omissions. Norwegian dramatic literature, for instance, is represented by a single short extract from Ibsen's "Pretenders." Other citations from "the Master" are four lyrics and two public speeches, but there is nothing from any one of the social dramas, which, more than any other single element, have made him and the whole modern literature famous outside of Norway.

The most disappointing feature of all in a "Norwegian" reader, nevertheless, is the absence of Norwegian. In the present case this looks, too, very much like a neglected opportunity, for the author is apparently thoroughly cognizant of the field. The modern dialect literature of Norway is not only considerable in amount, but altogether remarkable for its vitality and vigor. This is particularly true of its prose; and Garborg, possibly the most notable writer in the popular dialect, has even been hailed, for his novels, as the herald of a new era in Norwegian literature—the era, as Scandinavian critics have called it, of the "Norwegian renaissance." The only specimens of this literature are four lyrics from Aasen, Vinje, Garborg, and Per Sivle, contained on as many pages of the "Reader."

The book, as a whole, in spite of what has been said, is a welcome addition to present subsidia, and as "an introduction to the study of Norwegian literature" will well meet what the author says is, in his idea, the essential need of the work.

The Life of Francis Place, 1771-1854. By Graham Wallas, M.A., Lecturer at the London School of Economics and Political Science. Longmans, Green & Co. 1898. Pp. x., 398. Portraits.

It is not known to all students of British political history that one of the personalities most efficient in promoting the growth of enlightenment and reform during the first half of the present century was a London tailor, who never sought to enter Parliament and who never held place or office. He was the associate and intimate friend of Bentham and the Mills, of Sir Francis Burdett, of Robert Owen, of Romilly and Richard Cobden and Grote. The library behind his shop in Charing Cross was for years a place of meeting for Liberal and Radical politicians in and out of Parliament. There reforms were discussed and agitations organized. There plans were laid for the return or defeat of members of Parliament. There were composed and there were circulated manifestoes that pulled down ministries. It was at once a library of political reference, a club-room, and a tract repository. This man was one of the organizers of effective trade combinations at a period when organization too often meant transportation. He was mainly instrumental in the repeal of the Combination laws, in the early advances of popular education, in the achievement of Reform, in the repeal of the newspaper-stamp duties, in the establishment of penny postage. In politics and religion he was the outcome of the French Revolution. His last efficient service was on the committee of the Anti-Corn Law League. This man was Francis Place. Joseph Hume, when near his end, wrote of him as having been "the most disinterested reformer he ever knew, valuable in council, fertile in resource, performing great labors; but he never thought of himself. Honors and advantage he might often have commanded, but he preferred assiduous and private services, which he tendered of his own zeal, and defrayed out of his own wealth." His carefully indexed letters and papers, his autobiography, his collections of newspaper cuttings, histories in MS. of the political events of his time, occupy cases of their own in the Library of the British Museum.

As a writer, Place was untrained, diffuse, and wandering; little use has, therefore, hitherto been made of the invaluable mine of materials left by him. We have here, admirably written, not alone his life, but an analysis and clear exposition of the principal movements in which he was engaged. It has required no small talent, no little labor, to construct such a narrative out of such material. It is assuredly a book that will live. The history of Francis Place's early struggles against adverse circumstances is as interesting as a novel. The main portion of the work is stiffer reading. The essential value lies in the details of political events many of which have their bearing upon the present. We realize, for instance, that seventy years ago as brilliant hopes were entertained as at the present day of universal happiness through collective ownership of land.

Francis Place was born in 1771 in a spunging-house kept by his father, a man of low character. He was apprenticed to a leather-breeches maker, and at nineteen, on fourteen shillings a week, married a girl two years his junior. She rose with him, and was the beloved companion of his early middle life, but never recovered the grinding hardships of the first years of their married life. A strike in which he took a leading part reduced them to the direst poverty. During the enforced idleness of that time, in their single room, a child dying of smallpox, and most of their effects pawned, he commenced that course of self-improvement which he carried on through life, and which led to his success. From being a journeyman, he began to deal in clothes, in 1799 opened a shop in Charing Cross, for a period definitely gave up every form of public life, and within a few years was in receipt of an annual income of several thousand pounds. The humiliations a man of his feelings and temperament had to endure at that period in achieving success in such an occupation are graphically described. As fortune smiled, he devoted himself more and more to public affairs. His library and writing-room behind the shop (a knowledge of the existence of which he concealed from his ordinary customers) became, as we have said, a place of call and a centre of political activity. When, yet in middle life, he retired from business, he still kept this room open as the best means by which he could hope to move the political life of his time. We have from his own pen a striking picture of himself in advanced life at Ford Abbey, visiting Bentham and the Mills, "pacing the walks from 10 to 2—four hours' hard work at Latin. I use all the care and diligence I possess or can command at this very, very difficult study." Much of his powers of accomplishment lay in that:

"I could dismiss a train of thought at pleasure and take up another, and could leave any business of any kind and go to something else, without any reference to the subject I had left; and when I concluded the new thoughts or finished the new business, I could revert to the old thoughts or business and take them up again where I had left them."

His enthusiasms were tempered by cool

judgment. He occasionally passed through periods of hopelessness as to the possibility of moving society to its own good. At times he withdrew entirely from public life, soon again to be called back by his sense of duty or the claims of others. At times we find him pouring maledictions not a few on the insensibility of Parliament to generous feeling and public opinion. Like most men who have accomplished much, he expected more than has been realized from reforms. Writing in 1838: "'If general post letters were charged only one penny, . . . we should become a wiser and a better people than any which have ever existed, or even [been] contemplated as likely to exist." He never anticipated a time when, under a popular franchise, the votes of London, Manchester, and Birmingham would largely contribute to return a Conservative majority of 150 to the House of Commons. A second marriage ended unhappily. Place lost much of his property. But he retained his equanimity to the end, and spent the last years of his life in the society of children and grandchildren, pleasantly occupied with the arrangement of his papers. He died peacefully in his sleep in 1854, the excitement concerning the Crimean war causing the event to pass almost without notice. Doubtless many are by the example of such lives moved to the full training and use of their faculties. Other eager natures there are, endowed with but ordinary powers and ordinary abilities, who are led to strive and strain to little purpose—perhaps even to cloud with a sense of failure lives that otherwise might have passed happily, contented with every-day occupations.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, J. W. Princeton—Old and New. Recollections of Undergraduate Life. Scribners. $1.25.
Babbitt, Irving. Taine's Introduction à l'Histoire de la Littérature Anglaise. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 20c.
Biddle, A. J. D. Word for Word and Letter for Letter. London: Gay & Bird; Philadelphia: Drexel Biddle.
Biedermann, Prof. W. Electro-Physiology. Vol II. Macmillan. $5.50.
Blondel, Auguste. The Revenge of Lucas Helm. Philadelphia: Drexel Biddle.
Boyd, C. E. Cases on American Constitutional Law. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
Brown, Robert. Semitic Influence in Hellenic Mythology. London: Williams & Norgate; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 2, 1898.

The Week.

The sixth week of the war opens with the naval situation reasonably satisfactory. Admiral Cervera's bolt is shot, according to the best intelligence, and the long period of uncertainty in which he has kept our military authorities is ended with the definite knowledge that he is safely held in Santiago by Schley. If we may believe the reports about the condition of the Spanish fleet which come from Curaçoa, Cervera had very little choice. Raiding our coasts or fighting either of our squadrons was out of the question for a commander whose first duty was to find a port in which to coal and refit. His empty bunkers and depleted larders and ships "gone lame" doubtless determined his choice of Santiago as a harbor of refuge, more than any preconceived and subtle strategy. We take it for granted that our naval authorities, having got their troublesome adversary cooped up, will see to it that he does not escape.

The call for 75,000 additional troops must be taken as a sign that the Government means to push the war to as early a conclusion as possible. Everybody must approve of this. With the *x* of the Spanish fleet now a known quantity, vigorous measures can be planned and executed with confidence. There is no way of making war gently, and the harder the blows delivered, the sooner will the end come. Spain's bitter realization that she can count upon no effective European friendship, and her internal difficulties and distractions, offer at least a reasonable hope that she will not blindly persist in an unequal combat, once her inferiority is clearly demonstrated and her honor salved.

It is to be hoped that the dispatches from Washington in regard to the new call for volunteers are correct when they say that it is primarily intended to fill up the regiments already mustered in before accepting new organizations. The statement is also made that the Adjutant-General's office thinks "the regiments as now constituted are too small for the highest efficiency," as the companies are only eighty-three strong. It would, in fact, be difficult to assign a good reason for giving the volunteer regiments only 1,026 men, while the regular regiments, upon which they are supposed to be modelled, are assigned 1,272 soldiers for their full strength. Even the latter number is far below the size of the regiment which European experience has taught to be the correct one, for our brigades as now organized at Chickamauga are smaller than the German or French regiment. Every officer of experience knows that there was no greater blunder committed during the civil war than allowing veteran regiments to dwindle to a couple of hundred men and then withdrawing them from the front. In their places were sent new regiments of green men with utterly inexperienced officers, mostly appointed for political reasons. Thus the valuable knowledge of veteran officers was thrown away, and the armies constantly weakened by having to break in raw troops with commanders fresh from civilian duties. An enlargement of the existing regiments to twenty-four hundred men each would be the cheapest and best way of increasing our army and adding to its efficiency. One has only to think how many politicians and place-hunters from Florida to Oregon will cry out at the suggestion of a failure to provide hundreds of officers, in order to realize how great a pressure will be brought to bear upon the War Department and the President to prevent the carrying out of so excellent a military measure.

It has been left for an English Admiral—Admiral Colomb—to point out the important bearing of Dewey's world-resounding feat at Manila upon a leading branch of naval theory. This is the question of a "naval base." We heard no end of this in the Hawaiian debates. Well, the Spaniards had at Manila just the kind of mystic "key" that we were urged to secure at Honolulu. According to certain theorists, their possession of the key made them unassailable. But Dewey, without a particle of reverence for this solemn theory, walked up and plucked the key out of the Spaniard's hand. As Admiral Colomb puts it: "Without the shadow of a base nearer than the other side of the Pacific, the American commander has reduced a squadron to nothing under the guns of its protecting works, and he now lies in Manila Bay making for the time the enemy's base his own." He adds that this operation used to be recognized in the British signal code, one old order reading, "Take up the enemy's anchorage which they have just left." The Admiral says that this signal was stricken out of the code by his own hand, and that he "never thought to see its wisdom illustrated by our cousins in practically performing the identical evolution." These considerations do not tell the whole story, of course, but they are well worth bearing in mind in connection with the general talk about needing naval bases all over the world for our enlarged navy. Dewey has shown conclusively that a naval base without a superior fleet to defend it may become simply a burying-ground for war-ships.

The Senate committee on finance has decided to accept no amendments to the war-revenue bill which are not germane to the measure. This disposes of Mr. Lodge's attempt to make the annexation of Hawaii a condition of the Government's getting the money which is needed to prosecute the war. Even before the committee took this action, the Massachusetts Senator had discovered that he had made a sad blunder, and was trying to devise excuses for his performance. He gave out that his annexation "rider" was not intended for obstruction, nor was it introduced with any hope that it would be adopted, but merely that it might "give the champions of the annexation project the chance they have long sought to attract the attention of the country to the arguments in favor of annexing Hawaii, and to do some debating" on the subject. The only comment needed upon this explanation is made by the Philadelphia *Ledger* when it says:

> "The excuse is worse than the offence. How can the amendment be debated without causing delay, and how can it present the cause of annexation without debate? If Senator Lodge does not wish his sanity to be questioned, as well as his patriotism, he will revise the explanations his friends make for his extraordinary conduct in this affair."

Much of the discussion that the pending bill to raise revenue for the expenses of the war has received in the Senate has been altogether beside the mark. Senator Stewart and Senator Allen have, of course, illustrated the evils of monopoly by talking incoherently and excessively about things in general and silver in particular, while other Senators have discussed the issue of bonds and greenbacks in such a manner as to make it doubtful whether they are really ignorant of the elementary principles of finance, or are only trying to please benighted constituents. On the other hand, a number of Senators have engaged in the debate in the spirit in which such debates should be carried on. They have regarded the question before the Senate as relating to the manner in which taxation should be imposed with the best fiscal results and with the least inconvenience to the people, and have not considered it wise to adopt measures of doubtful policy and constitutionality at a time when money is wanted immediately to pay the cost of war. The result of this calm and statesmanlike discussion is apparent in the decisive vote by which the proposed tax of one-quarter of 1 per cent. on the gross receipts of corporations was rejected.

Mr. Allen, the Populist Senator from Nebraska, said in the debate last week on the war-revenue bill: "We shall be guilty of cowardice, inexcusable cowardice, if we transmit to another generation an enormous debt. The people desire to pay as they go, if possible, and it is easily possible to do so now." The question arises, What is meant by transmitting a debt to another generation? The usual term of a generation is thirty-three years. The civil war left us with a bonded debt of $2,381,000,000, of which about $800,000,000 was extra and unnecessary cost due to the use of irredeemable paper money. It was all paid off and extinguished except $650,000,000 within twenty-five years. The whole would have been paid within the period of that generation but for unnecessary changes in our revenue laws, and the introduction of "blatherskite," like that of Senator Allen, into our financial system. Not a dollar of the great civil-war debt would have been transmitted to the next generation if things had been allowed to take their natural course, and if free coinage of silver had not been forced like a hell-broth to boil and bubble in our national politics. Now Mr. Allen (and he is only parroting the lingo of the Democratic caucus) deprecates the transmission of the present war debt to the next generation. It is true that the end of the present war is not yet in sight. It may possibly last two years, but the scale of expenditure must be much less than that of the civil-war period. It is safe to say that five years, under any respectable system of finance, would suffice to wipe out all the debt that the war can bring, and also much of that which existed before. Pile on the taxes. There is no objection to that. The nearer you can come to the policy of "pay as you go," the better. What we insist upon is that the Treasury shall be provided with the means of paying as *it* goes—of meeting its demand obligations as they arise, and not be driven to a suspension of specie payments before the new taxes become productive.

The present talk about an alliance with Great Britain grows out of two things, viz., our war with Spain and the recent seizure of Chinese ports by Germany and Russia. Do either or both of these events furnish a reason for an alliance in the technical sense with Great Britain? We see no such reason. Surely we do not need the assistance of anybody in a war with Spain. We have nearly five times the population of Spain and ten times the wealth, and although it may take us longer to get ready for war than we had anticipated, we should be ashamed to admit that we needed help from any other nation. As regards the Philippine Islands, we shall be better off without them than with them as a permanent possession. Hence we need no help from Great Britain in that quarter in any event. As regards the Chinese ports, the policy of the Powers which have secured a lodgment on the coast is not yet fully developed, and it would be the extreme of folly for us to assume that it is inimical to us before that fact is assured; and even if it were so, it is by no means evident that it would be wise for Great Britain or the United States to make their attitude a *casus belli*. Indeed, if an alliance of the kind proposed were likely to drag us into a war on the other side of the Pacific Ocean, that would be the best possible reason for abstaining from it. Moreover, the union of hearts would accomplish all that a union of hands could do in this quarter as elsewhere.

The "Anglo-American alliance" is made the subject of some adverse criticism by Mr. Goldwin Smith. According to the newspaper report, he comments on the fact that while there are some sixty millions of Anglo-Saxons in the United Kingdom and the United States, there are as many Celts, Germans, Jews, negroes, and other people of miscellaneous origin having much diversity of ideas and tendencies. It may be urged in reply to this that the unifying influence of institutions and language is more powerful than these disintegrating forces, but it is not so easy to answer Mr. Smith's question as to what would be the commercial basis of an alliance between protectionist United States and free-trade Britain. So, too, the nature of our government is unfavorable to foreign alliances. With our system of Presidential elections there can be little continuity of policy, or at least little dependence could be placed by a foreign Power on much continuity. Such a Power as Great Britain could not change her policy to suit the mutations of American politics, and in Mr. Smith's opinion the talk of an Anglo-American alliance by Mr. Chamberlain will come to no more than his talk about imperial federation—a theme which has been under discussion for thirty years without gaining much ground.

Even the Morgans and the Lodges have felt constrained to suspend abuse of England, in view of the present popularity of harmonious relations with the British nation. But it seems to be necessary that we should have some foreign country for our statesmen to "pitch into," and Japan has succeeded to the place so long occupied by England. As it is both ridiculous and impolitic to charge the British Government with a purpose to seize Hawaii if we do not, the accusation is now brought against Japan. When the Senate committee on foreign relations made its report favoring the passage of the bill for annexation, the asserted desire of the Japanese to seize and annex Hawaii was made part of the argument, and language was used that looked as if there were an American desire to affront Japan. The House committee on foreign affairs has also made a report in which a similar tone of offence towards Japan is employed, apparently in order to provoke a desire to take for the United States something which is alleged to be desired by Japan. In both reports the declaration is explicitly made that, unless the United States annex Hawaii at once, Japan will gain control of the islands by encouraging a constant inflow of Japanese subjects trained as soldiers and assured of Government support. It is further asserted that Hawaii prevented the colonization of the islands by Japan only by refusing to permit more of her subjects to come to Hawaii as agricultural laborers.

These extraordinary accusations against a friendly nation have called forth a forcible reply from Japan. The charge that Japan contemplates the seizure of the islands, or their colonization with a view to securing overwhelming influence, is denied. All that Japan has done is to complain, as it has a perfect right to do, that treaty stipulations with Hawaii regarding the importation of agricultural laborers have been violated by the Government of the islands, and to insist that it has a claim against Hawaii for damages, which it trusts will be attended to by the United States in case of annexation. It is admitted that the question of annexation is one which concerns only the United States and Hawaii, and it is declared that the only immediate interest which the Japanese Government has in the question whether annexation shall take place now or at some future date, is connected with her claims against Hawaii. The statement of Japan's position closes with this cutting but justifiable appeal for fair play:

> "Apart from this, Japan's attitude is one of friendly concern merely, and both her Government and her people await the result without apprehension that it will bring with it any disagreeable consequences for them. This being so—and impartial investigation will prove that it is so—it would seem to be no more than simple justice that Japan's name should be omitted from the discussion of annexation, or, if it must be used, that its mention should not be coupled with an imputation of bad faith and double dealing."

The speech of Gen. Woodford at the reception given to him in Brooklyn on Thursday evening was in excellent taste, furnishing a marked contrast to outgivings of his predecessor in office when he returned from Madrid. Gen. Woodford said not a harsh word about the government to which he was accredited. He said nothing which could make him *persona non grata* at the Spanish court after a cessation of hostilities. He is still our Minister to Spain, although circum-

stances have interrupted the exercise of his functions. It is to be hoped that he may have the opportunity to return to his post, in which event he will have the respect of the European as well as of the American public. This he has earned by his untiring efforts to preserve peace while peace was possible, and also by refraining from using any words which might unnecessarily prolong the war. He said that he considered it desirable that Cuba should be free. He did not say that he considered it desirable that Spain should be humiliated or harmed in other respects. In refraining from the use of harsh language he made himself the type of the best support that the President now has in prosecuting the war. His allusion to the union of the North and the South as an incident of the present war was very happy, coming as it did from one who had borne arms in the civil war.

The first reciprocity agreement under the terms of the Dingley bill was concluded in Washington on Monday between the United States and France. As an evidence of general friendliness, and as a movement, even a trifling one, in the direction of saner customs taxation, the agreement is to be welcomed; but its practical effect cannot be great. The truth is, both countries had put up their taxes on each other's products to an enormous figure. After eight months of chaffering they have agreed to knock off a certain per cent. from the provisional duties, though the rates remain outrageously high. American lard, for example, is to pay $5 the 220 pounds, and pork $10. Canned meats will get off with $3 the hundred kilos. Fruits and woods will be taxed at varying rates, which seem low only in comparison with the dizzy figures of the maximum tariff from which they had been suffering. In return, France is to have her brandy admitted at $1.75 the gallon instead of $2.25, still wines at 35 cents instead of 40 and 50, and paintings and statuary at 15 per cent. ad valorem instead of 20. This art tax, after the experiment with free art in the Wilson bill, was a distinct return to barbarism. For the sake of reciprocity and to oblige France we now consent to cut off one-quarter of it, posing gracefully as three-quarters barbarian. We still cling to moccasins and blanket, and chew betelnuts as before, but proudly point to the fact that we have washed the vermilion off our faces. But the process of cleaning up and civilizing is a dangerous one for savages to enter upon, and if this French beginning is followed up, we may yet see the Dingleyites arrayed in full Parisian garb.

Mr. Wanamaker has concluded his canvass against the control of the Republican State convention in Pennsylvania this week by Quay. He has delivered sixty-seven speeches, and they have been really sixty-seven speeches—not the same speech given sixty-seven times. They have constituted the most remarkable revelation of machine methods ever known in the history of our politics. Most indictments of bosses have been framed by Independents, who had never known anything by experience of the inside management of parties, and who consequently were open to the charge of talking about things regarding which they were not informed. But Mr. Wanamaker was no Mugwump; on the contrary, he boasted at the outset that he had never "scratched" the Republican ticket during all this long period when the Quay despotism was built up and corruption became the rule of the State. Nor was he a "doctrinaire," coming out of his closet with mere theories. On the contrary, he had long been the most liberal contributor to Republican campaign funds in Pennsylvania, and everybody understood that he "knew what he was talking about." Mr. Wanamaker's canvass will not have been fruitless if the boss shall have his way in the convention. The exposures of Quay rule which the ex-Postmaster-General has made must render impossible the election of any man who is the mere tool of the Senator, and swell to great dimensions the vote for the Rev. Dr. Swallow, the "honest-government" candidate. All that Dr. Swallow needs to establish the severest charges which he brings against Quay is to quote the proofs already submitted by Mr. Wanamaker.

It is extremely edifying to learn from Platt, Tracy and Company that the complete control of the police force by Tammany puts the election this year and also the Presidential election of 1900 in the hands of Croker. Was not this pointed out last year as one of the consequences of running Tracy for the mayoralty? Was it not pointed out before that time, when the new charter was under consideration, as one of the consequences of consolidation? Over and over again, not only in the newspapers, but even in the Platt Legislature by Platt men, it was predicted that the creation of a Greater New York meant the creation of a great Tammany city, with enormous patronage, and with supreme power over election machinery, till after the next Presidential election. But Platt and Tracy refused to pay any heed to these warnings, for reasons of their own. They would not consent last year to have the new city put into the hands of honest men till after the Presidential election. Why? Because they thought they could get more for the "organization" from Tammany than they could from Seth Low. They are reaping what they themselves sowed; and the more noise they make about it, the more clearly will they make it appear that they are among the worst enemies the city has ever had.

The action of the Presbyterian General Assembly in the McGiffert heresy case goes far to confirm the view of those who held that the denomination was so exhausted by the Briggs trial that it would be long before another like it would be seen. With a calm renunciation of the duty of enforcing discipline, the Assembly turns over the whole matter to Prof. McGiffert, begging him, if he cannot "reconsider" his views (recant, they used to call it), to withdraw from the church in peace. This is very likely not the end of the affair, but it is sufficiently remarkable as it stands. The Assembly seems tacitly to have acquiesced in the bold utterances of a Western Presbyterian clergyman of prominence, who lately declared that it was impossible for the denomination to expel men for holding opinions like those of Prof. Briggs. The implication is that there are too many of them in the Presbyterian Church to make their trial for heresy expedient while other churches stand ready to welcome them with open arms. As for Prof. McGiffert, he had before announced that his opinions had been maturely formed, and that he would not go out unless put out.

It is almost a year since the war between Greece and Turkey, but the Turkish troops are only now beginning to evacuate Thessaly. The delay has been due to the difficulties attending the Greek loan to pay off the Turkish indemnity. By the treaty of peace, evacuation was to begin one month after the loan was issued. Under the circumstances, this loan had to have an international guarantee, and the obstacles in the way of getting the Powers to act in harmony on any subject were doubled when the subject was a financial one. England offered to float the whole loan in the open London market, but this did not suit Russia and France at all. Their citizens must have a share of the pickings. The bonds must be allotted between the three countries, and subscriptions made on a fixed basis. This brought up the troublesome question of exchange, and the Russians and French insisted upon a certain arbitrary rate, slightly different from the actual quotations in Paris and St. Petersburg. After some expostulation and grumbling, England conceded this, with the result that London bankers have had to pay an appreciable per cent. more for their Greek securities than did their French and Russian confrères. But the Turks are actually picking up their traps and leaving Thessaly, and this is a relief well worth purchasing at a slight discrimination against London, so Mr. Curzon and Sir Michael Hicks-Beach say.

AGGRANDIZEMENT OR HONOR.

There are many signs that the policy of retaining whatever territory we may occupy in the war with Spain will soon become a political issue. Such a policy has been, of course, advocated from the beginning by a certain element, but the mere fact that it has been supported by a number of newspapers and Congressmen is not in itself alarming. What is significant is that speakers and writers who a few weeks ago dwelt on the purity and unselfishness of our motives in attacking Spain, and repudiated all thought of grasping the possessions of a weaker people for our own use, are now silent upon these aspects of the case. They now begin to consider how we can administer the government of the Philippine Islands, and intimate that Porto Rico would serve as security for the payment of an indemnity by the Spaniards. It is reported from Washington that the authorities now feel that the Cubans have so little capacity for self-government as to make it necessary for our forces to occupy their island for a considerable period. One correspondent declares that the belief is becoming prevalent that the inhabitants of the Spanish islands that will fall into our hands will not be able to maintain governments of their own "in less than a generation." It is hardly necessary to say that the retention of conquests for a generation is not likely to be followed by their abandonment.

But while it may be easier to hold on to what we conquer than to let it go, and while the pressure in favor of this course will be tremendous, if we are to regard our honor we have no choice in the matter. The very best and soundest elements in the country were brought to the support of the war wholly through appeals to their humanity. They came to believe, many of them very reluctantly, that to expel the Spaniards from Cuba was an act of mercy, and was a sacred duty imposed upon us by Providence. They felt, as the God-fearing people of the Northern States felt concerning the negroes during the civil war, that the Almighty commanded the liberation of an oppressed people even at the cost of bloodshed, and the suggestion that a profit was to be made out of the transaction would have seemed to them little short of blasphemy. The Southerners felt in 1861, as the Spaniards do now, that the war was an attempt to take away their property, but that result was in the eyes of the people of the North purely incidental. Unless the clergy and other representatives of the most upright public opinion throughout the land have been outrageously insincere in their recent utterances, the expectation of turning the Spanish revenues into our own pockets did not so much as occur to them. Nor is it too much to say that had it not been for the attitude of this element in the community, the sensational press would hardly have been able to hurry the Government into premature hostilities. In that sense the religious people of the country are largely responsible for the conduct of the war. Their consent made the war possible, and they are entitled to insist that it shall be carried on for the righteous ends for which it was declared.

To the attainment of these lofty and unselfish ends, and these alone, we are most overwhelmingly committed. The President declared in his message last December, in words that have the clear ring of sincerity, that forcible annexation was not to be thought of; that by our code of morality it would be criminal aggression. The joint resolution of Congress was adopted with practical unanimity, and it is worth while to repeat the words of its explicit disclaimer:

> "The United States hereby disclaims any disposition or intention to exercise sovereignty, jurisdiction, or control over said island, except for the pacification thereof, and asserts its determination, when that is accomplished, to leave the government and control of the island to its people."

It is true that this self-denying ordinance does not constitute a rule of international law. We are at war with Spain, and no other Power has any legal right to call us to account for the disposition which we may make of conquered territory. But it was a voluntary proclamation to the nations of the world that our motives in engaging in the war were unselfish. If we proceed to appropriate the Spanish possessions, we shall have lied to humanity. We were not required to assert the disinterested character of our motives, but, having done so, honor commands that they shall remain disinterested. It will be idle to maintain that changed circumstances have relieved us of a moral obligation. He that sweareth to his own hurt and changeth can make no claim to honor; nor in fact have the circumstances changed. The course of the war has been just such as was foretold by intelligent observers, and the character of the inhabitants of the Spanish colonies has in no respect been altered. Doubtless many foreign spectators cynically predict annexation by the United States. That is because they believed we were lying when we declared that nothing was further from our intention. Shall we confess that they were right in this belief?

But it is the people of this country who supported the war on purely humanitarian grounds that should most indignantly protest against its being made a war of conquest. They are in the position of men who have set forth on what was advertised as a life-saving enterprise, and suddenly find that a number of their companions are determined to convert it into a piratical voyage. It is high time for these people to awake to the responsibility which they have assumed. They have let the fire be kindled, and it is theirs to see that it does not spread. If they can hold the Government to its professions, we shall in a novel and glorious way secure peace with honor. For a nation to keep its pledged faith may not seem anything to boast of, but in this case it will be, as things go in this world, a splendid achievement. Few more honorable deeds will have been recorded in history. But if we break our faith, shame and dishonor are inevitable. No professions that we may hereafter make, however solemn, will be listened to except with contemptuous incredulity. If there ever is a time to prove that righteousness exalteth a nation, it is now. If territorial aggrandizement ever involves national dishonor, it is when such professions as we have made are repudiated.

THE NEW GREENBACK DIVERSION.

A correspondent writing to us from Burlington, Iowa, draws attention to the recent speech of Senator Turpie on the war-revenue bill. Our correspondent is a Democrat, but he does not approve of Mr. Turpie's position on the currency question, which is that of a Greenbacker, pure and simple. "The proposed issue of legal-tender notes," said Mr. Turpie, "is itself alone, of all means of borrowing, the most patriotic and the least expensive to the taxpayer. It is a loan, a voluntary loan, without interest, by the people to the Government, of $150,000,000 during the next fiscal year, for an indefinite period, determinable by the incident of redemption or retirement."

There is perhaps more "politics" in this speech than appears upon the surface. It was made very plain by the movements of Mr. Bland in the House that the leaders of the Democratic party are planning a change of the financial issue from silver to greenbacks. There is evidence also, to a discerning eye, that if silver cuts any considerable figure in the next national platform of the party, it will not be in the rigid form of unlimited coinage at 16 to 1, but rather in the shape of bimetallism at some indeterminate ratio—that is, if the leaders of the party in Congress can control the convention. They want to make a platform upon which all Democrats in New York, and in the East generally, can unite, and they know that this can never be done on the platform of 16 to 1. It is necessary, however, to hold together the great army of opponents of Trusts and monopolies, who voted for Bryan and free silver because they considered them the most nauseous possible dose to the "money power." What is more likely to satisfy these people than a proposal to issue greenbacks to pay the expenses of the present war? Coupling this with a proposal to "coin the seigniorage" gives the color of silver to the whole scheme, and the color is all that is necessary for popular consumption. But, in fact, coin-

ing the seigniorage is only another name for issuing greenbacks. It bears no more resemblance to free coinage of silver than it does to three-card monte. To discerning minds, however, greenbacks are to be preferred because they are redeemable at 100 cents to the dollar, while silver, under the terms of free coinage, is redeemable only in itself, which may be fifty cents per dollar, more or less.

Senator Turpie's speech in favor of greenbacks as a method of financing the present war is perhaps a part of the scheme to reunite the Democrats in the next Presidential campaign by modifying the silver issue and laying Mr. Bryan on the shelf. The question whether the party will accept greenbacks in place of silver, and whether the Gold Democrats will come back to their allegiance when the platform of 16 to 1 is abandoned, is, however, more than doubtful. The questions presented are extremely subtle. The proposition to issue greenbacks for war expenses is not coupled with any suggestion that specie payments be suspended. Nor is it accompanied by any means for maintaining redemption. The tendency of fresh issues of greenbacks to cause a suspension is obvious, but the law requires that redemption in gold shall continue, and nobody has been bold enough to propose a change of policy in that regard. The present Secretary of the Treasury has the same power to replenish his coffers that Secretary Carlisle exercised. The coin-purchase act is still in full force. Nobody has proposed to repeal it, and we may be sure that Secretary Gage will exercise his powers under it if other measures shall fail. That act is not the best possible means of administering the finances of a war. It is awkward, roundabout, and expensive. It tends to produce temporary panics, and it causes the Government to pay higher rates of interest than are necessary. Congressmen who are making plans for a political campaign are indifferent whether the Government pays 3 per cent. or 5 or 10. What concerns them is not the rate of interest actually paid, but the rate apparently paid. If it can be made to appear that greenbacks are a cheap method of carrying on the war, because they draw no interest, and if the operation by which the Treasury redeems them can either be obscured, or treated as reprehensible (as was the case during the Cleveland administration), then the fact that they are the most expensive means of obtaining money either in peace or war will give the Democratic politicians no concern.

Senator Turpie's plan received a severe rebuff from Senator Lindsay of Kentucky, who made it sufficiently plain that the Gold Democrats are not to be attracted to one scheme of depreciated currency by the withdrawal of another. He showed that the greenback currency issued during the civil war was the most expensive form of debt incurred by the Government, since it led to an inflation of prices by which the cost of the war was swollen unnecessarily by hundreds of millions of dollars. He showed that the issue of new greenbacks would be a temptation to speculators to "raid the Treasury," which they would avail themselves of as long as the fresh supplies lasted, or until the Government was compelled to suspend. Asked by Senator Tillman what would happen if the war should continue two or three years and if European Powers should become engaged in it, he replied:

> "The war will not go on for two or three years, unless we break down our credit at the outset of the war, and that I am opposed to doing. We shall sell bonds and get money for them. Our credit will be as good as gold, and we shall pay our debts in gold, and at the end of the war we shall have conducted it on the very cheapest possible basis. We may become involved with continental Powers, and the time may come when we cannot go further on a coin basis, either gold or silver, and when we shall be compelled to come to the issue of greenbacks. When that time comes we shall do it. Whatever necessity demands will be done. It will be done without complaint. And those who are alive at the end of the war will be charged up with the debt. But we cannot promote that state of affairs. We cannot discredit ourselves at the very outset by resorting to a currency which is in the nature of a forced loan by issuing notes payable on demand, and putting no money in the Treasury to pay them when demanded.

Senator Lindsay here gave admirable expression to the views of the Gold Democrats and of the great body of Independents who cast their votes for McKinley in the last campaign. They are not to be seduced from the principles of sound money by a mere change from free coinage of silver to free issues of greenbacks, with undefined and haphazard means of redemption.

THE FARMER AND THE WHEAT CROP.

During the four or five weeks ending with the month of June, this country's commercial fortunes for the coming season are staked very largely on the weather in the wheat-belt. As a general rule, at least two-thirds of the annual wheat production of the United States consists in the so-called "winter crop," which is planted in the Middle and Southern grain-producing States during the autumn, and is harvested, ordinarily, about the close of June.

It is hardly essential to point out the enormous influence which will be exerted, in many directions, according as the crop of 1898 is great or small. It is only necessary to recall the profound influence which the grain market situation of 1897 and 1896 has already had on our interior trade and foreign commerce. The still more remarkable episode of 1879 and 1880 is another proof that like causes may be relied upon to produce like results. That the extraordinarily urgent export demand for wheat—which in the past ten months has drawn from our home supplies fifty million bushels more than were taken in the same period a year ago—will be repeated for another season, is hardly to be expected. It was made possible this season only by the remarkable coincidence of drought in India and Australia, wholesale destruction by insect pests in Argentina, a wet harvest in France, and an actual inundation of the wheatfields of Austria and Hungary, almost at the moment when the grain was ready for the sickle. But although actual famine conditions need not be again expected, there is good reason to look for a steady export market at prices highly remunerative to the farmer. This was the experience of 1880, after the famous European harvest failure of the year before. The grain-growing world produced in 1880 at least 200,000,000 bushels more of wheat than it had produced in 1879, and of this increase 49,000,000 bushels was contributed through an increased yield in the United States. Yet the average American price for wheat in 1880 was only moderately below the average of the year preceding, and the total exports from our 1880 crop actually increased several million bushels.

Recent estimates of the condition and acreage of the growing wheat crop have been extremely favorable. That the area planted should have been greatly increased, when the winter wheat was sown with the market price at a dollar a bushel, and the spring wheat during a market range of $1.25, is certainly not surprising. The Agricultural Department's recent estimate of planted acreage is interpreted by the experts to mean a total increase in the area of no less than 10 per cent. The high prices of 1879 were followed by an increase, on the Government's estimate, of 14 per cent. in the acreage of the ensuing year, so that this preliminary estimate for 1898 is at all events not excessive. The further reckoning of the optimists that, with present conditions maintained up to the harvest, a total American crop might be expected of 700,000,000 bushels, against an estimated 580,000,000 in 1897 and the maximum of 680,000,000 (commercial estimate) in 1891, is interesting, though hardly yet a matter on which to base positive expectations. The season's weather conditions are yet to be defined. But the essential point is that the situation is such as probably to warrant confidence in a profitable market even for a heavy crop—something which our farmers failed to witness in the long and trying period from 1889 to 1897.

With such possibilities in mind, it is natural that the calling of grain-production should at present be discussed in a very different tone from that to which we have recently been accustomed. Nothing would convince the farmer and his advocates in legislation, during the time when all the world was raising wheat and was fortunate in its harvests, that

the low price of his staple was not due to other than agricultural causes. He linked the decline in wheat with the decline in silver, and shut his eyes resolutely even to market movements in which the price of the metal and the price of the cereal moved in exactly opposite directions. In particular, he declared—and in this argument there was more plausibility than in any other—that the population of the grain-consuming world was growing rapidly, and that, therefore, demand for wheat must have increased so far as to prevent a decline in price unless under other economic causes.

The experience of the past year is of the utmost value in disposing of this argument. Of course, the grain-consuming population of the world has been continuously increasing; but so also has the annual food product of the world. It is quite impossible that both should increase in equal ratio, nor indeed is it possible to determine with any close approach to accuracy the ratio in which either is increasing. But there is one test which, when applied with reasonable caution, is infallible. The wheat trade keeps itself well advised of the amount of grain in storehouse at the principal markets of the world. If these unsold supplies increase with great rapidity, at a time when every grain-producer and grain-dealer is trying to force a market, the conclusion may safely be reached that the year's output of wheat has exceeded the needs of the year's consumers. When this happens, new consumers must be sought at a lower range of prices, and this is exactly what occurred between April, 1892, and April, 1894, when the world's "visible supply" of wheat, already much above the average, increased no less than forty million bushels. The price of wheat on the American farm fell to 49 cents a bushel, and the planted area of wheat was reduced throughout the world. But on top of this reduction in the acreage came two seasons of disastrous harvest weather. The stock of wheat in granary at the world's open markets, by the same trade estimates, has fallen no less than 83,000,000 bushels between the spring of 1894 and the spring of 1898. In short, the world's grain product, which beyond any reasonable question had been increasing, up to 1895, far more rapidly than the increase in bread-eating population, has now decreased sufficiently to allow the equilibrium to be more than restored.

The periodical hardship and discontent of the average farmer, from which for a season he has now emerged, may, in our judgment, be directly traced to two peculiarities in his habit of managing and forecasting his business. He is very apt to consider his own country as the only market which fixes the price for his crop of wheat; therefore, he often does not perceive that an exceptionally heavy foreign crop, competing with ours in the export market, works surely in the direction of lower prices, whatever be the domestic crop conditions. In the second place, he has usually no other disposition to make of the profits of a season of high prices than to buy more land and plant more grain. But with upwards of four million separate farms in the United States, it may be readily imagined what results might be expected if the entire body of men engaged in such an industry were to engage even moderately in a policy of expansion. The result is apt to be not only that the average price of the farmer's product falls abruptly in the next few years, but that he has nothing to show for his earnings of the profitable year except some increased acreage which he thinks he is farming at a loss.

These tendencies are so deeply rooted in the agricultural mind, not only here but throughout the world, and not only now but throughout the history of farming, that it would be too much to hope that a more intelligent system might prevail. The American farmer is, however, now for the most part out of debt; he and his creditors both learned the lesson of farm extension on 8 per cent. mortgages, and in that regard, at any rate, both will be wiser in the future. As for the actual results of 1897 and 1898, the wheat-farmer has probably done the most profitable business of any industry in the country. In his way, he is rich, and for the present rich in money. As the official returns have clearly proved, he is making liberal use even of the detested bank-deposit system. We can see very little opening, in such a situation, for Mr. Bryan or Senator Allen.

WAR AS A LITERARY STIMULUS.

The effect of the war upon the publishing business has been much discussed, though with no conspicuous agreement as to what the facts are, much less their explanation. If the book trade is alleged to be dull, the rejoinder is made that it is always dull at this time of year. About mere degrees of dulness it is impossible to debate entertainingly. Behind this question of printing and selling books is the question of producing and reading them. How does the war affect writers? How does it influence readers?

Here again the trumpet of the literary periodicals gives forth an uncertain sound. The *Library Journal* reports an immediate and general effect of the war upon the patronage of libraries. One librarian writes that his April circulation was the lowest ever recorded—"people are so busy reading 'extras' they have no time for books." Another reports: "The war is killing library circulation—we cannot begin to supply the demand for books on Spain and Cuba, and people simply won't have anything else." But the London *Academy* contends that, while "war multiplies newspaper readers," it "does not subtract from book readers." Newspapers are bought, but are quickly thrown aside. Are books found strewn over the floors of trains? The fair inference is, the *Academy* gives us to understand, that books are not displaced by newspapers even in the excitement of war news.

The reader makes the publisher, but it is the writer who makes the reader. Is war a deterrent to literary activity? Sir Walter Besant contends that it is not. He asserts for war as great an "awakening influence" upon the literary character as our war-for-war's-sake party claims for it upon the civic and moral character. His argument appears to be something like this: Literary genius is at its best when aroused; war arouses, therefore war is best for literary genius. To clinch this conclusion with historical illustrations, he points to the fact that it was in the war-vexed years 1793-1814 that Wordsworth, Coleridge, Lamb, Byron, Scott, Landor, and Shelley enriched our literature. In the early thirties, on the contrary, a period of profound peace, English letters were at the lowest ebb. Q. E. D.

The demonstration lacks something of being perfect, however. There is authority as good as Sir Walter's for asserting that genius is most creative in quiet. And the specific arousing effect of war upon Shelley, Wordsworth, and the others is far from being made out. Their age was one in which men were born accustomed to war. England had not known a settled peace for half a century. War had, in fact, taken its place as an expected and natural condition, and thereby must have lost its especial stimulating power, if it ever had any. Moreover, one *ad-hominem* argument remains of which Sir Walter should be the last man to deny the deadly force. Granting that the war made Shelley and Wordsworth great poets, it left them unappreciated, unsold poets. Their works were for years a drug on the market. It might have been worse if there had been no war, but war did not at any rate save them. It cannot be described now as the sure road to literary success. Sir Walter's Authors' Society might have put money in the pockets of Lamb and Coleridge, but war certainly did not. We hope he is not prepared to divide the honors of authorship between war and his Society.

The simple truth about this whole subject appears to be that we must discriminate between one war and another. It cannot be denied that war has been in the past, and may be again, a means of stirring the national consciousness, and of stimulating men to all kinds of high and heroic activities, literary activities among them. A war of defence, a war of liberation, may well bring Tyrtæan

strains from lyres that otherwise would have been mute. But that a war may also cause the muse, whether of poetry or history, to walk backward with averted gaze, we know in our own history. Perhaps the two literary monuments of the Mexican war which will be longest read are the 'Biglow Papers' and Gen. Grant's Memoirs; in the former a poet wrote as a spectator what in the latter a soldier wrote as an actor, that the war was an unjust act of aggression. No lack of ephemeral self-sure verse and dithyrambic prose was felt at the time of the Mexican war, any more than there is in the present war; but such rockets soon fall to be kicked about the gutters.

That our literary sense may be greatly stimulated before we get through is surely possible. Our poets may mature with the war. But we should not expect the benefit to be confined to one only of the belligerents. Spain has a literary tradition that casts ours into the shade; she has a large body of respectable contemporary writers. They should certainly feel the quickening and fructifying influence of war, if Sir Walter Besant is right. But Señora Emilia Pardo Bazán, speaking for them in the last number of the *Revue des Revues*, says that the war has brought them to a kind of sterile despair. "When a nation finds itself at the edge of a precipice," she writes, "it is forced to withdraw its attention from its writers. Letters require a tranquil spirit." We are bound to believe that the Spaniard, tasting the bitterness of war, is nearer the truth than the Englishman, knowing it only as a spectacle.

WHALEN AND THE CIVIL-SERVICE LAWS.

About a fortnight ago Mr. Croker's wonderful Corporation Counsel assembled himself as a court of last resort to consider the civil-service laws of the State and their bearing upon the municipal Civil-Service Commission. The result of his deliberations was an "opinion" which declared unconstitutional the act passed by the last Legislature so amending the civil-service laws as to require each city of the State to submit its civil-service regulations to the State Civil-Service Commission for approval. The learned Whalen, without a moment's hesitation, set the law aside, and informed the municipal Commissioners that they could go ahead in their own way and fill the city service with good Tammany material without paying the slightest attention to this law's provisions. In doing this he passed upon all existing civil-service laws, the State Constitution, the new city charter, and the intent of the Legislature, with various other incidental points, settling all of them offhand, apparently for all time. "It is my opinion," he declared, "that it is your duty to proceed with the administration of the matters confided to you as if the statute had not been passed. And, of course, the consequence follows that you have no duties as regards the State board, and need not submit to that body your rules and regulations."

Instead of acquiescing in this "opinion," the Civil-Service Reform Association, through its Secretary, Mr. George McAneny, has sent to the Comptroller an elaborate protest, in which the learned Whalen's contentions are not merely disputed, but completely upset by citations from decisions by the courts. He is, in fact, left without a leg to stand upon, and notice is served upon the Comptroller that if he pays the salaries of city employees who may be appointed in the manner in which Whalen says they may be, any taxpayer can bring an action which will result in the recovery of the money thus paid from the Comptroller personally, or from the sureties of his official bond. The points of Mr. McAneny's communication can be summed up briefly. The law which Whalen declared to be unconstitutional was passed last spring, and, as we have said, it applies to "each city of the State." In order to get rid of it, Whalen held: (1) That although the statute is drawn in general terms, it contains certain provisions that would have a special or local effect if applied to the city of New York, and that for this reason it must be considered a special act; (2) that, being in part special, and having failed to receive the approval of the Mayor of New York in the manner prescribed by the Constitution, the act, in its entirety, has no application in the city of New York; and (3) that, even though it were constitutional in all its parts, the city would be excluded from its operation for the reason that the charter provisions relating to the civil service form a special statutory system differing radically from the general State system, and are secure from any change by any other method than direct charter amendment. Mr. McAneny takes these points up separately, and with an overwhelming mass of judicial decisions shows that Whalen either did not have the most rudimentary knowledge of his subject, or deliberately ignored the unbroken record of the courts against his contentions. He even shows that a decision which Whalen quoted in his own support is obviously in direct antagonism to his position. In fact, the case is virtually closed against Whalen by Mr. McAneny when he quotes the Constitution's definition of special city (as distinguished from general) laws, "those which relate to a single city, or to less than all the cities of a class."

There has never been any doubt that the act of 1898 was a general law and was also in entire harmony with the State Constitution and with the new charter. Mr. McAneny makes this plain with a painstaking array of evidence which should have its effect upon even Whalen. He shows that from the outset the regulation of the civil service in New York has been considered a State function; that the new Constitution has a provision which was put into it for the express purpose of securing a general and uniform system of State control; and that the act of 1898 was conceived and made law with the avowed intent of establishing this system. As for Whalen's childish contention that the new law does not apply to this city because it was not submitted to the Mayor for approval, that is, as Mr. McAneny says, "a novel one." It is Whalen's invention, and as such can scarcely outweigh the constitutional provisions on the subject.

In regard to the sections of the new charter, Mr. McAneny shows that these, instead of providing, as Whalen claims, a system "differing sharply in many respects from the State civil-service system," were drawn by the Charter Commission, as its members themselves declared, "on the lines of the present law." The law referred to was that of 1883, or the only general State law in existence at that time. The only subsequent law which was inconsistent with this statute was the Black "starchless" act of 1897, which the new act of 1898 has repealed so far as it applies to cities. The charter provisions did not supersede or antagonize the general law, but supplemented it. One of the most amusing of Whalen's contentions was that the law violated the sacred "home-rule" principle. This is well disposed of by Mr. McAneny as follows:

> "At the time the Constitution was adopted, the civil-service rules in every city of the State were subject to the approval of the central State authority, and remained so subject for three years. The framers of the amendments could not possibly have designed a change in this relation. On the other hand, they sought to strengthen and guarantee it. It would be as well to talk of 'home rule' in the conduct of elections, or of primaries, or excise control. The local interests of the city are fully protected. The present act does not, as the Corporation Counsel states, 'remit to the discretion of the State Civil-Service Commission the power of prescribing to the Municipal Civil-Service Commission rules and regulations.' It is for the local authorities still to prescribe, and it is the sole power of the State commission to approve or disapprove. There is an obvious propriety in giving to a commission which has the broad power of investigation conferred by sections 15 and 16 of the act of 1883 this complementary right and duty. Their function in this regard is to secure uniformity and proper compliance with the constitutional and statutory provisions; nothing more."

There is no escape for the Tammany government. It must obey the law, and must consent to have the municipal service regulated and controlled in accordance with the provisions of the law. If the local Croker Civil-Service Commission shall make rules and regulations which the State commission refuses to approve, it will be impossible to put them in operation, for the men appointed under them cannot be paid by the

city. It is hard luck, but it must be borne as patiently as possible. The Boys must grasp the fact that, able as Whalen is in the manufacture of "opinions," he is not the court of last resort, and he is not competent, therefore, to set aside the Constitution and the laws.

AN INTERNATIONAL ART EXHIBITION IN LONDON.

LONDON, May 19, 1898.

The severest blow the Royal Academy has yet received has been given it this spring. The evils of that institution have been proclaimed so often and so loud that one is as tired of hearing about them as about all the numerous other problems found impossible to solve. Various and many have been the endeavors to face and conquer them. There have been the active crusades, agitating for Royal Commissions and Parliamentary interference. There have been the new societies and galleries giving rival exhibitions, from the old Grosvenor, that, for a while, had at least the merit of being amusing, to the New English Art Club, that might work to better purpose were it less intolerant and prejudiced in its standards. The trouble is that, hitherto, if criticism has been plentiful, no practical effort has been made to improve upon Royal Academical methods. When the evils denounced come to be examined, they are found to relate chiefly to the annual exhibition. I do not suppose anybody really cares what the Academy does with the shillings collected at its door, or what social and pecuniary advantages are enjoyed by its members; and, anyway, these are matters which, so far, have been proved to be nobody's business. For, if the Academy is attacked as a private club, it pleads its responsibilities as a public institution; if its public character is impugned, it becomes at once a private society, and so evades its critics. But it is different with the yearly exhibition supposed to be the most important and representative in London, and the way this exhibition is managed has long been a scandal among artists. The best places reserved for the pictures of members no matter what their quality, the rooted objection to anything that savors of style or distinction in the work of outsiders, the rejection or contemptuous treatment of the most distinguished contributions, the honor accorded to mediocrity, the overcrowding of the walls, the atrocious hanging that seems almost deliberate—these are mistakes, you might say, easily avoided. But they characterize regularly every year the exhibition held by the Academy, that loves to cater to the popular dealer in commonplace, to an ignorant public, to publishers of the sentimental anecdote and colored supplement. The result is that most people believe it to be simply an impossibility in a country like England, which, they say complacently, is not artistic, to get together a collection truly representative of modern art. But now, without any preliminary advertisement or "booming," a society has quietly arisen to demonstrate by its first collection submitted to the public that the thing is quite possible even in London. No attack has been made upon the Academy, but the show is the most powerful argument ever brought to bear against it.

The new association is called the "International Society of Sculptors, Painters, and Gravers," and Mr. Whistler is President. The exhibition is given at the Prince's Skating Club, Knightsbridge, turned into a gallery for an interval, now the skating season is well over. Three large, spacious rooms have been arranged, the walls covered with canvas of a cool, neutral green, canopies screening or tempering the excellent top light, and the pictures, seldom more than two deep, hung with some feeling for symmetry and harmony, not by the perfunctory exhibition purveyor, but by artists for artists, the committee, which is very strong, having had the arrangement entirely in its own hands. Altogether, to enter the gallery seems like stepping into the Salon of the Champ de Mars, the London critics have been saying. But this is not quite true: at the new Salon you are overwhelmed by the size of the exhibition, you are oppressed by numbers. At Knightsbridge there are but three hundred and twenty-seven pictures, and the sculpture, the drawings, and the engravings are in proportion.

That the interest does not depend wholly upon the gallery and the light and the hanging, you see at a glance. In the Academy you must seek out the good work; here you have to hunt for the bad. I do not mean to say that all the three hundred and twenty-seven paintings, all the sculptures, all the drawings, all the engravings, are masterpieces. Art, "reticent of habit," is never so lavish in masterpieces. You would have to ransack the world's great national galleries to produce as many. But there are a few things of supreme importance, while the average is distinctly high, distinctly interesting. I think it was Baudelaire who used to say that a man without a temperament had no business to paint. In the paintings on the walls, if you cannot always discern a temperament, you are certainly conscious of the desire, the struggle to develop one. To the exhibitor, evidently, art is not the commercial commodity it is to Royal Academicians, but it has for aim the creation of beauty, the expression of personal emotion or feeling, even if the beauty has only been seen through other men's eyes, even if the emotion has been kindled at other men's fires. The original artist does not appear every day, and at Knightsbridge, as in Paris, or Munich, or New York, or anywhere else, there are dozens of students—intelligent and sympathetic, it may be—to the one great master. But to study the right thing in this day of cheap and vulgar ideals means much. Who would not rather have the Whistler-inspired portrait than the proverbial baby and mustard-pot?

It adds immensely to the value of the collection that three or four artists who have had the most influence for good on the present generation should be represented. For this reason, it is only as it should be that two pictures by Manet have been hung. He is no longer living, it is true, but he was one of the earliest of the artists we call modern to take up and carry on the old traditions in the right way, and his painting has been in a large measure the inspiration of modern art. The two shown are not his finest; they have not the stupendous vigor of his "Bon Bock" nor the flower-like beauty of color of his little impression of "Bull-Fighters." But the large "Vagabond Musicians" has its charm as a tribute to the power of Velasquez over a painter usually considered one of the most individual of the century; and never, to my knowledge, has the "Death of Maximilian" been told with such dramatic force. At the Durand-Ruel gallery in Paris, where I first saw it, the canvas was probably too large for the room, for it seemed brutal, unduly literal in its realism: the fine color, the tragic movement in the figures, the dazzling sunlight on the hillside beyond, the concentration of all these elements into one memorable scene or impression, were lost. Stronger still has been the influence of Mr. Whistler, and here is a wonderful series by him, from the first pictures, the exquisite "Valparaiso—Blue and Gold," the stately "Princesse du Pays de la Porcelaine," the rich, flowing "Piano Picture," the stately "Miss Rose Corder," of the early years, when to laugh at them was to be in the artistic fashion, to the work done to-day, when the critics who laughed must admire if they would escape from ridicule themselves. And very beautiful are these three new canvases: "Gold and Brown," "Blue and Coral," "Grey and Silver." Their titles show that Mr. Whistler still finds in loveliness, in rhythm of color, the true painter's poetry. The "Gold and Brown" is a portrait of himself—an admirable likeness for those who think a likeness of paramount importance in a portrait; elegant, distinguished, a delicious, low-toned harmony, as dignified as the little glimpse we have of Velasquez in his "Lances" or "Maids of Honor." Other contemporary influences are M. Degas and M. Monet, and on the wall opposite this wonderful series are the "Ballet-Dancers" of the one, a characteristic landscape of the other: pictures seen before in London, I believe, but not on that account any the less desirable and significant in the present collection.

I have said enough to explain that the Society is international not merely in name. Nor are the Frenchmen the only foreigners in the ascendancy, though there are besides M. Puvis de Chavannes, M. Besnard, M. Aman-Jean, who will no doubt make a still better showing next year, now they have learned that to send to London exhibitions is not necessarily to have their work rejected with scorn or skied with indifference. But artists of every other nationality have their places. There are the Dutchmen, Mesdag, Van Toroop, with his strange, fascinating mystical enigmas, so Oriental in drawing and sentiment, and, above all, Matthew Maris, whose little "Montmartre" holds you with a spell more potent than that worked by many a larger canvas. The mystery here is all in the evasive, lovely color scheme of the tragic brown landscape, with its sonorous notes of red where the grouped roofs take definite shape in the pervading gloom. It has the poetic elusiveness of all his work, but is not as vague and indefinite as some of his later pictures, in which it seems as if the painter's visions were too dreamy, too incoherent to be recorded in paint. There are also the Germans, Von Uhde and Liebermann, on the one hand; on the other, the secessionists, mystics, idealists, what you will, but, as they are here seen, comprehensible enough in the expresssion they find for their fancies: Franz Stück, whose serpent-entwined woman is a symbol for "Sin" that a child could understand; Hans Thoma, whose "Adam and Eve" is presented with a child-like straightforwardness borrowed from the Primitives. There are the Scandinavians—Zorn, strong even to coarseness; Thaulow, with his beautiful studies of water in movement and of moonlight, already exhibited at the new Salon. There are

the Italians, Segantini and Fragiacomo. There is one Belgian, Fernand Khnopff. And there are the Americans, Mr. Alexander, Mr. Truesdell, Mr. Lungren, and, most conspicuous among them, Miss Cecilia Beaux, whose first appearance in London has been a veritable triumph. Her portraits are a complete revelation to a public that had never yet as much as heard her name.

Whoever knows anything of London exhibitions must realize the stupendous novelty to the Londoner of one that represents so many different men and groups and countries. But to turn to the British artists is to be again confronted with novelty. You look in vain for the popular favorites, for the painters who monopolize the line at the Academy, who are bought by the Chantrey Bequest, who reveal their incompetency or commonplace in the good strong light of the Tate Gallery. It is Glasgow that is the dominating element—Glasgow, disdained at Burlington House, grudged a sufficient space in the other London galleries. The most striking portraits are by Mr. Guthrie, Mr. Lavery, Mr. Walton; the landscapes by Mr. Macgregor, Mr. Patterson, Mr. Stevenson; the decorative arrangements by Mr. Henry and Mr. Hornel. I am afraid I must admit that these Glasgow painters are not altogether fulfilling the promise they gave some years back. They have not progressed. They have not produced the genius who, one confidently expected, must spring from their ranks. Their pictures sometimes degenerate into a mere mosaic, or pattern, without light, without atmosphere. They seem to have seen and felt little for themselves at first hand. But in their work you cannot mistake the artistic effort, the striving after style. Their paintings hung together have invariably a decorative value. They are never discordant. They fill the room with a pleasant suggestion of rich, harmonious color. And who will say that this is no great matter whose eyes have been offended by the trivial anecdotes, the bald statement of fact, the garish hues of the typical English collection?

At the Academy no one thinks of going into the little Black-and-White Gallery. It lies beyond the stairway leading down to the refreshment room, just where it is most convenient to turn one's back upon its open door. But, indeed, there is no reason why one should cross the threshold. There is nothing to see. It is refreshing, then, to find at Knightsbridge a series of drawings and etchings and lithographs and wood-engravings as fine and complete and representative as any ever displayed at the Champ de Mars. It is out of the question to mention all the good work it contains, for there is not an exhibitor in this section who can be ignored. You can study the many remarkable experiments that have been made of late in color lithography and etching. You can enjoy some of the most distinguished illustrators of the day in their original designs.

The sculpture, though but comparatively few examples are exhibited, is as noteworthy. The names of Rodin, St. Gaudens, and MacMonnies are a guarantee of its distinction. And to describe the show in detail has been less my object than to explain what manner of show it is. For herein lies its importance. If the Society can but persevere, if it can but continue as it has begun long enough to break down the barriers of British conservatism, in a few years the Royal Academy will either have been reformed beyond recognition, or else have ceased to exist as an influence or factor in the development of art in this country.

N. N.

THE DUCHESS OF MONTMORENCY.

PARIS, May 19, 1898.

The name of Marie-Félice des Ursins is intimately connected with Chantilly. When she came to France and became Duchess of Montmorency she resided at Chantilly, which was not yet as sumptuous as it became under the Condés. She liked, when she could leave the court, to remain in the old domain of the Montmorencys; she felt the charm of "its waters, its woods," which are mentioned with solemn emotion in the deed of gift made by the Duke d'Aumale to the French Institute.

She was born in Rome on November 16, 1600. Her recent biographer, M. Monlaur, speaks in glowing terms of the family of Orsini. The daughter of Virginio Orsini (called in France "des Ursins"), Duke of Bracciano, and of Fulvia Peretti, had for godmother Marie de Médicis, and was named Marie for her; the name of Félice was given to her for her uncle, Félice Peretti, who became famous under the name of Sixtus V. Marie de Médicis negotiated the marriage of her godchild with Henri II., Duke of Montmorency, son of the famous Constable. The house of Montmorency was one of the first in the kingdom. Montmorency called himself the "premier baron chrétien." The marriage contract was signed at the Louvre on November 25, 1613, by King Louis XIII., the Queen Regent, and all the Princes of the blood. The marriage by proxy was celebrated in the Pitti palace in December. The bride was only thirteen years old, but she was sent to France, and was met at Avignon by the old Constable. She visited Languedoc with him, and travelled slowly to Paris, where she arrived before her husband. She saw him arrive at the Louvre, from a window where she stood with Louis XIII., who was then ten years old. She could admire him, in the midst of a fine retinue of gentlemen. The marriage took place at the Louvre.

The young Duke of Montmorency was handsome, elegant, witty; contemporaries speak of the sort of adoration which he inspired in all who approached him. He had long locks of fair hair, after the fashion of the time; his features were delicate, he was very slightly cross-eyed—an hereditary trait in the Montmorency family. His father had given him a severe education and prepared him for the life of a soldier. From his infancy he had been destined to the highest offices in the state; he became Grand-Admiral of France, Guyenne, and Gascony in 1612, duke and peer in 1613, Governor of Languedoc in 1614.

The author of the Life of the Duchess of Montmorency has found sundry documents in the Convent of the Visitation at Montpellier and in various monasteries at Nevers, at Moulins, at Annecy. The young Duchess spent much of her time in Languedoc, and when she became a widow, she retired to the Monastery of the Visitation, at Moulins, where she remained twenty-four years. Sister Ducros describes her thus:

"God had given to the Princess des Ursins a noble heart, never attached to anything which was not great; a generous heart, so generous that she would have considered herself happy to lose everything for the glory or the good of what she loved; a chaste and pure heart, superior to all the pleasures of the senses; a tender, faithful, and constant heart, which never allowed itself any variation. She was no sooner united to her amiable husband than she attached herself to him with all the strength and vivacity of her affections; and it may be said with truth that she loved M. de Montmorency with all the love that can be felt in this world, for she never loved any but him."

The same cannot be said of her amiable husband. He was the godson of Henri IV. and had all the habits of the Béarnais. The Constable died in 1614, and his son had to leave for Languedoc; the young Duchess (she was only fourteen) remained alone. She wished to retire to Chantilly, but the Queen kept her at court. Her husband returned occasionally to Paris, but only for a short time, for some court ceremony. Marie-Félice accompanied the Queen to Bordeaux, to attend the marriage of the King with a Spanish Princess; she found there her husband, and was present with him at the exchange of the princesses (Mme. Elisabeth was married to the Infant of Spain, and Anne of Austria was married to Louis XIII.). The return to Spain, with an escort which was a real army, in winter, took as much as five months. A civil war was raging, but the rebels did not attack the Queen's army, saying that it would not do to attack people who were coming from a wedding. "The villages had been so pillaged by the disorderly armies that it was a pitiful sight, says an eye witness."

At Poitiers Madame de Montmorency heard the news of the death of a brother, Cardinal Orsini. Louis XIII. and Anne of Austria made their solemn entry into Paris on the 16th of May, 1616. There Madame de Montmorency learned the news of the death of her father. The Duke de Montmorency remained with her till the month of June, 1617, either in Paris or at Chantilly. He was not among the friends of Concini, a favorite of Marie de Médicis, and when Concini was killed in the court of the Louvre by Vitry, at the instigation of young Louis XIII., Montmorency, on hearing the news, was so overjoyed that he threw his purse to the bearer of the news. He did not, however, win favor with the King's favorite, young Luynes, who had been the mover in the conspiracy against Concini, and he spent most of his time in his government of Languedoc. Not without reason Richelieu afterwards said, "The character of the House of Montmorency is so much impressed on the people there that they consider the name of the King imaginary." Madame de Montmorency made a solemn entry into Montpellier on the 16th of June, 1617, with a brother of hers, Don Cosmo Orsini. (See the "Entrée de Madame de Montmaurensi à Montpellier. Chez Jean Gilet, imprimeur de roy, 1617.") From this date the Duke placed his wife (she was now nineteen) at the head of the administration of his household; she could choose her officers, fix their duties and receive all their accounts.

In the troubled times of the reign of Louis XIII., Montmorency found himself involved in many difficulties. The favor of Luynes, whom the King had made Duke and Constable, had much discontented him. The young Constable died in 1621, and Montmorency, having taken an honorable part in the campaigns in Languedoc, hoped to obtain the Constable's sword, which his father

had worn so long. After the peace of 1622 (one of the peaces between the Catholics and the Protestants of France which were merely truces), Montmorency and his wife spent some time at Chantilly. They gave there an asylum to the poet Théophile. The pavilion of Sylvia, restored by the Duke d'Aumale, is much visited by those who know the poet and have read his ode, "La Maison de Sylvie." Théophile also composed an ode to the Duke. In all his verse he bestows on the Duchess the name of Sylvia. She was fond of poetry, and Louis XIII. himself wrote verses for her. The fashion of the time was to write portraits, and all Paris having made portraits of the ladies of the court, Louis XIII. reserved for himself the portrait of the Duchess:

"Je vois ta renommée
Semée
Déjà bien loin d'icy,
D'un chacun estimée,
Sage Montmorency."

Note the words "Sage Montmorency."

Montmorency was in command of the fleet during the operations which took place before La Rochelle and the island of Ré; he obtained a victory over Soubise, brother of the Duke de Rohan; he was all the more displeased when Richelieu asked him to abandon the title of High Admiral, which the stern Minister wished to abolish as well as the title of Constable, as he considered those high offices dangerous to the royal power. He took part, as Governor of Languedoc, in the last campaign against Rohan, afterwards conducted the French troops in Italy, and obtained a victory at Avigliana; he fought there most bravely, wounding Prince Doria with his own hand. He took Saluzzo and won another victory at Carignano. After the Italian campaign Montmorency was named Marshal of France. An edict inspired by Richelieu gave new institutions to Languedoc and diminished the authority of the Governor; Montmorency was greatly irritated by this exercise of the Cardinal's power, and allowed himself to be drawn into the intrigues of the numerous enemies of the Minister, among them the King's own brother Gaston and the Queen's mother.

Monsieur made overtures to Montmorency. The Duke would probably never have assumed an attitude of open revolt if he had not been worked upon by the Bishop of Albi, his evil genius, "who dragged him," says Richelieu in his Memoirs, "over the precipice." The Bishop showed him the example of the Duke d'Épernon, who had gained so much by having taken the part of the Queen-mother; he excited him against Richelieu, "the most ungrateful of men"; he represented to him that, in attacking Richelieu, he was defending the permanent interests of the state. Montmorency assembled the States, and at his request they signed a declaration in which they joined his cause; they thus signed their own abdication and the Duke signed his own condemnation.

Did the Duchess incite her husband to an act which was one of high treason? Richelieu's emissary and Richelieu himself thought so, and most historians have adopted D'Hémery's version, including Montmorency's biographer, Du Cros. M. Montlaur has consulted other documents, the manuscript Memoirs of Sister Agnès du Cros (daughter of the biographer), who lived at Moulins with the Duchess after she became a widow; the Memoirs of the Abbé Cadestin, with many other letters and documents, and he rejects the view taken by Richelieu.

Montmorency's revolt made a great commotion in the kingdom. The campaign against him was short; the regiment which Monsieur had promised him did not appear; only a few cities pronounced in his favor. Two armies, under Schomberg and Caumont-Laforce, were sent against him; he fought like a lion at Castelnaudary, receiving eighteen wounds. At the trial which took place at Toulouse, one of the witnesses, a captain in the royal army, declared that, "in the fight at Castelnaudary, seeing a single man charge through seven ranks and still fight at the seventh, he judged that that man could be only M. de Montmorency." The Duke was made prisoner on the battle-field, and was condemned to suffer capital punishment. Gaston's accomplices were beheaded or exiled; several were sent to the galleys; five bishops of Languedoc were deposed; the States were deprived of their prerogatives; all the cities or castles which had participated in the revolt lost their fortifications.

The Duchess of Montmorency was treated as a prisoner, but allowed to choose Moulins as her prison; she was conducted to the castle, and entered into communication with the superior of the Convent of the Visitation. From that time the life of Marie-Félice was entirely devoted to prayer; on the 9th of August, 1634, she entered the Convent of the Visitation, and for twenty-three years led a monastic life, though she remained in communication at times with the outside world. She died at Moulins June 5, 1666. The portrait of her which is found in M. Monlaur's volume, copied from an old picture, represents her standing in the dress of a Sister of the Visitation. One of her hands is placed on a death's-head, beside a crucifix. The features of the face are noble, the expression grave and stern.

The author of this new Life enters into many details regarding the conventual life of Marie-Félice, which have no historical interest, but which many will find entertaining. It is to be regretted that he adopts throughout his work a sort of phraseology very common in purely religious writings of a certain class. His heroine was a woman of noble feelings, of character, capable of passion; he represents her as too subdued, too tame, and one might almost say too ordinary.

Correspondence.

A PRAYER PAUSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of prayers in the churches for the preservation of our armies from the "violence of the enemy," my family feel keenly that there is a *casus omissus* in the collect published by the Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church in this diocese to be read by the clergy every Sunday. After praying for the safety of our brethren the soldiers and sailors, there follows this petition, "And to such as may fall in battle or by sickness, of our brethren or of our enemies, do Thou, O Lord, graciously grant the preparation of repentance unto life eternal," etc. We can all join in this very sincerely; but here comes our trouble. In San Juan, just before the bombardment by which several houses were destroyed, and we fear while it continued, was a young Spanish lady, a lovely girl, who has spent many weeks in our house, and of whom we are all very fond. She was in danger from the cannon of our fleet, for even if the women and children flee into the country, we learn that the townspeople are not regarded with great favor by "patriots" of those parts, who are apt to get excited on such occasions. Now, though I feel sure that our friend, who has many admirers in this country, where she has lived most of her girlhood, has less need of repentance in view of sudden death than some of our brethren who took part in the bombarding, yet all men are sinners, and we should like her to be included in our prayers if God is listening with particular attention on such occasions. Would it be disloyal to ask the clergyman to pause after the word "enemies" long enough to permit my family to add a silent petition, "and also Maria ——, who is *not* our enemy, but who is in great danger from the shot and shell of our brethren aforesaid"?

W. W. Montgomery.

Radnor, Pa., May 24, 1898.

ROOTERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It may be that many an enthusiastic patron of "the national game" has turned to the 'Century Dictionary' to learn why he should be designated "rooter." The great thesaurus does not, however, furnish the information in a sufficiently clear manner. One must modify notions of orthography and turn to the verb "rout[1]," and thence deduce the truth that a "rooter" is a "shouter."

The citations of the 'Century Dictionary' might be augmented by reports of dialectal usage. Thus, *rowt* (*rout*) is "to cry fiercely" (Ray, 'North-Country Words'); *rout* as a noun signifies "noise," and "hoarseness" (Peacock, 'Glossary of Words Used in the Wapentake of Manley and Corringham, Lincolnshire'); *routers* (pl.) are "fits of excitement" (Robinson, 'Glossary of Words Used in the Neighbourhood of Whitby'); and *rooter* is an extravagantly good thing, "a bumper, out-and-outer, stunner, topper, whopper" (Baumann, 'Londinismen').

Prof. Pagley once advised the appointment of a Professor of Rooting; his candidate was skilled in elegant and engaging insincerities of language and of manner (Hall, 'College Words and Customs'), so that it is clear that he had in mind an altogether different variety of action from that implied in our popular noun of agency.

A second digression from the matter in hand is furnished in a pun perpetrated by the author of 'Ginx's Baby,' which is perhaps unique and may be thought worth recollection:

"There is a Repair party, intermediating between Tories and Reformers—Radicals or Rooters let us call these latter if you like."

James W. Bright.

Johns Hopkins University.

Notes.

Little, Brown & Co. will soon issue 'Modern Political Institutions,' by Simeon E. Baldwin, of the Supreme Court of Connecticut.

M. F. Mansfield announces 'Three Years in Savage Africa,' by Lionel Decle, with an introduction by Henry M. Stanley; and 'Voces

Academicæ,' by C. Grant Robertson, M.A., Fellow of All Souls, Oxford.

'Types of Literary Art, from Chaucer to Arnold,' an introduction to English Literature, by Andrew J. George, is in the press of Macmillan.

R. H. Russell will hold back till the fall, for the sake of additions, 'The Shadows of the Trees, and Other Poems,' by Robert Burns Wilson. The volume will be adorned with twelve photogravure illustrations from nature by C. Grant La Farge.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'Auszüge aus Luthers Schriften,' edited by Prof. W. H. Carruth, of the University of Kansas.

Mr. George J. Bayles, Ph.D. (Columbia), has begun issuing thin volumes on the Civil Church Law of the several States, leading off with New Jersey. The series aims to provide the clergy, church officers, and trustees with the law defining their duties in a form convenient for reference. Dr. Bayles is his own publisher at No. 111 Fifth Avenue, New York.

From Messrs. Scribner we have received six more volumes of the London Gadshill Edition of Dickens's Novels, viz., 'Little Dorrit,' 'Bleak House,' and 'Barnaby Rudge,' all cared for by Mr. Andrew Lang in introductions and brief notes. In his chat about 'Bleak House' he discusses the novel with a purpose, and the ethics of Harold Skimpole as a portrait of Leigh Hunt. In that about 'Little Dorrit' one remarks a fatal facility on Mr. Lang's part for dropping into a foreign language: only the first and last (half-) pages out of eight are destitute of Latin or French larding. The same publishers add a sixth volume to Carlyle's 'Frederick' in their quite charming Centenary Edition; 'The Bride of Lammermoor' to the Temple Edition of the Waverley Novels; and a sixth volume, of verse, 'The Flying Islands of the Night,' to James Whitcomb Riley's 'Poems and Prose Sketches.'

Mr. Laurence Hutton's 'A Boy I Knew, and Four Dogs' (Harpers) has already had its applauding audience among the readers of *St. Nicholas*. It is frank and humorous autobiography, yet portrays The Boy universal quite as much as The Boy particular. What city boy at least ever escaped, any more than the measles, the "one great superstition—to wit, Cracks," or the effort to avoid stepping on the cracks in the pavement? Taken altogether, these reminiscences have an humble historical value in helping us to imagine the New York of half a century ago; and the numerous portraits of The Boy's connection, dogs included, greatly enhance the interest of the wholesome narrative.

Miss Mary E. Burt, author of 'Literary Landmarks,' has added to the numerous versions of tales of ancient Greece a reading-book for children adapted from a translation of the "third book," or reader, in use in the primary schools of Athens. It is a spirited prose version of the story of 'Odysseus, the Hero of Ithaca' (Scribners), taken from the 'Odyssey' with a certain amount of literalness. The simplicity of the language is suited to children, but we cannot help thinking that Butcher and Lang's admirable translation of the 'Odyssey' would be appreciated quite as easily as Miss Burt's by children who could understand the latter, and the advantage of the former on the score of English is, of course, beyond question. Mr. Howard Pyle's charming full-page illustrations add greatly to the interest of Miss Burt's volume.

Mr. James Ward's 'Historic Ornament' (Scribners) has been reviewed at length in these columns. There appears now a second series, or volume—that is to say, a book bearing the same title as the former, but with two stars on the title-page and on the cover. The volume now in hand deals with pottery, enamel, ivory-carving, metal-work, textile fabrics, mosaics, glass, and the decoration of books; the whole subject being thus divided into nine chapters. The criticism fitting the former volume is quite applicable to this, namely, that it is in the main a compilation, but on the whole a good one. If a student knew all that is contained in this book, he would know all about the historical aspect of the different decorative arts named above, nor would he be led astray by many false statements. On the other hand, ten pages of writing on these subjects by a man thoroughly versed in the practice of any one of the arts would be of more benefit to the serious student. The book is disfigured by some astonishing pieces of faulty English writing.

The American Architect and Building News Company of Boston has published a small folio of thirty-three plates under the title '"The Georgian Period," Being Measured Drawings of Colonial Work.' The names of ten architects and architectural draughtsmen are mentioned as the authors, some of whom are well known as skilled interpreters of ancient work. A circular notice laid loosely within the cover explains that "the greater portion of the value and interest of this publication will be found to lie in Part II., now in course of preparation." It is further explained that the second part will contain forty-eight sheets of drawings and a number of gelatine prints. With regard to the number before us there are but two plates, which are devoted to photographs made directly from nature and printed by some permanent process. The other plates are devoted mainly to details drawn in elevation and section, but some freehand drawings of buildings and parts of buildings are included. Among the edifices treated are the Van Rensselaer manor-house at Albany, the Royall mansion at Medford, the Hazard house at Newport, and King's Chapel, Boston. It is evident that this work, when complete, will be a valuable encyclopædia of that curious style of architecture in which the English buildings of the time of George II. and George III. were copied in America, with such modifications as were suggested by the substitution of wood for stone and brick, and the evident demand for great economy of space. As English post-Renaissance architecture is a simpler and cheaper version of the architecture of the Continent, so was American "Old Colonial" architecture an humble and domestic rendering of the English Georgian style.

Messrs. Gay & Bird of London send us 'The Progress of Art in English Church Architecture,' by T. S. Robertson, with illustrations by the author. It deals with churches in an analytic way, beginning with an account of the cruciform plan and its supposed significance, going on with the discussion of orientation and the probable causes of the irregularities or deflections of line shown in some church plans, comparing then the great French cathedrals with those of England, and saying what is just of some of the peculiarities of both nations. The second chapter deals with the crypt, and judiciously, in the few words that could be allowed it. The third chapter, unexpectedly and to the confusion of the reader, plunges into the subject of the revival of Gothic art, but this is understood by the author in the sense of a revival of interest and study rather than the building of modern Gothic churches. At last, after four preliminary chapters have been completed, the reader finds himself launched, with page 26, into an historical account divided into the familiar old epochs of Norman, Early English, etc., until chapter ix., "Notes on the English Cathedrals," is found to consist of comparatively brief notices in which the modern condition of the building, the restoration from which it has suffered, and its interesting contents and accessories are considered as well as the structure itself. The book is written with a good knowledge of the subject treated and with much enthusiasm and living interest. Judicious words are used about the care of churches and the ruinous treatment which so many have received in the name of restoration; and remarks on the English Gothic revival of 1850 and the following years, and on a possible wiser and more successful Gothic revival, close the work. There is an index, and the whole book will be found to be a general treatise on a large subject kept within narrow limits by dint of severe condensation. The author has known how to say what he thinks most important, and then to drop the subject.

A little book on private houses in America is published by the Doubleday & McClure Co. of New York under the title of 'How to Build a Home: The House Practical,' by Francis C. Moore. It is bound in boards, with a covering in the finest possible veneer of wood, unvarnished and, therefore, likely to soil, but very pretty in its present condition. The first chapter deals with "The Land-Grading," the second with "The Building," the third with the inside of the house, and so on for a series of chapters which are followed by a useful sort of index entitled the "Recapitulation," and by a very brief bibliography of authorities consulted. Plans are given illustrating the chapter entitled "A Practical Example," and these are a partial set of drawings for a "Seaside Cottage"—rather a large one, as it has a dining-room 16x20 feet, a parlor, library, kitchen, laundry, and large hall all on the ground floor, and all of corresponding magnitude. There is a great deal of common sense in the directions given, and the author is strongly impressed, and strongly impresses his readers, with the importance of guarding more perfectly against fire than is commonly done in American houses, whether they are frame-built houses as to their outside walls or not. There are some statements which an engineer would hardly approve, as the surprising one on page 16 which seems to imply that the writer does not believe in diagonal bracing. If any small book would enable a man to build a good house without professional advice, this would probably be the book.

Mr. Charles F. Binn's little book on Ceramics, recently issued by M. F. Mansfield, New York, but evidently English in origin and manufacture, is called 'The Story of the Potter.' It undertakes to give a general account, in eighty small pages, of baked-clay wares since Egyptian antiquity—and it is not unsuccessful. There are many small but clear illustrations, prints from half-tone blocks; and these and the text work well together to tell the long story in a brief and intelligible way. There is no pretence at any unusual amount of independent know-

ledge or original research, and some very queer authorities are cited; but, in the great sea of conjecture as to dates, origins, and causes, these few slips may pass unnoticed. The book would be more useful if the running-title were made to refer to the contents of the pages, instead of being the useless repetition of the general name of the book. It is expensive to set up marginal notes, but the running-title may be in one form of words as well as another; it may, and should, change with the changing subject of the pages. An attempt has been made at arranging the chronology of ceramics from about 3000 B. C., when "earthenware vases appeared in Egyptian hieroglyphics," to 1795 A. D., when "Josiah Wedgwood died." The preface speaks of this as an attempt—as a "nucleus for others to work upon." But even this is a little too much to say of a chronology extending through only four pages and a quarter.

Another book on the arts of baked clay is entitled 'Potters: Their Arts and Crafts,' the authors being John C. L. Sparks, of the South Kensington Museum, and Walter Gandy. The book is published by Thomas Whittaker of New York, but it has been manufactured as well as composed in Great Britain. This is an essay-like composition illustrated by a few not very instructive woodcuts. It is not brought down to the very latest dates, nor can it be called very learned or very scientific in treatment; not that mistakes are numerous, for we have detected few, but because it is written like a magazine article, with more wealth of allusion and anecdote than of accurate description or discrimination of manufactures or styles of decoration.

Mr. Louis N. Wilson, librarian of Clark University, Worcester, Mass., has reprinted by itself his 'Bibliography of Child Study,' first contributed to the *Pedagogical Seminary*. There are 562 direct items, besides about 80 more entries of works of standard reference on allied topics. Mr. Wilson combines the whole in a subject-index.

Mr. Wilberforce Eames, too, librarian of the Lenox Library, has done well to reprint his paper on 'Early New England Catechisms,' which has already appeared in the Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society.

The library of Harvard College puts forth an appeal to its friends, and especially to the graduates of the University, for contributions of all kinds to its collection of documents illustrative of the history of the University. Even amateur photographers are solicited to file their views, duly signed and dated. Mr. William Garrott Brown is in charge of this department.

The latest of the handy American Library Association Annotated Lists is one of French Fiction, chosen by Mme. Sophie Cornu and William Beer, seeking "soundness of sentiment" as carefully as "excellence in style." The list comprises less than 200 titles taken from seventy authors.

A self-correcting but important error crept into the last sentence of the Note in last week's *Nation* (No. 1717, p. 406) regarding the overcrowding of German technical schools. "Whose general preparatory training was sufficient" should have read "insufficient."

—A correspondent writes:

Mr. Matthews will be glad to know, in the interest of the Colonial Society of Massachusetts, that the word *campus* has been discovered as far back as 1848 in the *Nassau Literary Magazine*, vol. 8, p. 139. Had this fact been known to him, he would not have written that the first American book to contain that word was 'College Words and Customs,' 1851. In his lowest deep a lower deep. In regard to Harvard, a high officer there writes: "*Campus* is unknown at Harvard, and it is always regarded as the sign of one unacquainted with Harvard usages if he employ the word to describe what we call the 'college yard.'" On the other hand, Mark Sibley Severance, in 'Hammersmith: his Harvard Days,' p. 23, writes: "On an ancient commencement when these reverend gentlemen had come on horseback, . . . you might have seen them walking sedately in small-clothes, etc., about the open plain skirted by marshes and ox-pastures . . . where is now the *Campus* [Severance was a Harvard graduate of 1869; the italicizing is his, and his book was written before 1877], with its arching elms and well-arranged quadrangle flanked with halls." The earliest appearance of *campus* at Yale and regarding Yale has been lately discovered—probably since Mr. Matthews went abroad—and may be new to him and his Colonial Society. In 1872-3 a column in each number of the *Yale Record*, vol i., was headed "On the Campus," by James H. Van Buren, one of the editors of that work—and that without any reference to Princeton usage. He felt justified in using it by the old song, "When we first came on this campus" (what is the date of that?), and because he thought he had seen it in English fiction, as 'Tom Brown,' etc.

—The Messrs. Putnam have issued in a square octavo volume of nearly 500 pages a book by the late Rev. William Wood Seymour, entitled 'The Cross: Its Tradition, History, and Art.' The book contains a large number of illustrations drawn from many sources; not generally attractive in appearance, nor of much historical or representative value. There is an index, which is full, and seems to be very nearly complete. As for the book itself, it is one of those curious accumulations of material to which some persons devote themselves through many years, and which, when they are made accessible by arrangement in the text or by a complete index, have at least the value of being suggestive, and of pointing out what kind of information is to be looked for. In the case before us the presence of a bibliography extending over ten pages enables the reader to follow up the study of any branch of the subject. The writer seems to have tried to avoid committing himself as to his belief in this or that doctrine of the many which have been attached to the cross itself, the legends concerning it, the relics which are supposed to exist in many parts of the world, and the sacred associations connected with it. Wisely, perhaps, he has stated each popular belief and each morsel of legend without much comment, as leaving to the reader the privilege and the duty of choosing what he should accept. This readiness to insist only upon the existence of the story is, perhaps, carried too far in the earlier chapters, where a vast amount of space is devoted to the appearance in very ancient and prehistoric articles of human make of crossing lines incised, in relief, or painted. In addition to the visible, existing patterns which consist of crossing lines, there are others, known only by allusions, to which the same shape and character have been ascribed, such as the mark of the blood on the door-posts of the Hebrews on the first night of the Passover, of which it is assumed that the marks took the shape of the cross. Fylfots and swastikas are, of course, much cited, and are of much apparent importance in such a piece of vague investigation. Inasmuch as it is as natural a way as any of setting down two marks that they shall be approximately straight, and that they shall be laid across one another, and inasmuch as nothing could be easier than the increasing of the complexity of this pattern by putting additional lines to it, it may be said that too much is made of these frequent appearances in early times of what might be called a cross. Moreover, as the punishment of nailing or tying the victim to a plank, tree, or stake was common in Asia and among Asiatic peoples, and afterwards in Roman dominions, it followed, of necessity, that one of the shapes of the cross was often employed—sometimes the Tau (T) cross, in which there was a cross-bar upon an upright; sometimes the St. Andrew's cross, in which two beams crossed one another diagonally; sometimes the *crux immissa*, in which the head of the upright piece passed the cross-bar and was seen above it. In other words, the world has always been full of crosses, of those used for simple adornment and of those used for punishment. The difficulty is not in admitting this fact, but in recognizing the sacred or mystical significance of the fact; and the compiler of this book may be thought to have gone as far as it was possible to go in the way of admitting the importance of these doubtful associations.

—Under the general editorship of Prof. Prothero, the "Cambridge Historical Series" has arrived at a seventh volume. Dr. W. Cunningham's 'Outlines of English Industrial History' was one of the earliest to appear. He now contributes an essay of some 200 pages 'On Western Civilization in its Economic Aspects (Ancient Times)' (Macmillan). The aim of the essay is to trace the working out of the economic destinies of the chief ancient civilizations. In this short history of commerce the author deals with the characteristic features of the Egyptian and Phœnician civilizations, and points out their influence on the Greeks and the Greek colonies. He then proceeds to show how the conquests of Alexander on the one hand, and, on the other, the action of the Romans, diffused Greek civilization; how the incursions of the barbarians gradually limited the area of civilized life in the West, until the elements of the old civilization were restored, when Christian Rome rose from her ashes to guide the destinies of the world. The treatment is necessarily of the briefest, but, by dint of being perfectly clear and systematic, Dr. Cunningham succeeds, in spite of the slight evidence at his disposal, in giving a useful and fairly detailed picture of the methods pursued by ancient nations in opening up trade, in securing a food supply, etc. He shows plainly enough how the vitality of a city depends mainly on its economic conditions. What makes his little book especially useful is the fact that he is careful to give his authorities in foot-notes. The maps and the chronological chart showing the duration of different polities which have made important economic contributions to Western civilization, are excellent.

—The completion of the great 'Deutsches Wörterbuch' of Jacob and Wilhelm Grimm, so long a matter of satirical speculation and undated hopes, now comes pretty clearly into view across the space of eight years. The first subscription-list was started nearly half a century ago. With the first *Lieferung*, "A to Allverein," which has just been issued, bearing the imprint of the original publishing house of Salomon Hirzel, Leipzig (in New

York, Lemcke & Buechner), begins a new subscription which, it is confidently believed, will be filled uninterruptedly and at regular intervals until eight years hence the completed work will be in the hands of all subscribers, old and new. To scholars and students the world over this will be welcome news. It is exactly sixty years ago that two emissaries of the well-known publisher and Goethe-enthusiast, Salomon Hirzel, laid before the brothers Grimm the plan of a monumental dictionary of the German language. After some hesitation the Grimms finally consented. They had never before entered upon any literary or scholarly undertaking at the suggestion of others; their works theretofore had been the results of spontaneous impulse. In the years that followed, the infinite drudgery of this colossal task weighed heavily upon them, and in their correspondence with Hirzel there is a note of anxiety which commands the reader's sympathy. At last, in 1852, after fourteen years of preparatory labors, the dictionary began to appear. The public had grown impatient, and in 1846 Wilhelm Grimm, with characteristic good nature, made a statement in Frankfort concerning the status, the scope, and the inevitable difficulties of the work. The 'Wörterbuch' is designed to contain the complete vocabulary of the German language from Luther to Goethe, with the history of words and with citations to illustrate the usage. Luther, who rescued German from its disordered state, stands naturally at the beginning of a lexicon from which Middle and Old High German have been purposely excluded. But at that time it was no such self-evident proposition to make Goethe the central point in the study and history of the modern German tongue; he was not then so universally recognized by his countrymen as the supreme force in German culture. By assigning to him this position the Grimms showed their courageous conviction, and, in a sense, may be said to have thus been the founders of Goethe philology as a branch of scientific investigation. The Grimms were assisted by Karl Weigand and Rudolf Hildebrand and others of lesser note. By the death of Wilhelm Grimm in 1859 the enterprise received a severe blow, and when, in 1863, Jacob followed his brother, the fourth volume had only just been begun. In 1864 the work was resumed by Weigand and Hildebrand, with whom other scholars were associated. The first-named died in 1878, and indeed during the last years of his life had been too much engaged in getting out a dictionary of his own to give his full attention to the greater work. Prof. Hildebrand of Leipzig, who, like Dr. Johnson, combined with the touch of genius which characterized all his scholarly labors, an aversion to steady lexicographical drudgery, advanced but slowly with the parts intrusted to him. Death, illness, and other delaying causes incident to so vast an enterprise rendered the regular publication of the *Lieferungen* impossible. Within a comparatively short space of time Hildebrand, Matthias Lexer, Ernst Wülcker, and Otto Erdmann passed away.

—Of the immediate successors of the Grimms only one is now left, Moriz Heyne of Göttingen, who, in 1867, at the age of thirty, joined the staff of workers. He, in the course of the last thirty years, has finished the letters H, I, L, M, and R, and carried the formidable letter S through its most prolific period of Sch. The 'Wörterbuch,' as it now stands, contains the letters A, B, C, D, E, F, H, I, L, M, N, O, P, and R, and parts of G, S, T, and V. At this point, when the dictionary was languishing in spasmodic *Lieferungen*, the publishers had an access of energy, and the result of their efforts during the past year is that they are now able to announce that, at the rate of about eighteen *Lieferungen* a year, the 'Wörterbuch' will be completed before 1907, or about seventy years after the plan of the work was submitted to the Grimms. The remainder of S is in the hands of the veteran Heyne. G, which Hildebrand left unfinished at "Getreibs," will be continued by Prof. Herman Wunderlich of Heidelberg (not *Ernst* Wunderlich, as it appears upon the cover, by attraction, doubtless, to the preceding name of *Ernst* Wülcker). Matthias Lexer, who began the letter T in 1890, had carried it only to the ill-omened word "Todestag," when death overtook him. This task, together with the entire letter U, has been given to Prof. Stosch of Kiel. These two letters are expected to fill the eleventh of these stately volumes. V, which had been brought by the late Ernst Wülcker as far as "Verschrecken," now passes into the hands of Prof. Siebs of Greifswald, and W has been intrusted to Prof. Karl von Bahder in Leipzig. To whom the modest Q and the more important Z have been assigned, the prospectus does not state. At all events, it is apparent from the foregoing that the completion of the 'Wörterbuch' has been taken out of the region of speculation into that of tangible certainty. In the case of a work like this, it is well to call public attention to the extremely low rate at which it is published. Each *Lieferung*, containing from twelve to fifteen signatures, costs the subscriber two marks; thus, at an annual outlay of about thirty-six marks, one may, at the end of eight years, become possessed of one of the greatest lexicographical works of the century. Rarely has a publication of such rich interest and monumental proportions been placed so completely within the reach of the most straitened purse, and we need scarcely urge students to begin at once to harvest in these tri-weekly *Lieferungen* "um in dem Allverein selig zu sein." (It is with this citation from Goethe that this first number of 239 octavo pages ends.)

RECENT AMERICAN POETRY.

The Complete Poetical Works of Joaquin Miller (San Francisco: Whitaker) suggest the curious fact that of the two poets who have claimed to be most distinctively and aggressively American, neither has ever consented to be known by his own name, but each personally shifted it to something more piquant and sensational. From the beginning of his literary career, Whitman called himself Walt, while Cincinnatus Hiner Miller rechristened himself Joaquin. In the same way, neither of the two has been content with his own language, while Longfellow and Lowell, both professors of modern languages, were satisfied with English, herein agreeing with Don Quixote, who says that all the great poets "wrote in the language they drew in with their mother's milk, and did not search out foreign ones (*buscar las estrangeras*) to express the loftiness of their conceptions." In other respects the analogy holds out. Whitman headed his first volume of poems with a picture of himself, and has since offered others; Miller decorates his final volume with seven pictures taken at different periods. As Whitman, according to one of his biographers, used to write eulogistic notices of himself for publication, so Miller fills the intervals of his books with flattering descriptions of his personal prowess. He says in his final notes for young readers, "Not only simplicity of motive, but majesty of utterance must be ours" (p. 325). Accordingly, we read in one of his preludes his way of exhibiting this needful combination (p. 222):

"Born to the saddle and bred by a chain of events to ride with the wind until I met the stolid riders of England, I can now see how it was that Anthony Trollope, Lord Houghton, and others of the saddle and 'meet' gave me ready place in their midst. Not that the English were less daring; but they were less fortunate; may I say less experienced? I recall the fact that I once found Lord Houghton's brother, Lord Crewe, and his son also, under the hands of the surgeon in New York—one with a broken thigh, and the other with a few broken ribs. But in all our hard riding I never had a scratch. One morning Trollope hinted that my immunity was due to my big Spanish saddle, which I had brought from Mexico City. I threw my saddle on the grass and rode without so much as a blanket. And I rode neck to neck; and then left them all behind, and nearly every one unhorsed."

It is only in the pages of Conan Doyle's delightful French officer, Brigadier Gérard, that we can find a mate for the combined "simplicity" and "majesty" of these self-revelations. "Ah! my friends, I was no ordinary looking man when I was in my thirtieth year. In the whole light cavalry it would have been hard to find a finer pair of whiskers. Murat's may have been a shade longer, but the best judges are agreed that Murat's were a shade too long. And then I had a manner."

Yet it must be owned that Miller appears in one respect to more advantage than Whitman, partly because the Californian poet does all his puffing for himself, frankly, with no clique behind him; and partly because of the honest criticisms on himself which often accompany them. Thus, he tells us how much he has worked over "The Isles of the Amazons," and how it now seems foolish "with knights and things," as no doubt it does; but he does not fail to tell us that the Emperor of Brazil liked it, and invited him to come and make the palace his home while he lived (p. 108). He tells us that Lord Houghton struck out much of the "empty verbosity" from his first volumes published in 1877-'78, but naturally mentions that they brought him an invitation to spend the season with Mr. Gladstone (p. 191). He admits how poor now seem to him the writings which first—joined with certain peculiarities of dress and manners—made him an object of curiosity in London; but he describes that epoch as "the sudden renown of a little brown-faced student, . . . famous in a day as a poet" (p. 320). He says of his "Sappho and Phaon" (p. 305), "It is the only thing of mine except 'The City Beautiful' that quite pleases me," though it is perhaps the vaguest of all his poems, and relates to a dim reunion of the two Greek lovers, after three thousand years, on the shores of California. After all, his humility amounts to this: he admits that some of his poems may perhaps be less good than others, but practically assumes that each is worth reprinting, and is enough to place him on the heights of fame. He has, indeed, at times a sense of lyrical melody such as Whitman despised; but, on the other hand, there are to be found many grains of gold in Whitman's heaps of dross, and these are hardly obtainable from those of Miller.

After all, the couplet which will live longest in all this closely printed volume is probably that one touch of simple feeling which crowns the description of his tribute at the grave of Walker the filibuster:

> "He had done more than this for me,
> And yet I could not well do more." (P. 18.)

Even this is now vitiated by the discovery, made through this book for the first time, that the poet never stood beside Walker's grave, and that the poem was originally written about John Brown of Osawatomie.

The poet Tennyson, pointing a quarter of a century ago to a copy of Miller's early poems that stood on a shelf of his library, said briefly to an American visitor: "There's power there, but crude." Among all the new American poems which have lately passed across the critic's desk, there is no question which is entitled to just this praise so far as it goes. It is 'The Children of the Night,' by Edwin Arlington Robinson (Boston: Badger). Nay, one can go farther than this, for, while the variety of Mr. Robinson's measure is as yet small, he does his work deftly and thoroughly within that plot of ground, and packs even his sonnets with such vigor and such creative imagination that the whole story is told. He writes of men and women, not of external nature, and uses the latter only as the Greeks did, for a setting, not a theme, which is the better way. When he deals of books, there is the same power of characterization. We expect young poets to have their say about Verlaine and Whitman, but we hardly expect them to have heard of Crabbe; and yet what prose critic ever summed up Crabbe and placed him in his niche so completely as this young American? (p. 64):

GEORGE CRABBE.

Give him the darkest inch your shelf allows,
Hide him in lonely garrets, if you will,—
But his hard, human pulse is throbbing still
With the sure strength that fearless truth endows.
In spite of all fine science disavows,
Of his plain excellence and stubborn skill
There yet remains what fashion cannot kill,
Though years have thinned the laurel from his brows.

Whether or not we read him, we can feel
From time to time the vigor of his name
Against us like a finger for the shame
And emptiness of what our souls reveal
In books that are as altars where we kneel
To consecrate the flicker, not the flame.

And when the young poet, looking away from his bookshelves, turns his lens upon the village street which he knows so well, the result shows the same power of putting a whole life, or a whole generation of lives, into the same narrow compass of fourteen lines (p. 54):

THE CLERKS.

I did not think that I should find them there
When I came back again; but there they stood,
As in the days they dreamed of when young blood
Was in their cheeks and women called them fair.
Be sure, they met me with an ancient air,—
And yes, there was a shopworn brotherhood
About them; but the men were just as good,
And just as human as they ever were.

And you that ache so much to be sublime,
And you that feed yourselves with your descent,
What comes of all your visions and your fears?
Poets and kings are but the clerks of Time,
Tiering the same dull webs of discontent,
Clipping the same sad alnage of the years.

Mr. Robinson is not afraid of odd words where they give just what he needs. In this last verse, "tiering" is, we take it, arranging in tiers, and "alnage" means ell-measure. To show him capable of a lyric flow and of producing something which shall haunt the reader, take this (p. 32):

LUKE HAVERGAL.

Go to the western gate, Luke Havergal,—
There where the vines cling crimson on the wall,—
And in the twilight wait for what will come.
The wind will moan, the leaves will whisper some
Whisper of her, and strike you as they fall;
But go, and if you trust her she will call.
Go to the western gate, Luke Havergal—
Luke Havergal.

No, there is not a dawn in the eastern skies
To rift the fiery night that's in your eyes;
But there, where western glooms are gathering,
The dark will end the dark, if anything:
God slays Himself with every leaf that flies,
And hell is more than half of Paradise.
No, there is not a dawn in the eastern skies—
In eastern skies.

Out of a grave I come to tell you this—
Out of a grave I come to quench the kiss
That flames upon your forehead with a glow
That blinds you to the way that you must go.
Yes, there is yet one way to where she is—
Bitter, but one that faith can never miss.
Out of a grave I come to tell you this—
To tell you this.

There is the western gate, Luke Havergal,
There are the crimson leaves upon the wall.
Go—for the winds are tearing them away—
Nor think to riddle the dead words they say,
Nor any more to feel them as they fall;
But go! and if you trust her she will call.
There is the western gate, Luke Havergal—
Luke Havergal.

Those who lavished so much admiration on the sonnets called 'At the Gates of Song,' by Mr. Lloyd Mifflin, have doubtless waited with much interest to see what harvest would be reaped in his later book, 'On the Slopes of Helicon, and Other Poems' (Boston: Estes & Lauriat). They must own, however, that the author's mastery of the lyric measure is scarcely equal to that which he has attained—perhaps by concentrated practice—in the sonnet measure; so it is to this last we still recur. Here his hand is practised, yet with a slight tendency to excess of alliteration and assonance (p. 57):

SUMMER'S SOUNDS.

One listening in the clover fields can hear
The mower whet his scythe; and far away,
O'er lowlands odorous with the new-mown hay,
The rattle of the reaper sharp and clear.
Across the reedy stretches of the mere
The grazing horses send their greeting neigh;
While, 'mid the silences throughout the day,
The locust's sharp staccato stabs the ear.
Dim shimmering in the heat the violet hills
Call to us vaguely from a realm of dreams;
And from the meadow's smooth meandering streams
Come muffled murmurs of the distant mills;
From upland wheat-fields, as his barns he fills,
We hear the farmer calling to his teams.

It is perhaps natural that from those parts of the American continent which have been least described we should have more of local coloring reflected into literature than from the more hackneyed regions. From California, for instance, we have a great deal of this, in the thin volume, 'A Vintage of Verse,' by Clarence Urmy (San Francisco: Doxey); and the following graceful lines are an example (p. 35):

AS I CAME DOWN MOUNT TAMALPAIS.

As I came down Mount Tamalpais,
To north the fair Sonoma Hills
Lay like a trembling thread of blue
Beneath a sky of daffodils;
Through tules green a silver stream
Ran south to meet the tranquil bay,
Whispering a dreamy, tender tale
Of vales and valleys far away.

As I came down Mount Tamalpais
To south the city brightly shone,
Touched by the sunset's good-night kiss
Across the golden ocean blown;
I saw its hills, its tapering masts,
I almost heard its tramp and tread,
And saw against the sky the cross
Which marks the City of the Dead.

As I came down Mount Tamalpais,
To east San Pablo's water lay,
Touched with a holy purple light,
The benediction of the day;
No ripple on its twilight tide,
No parting of its evening veil,
Save dimly in the far-off haze
One dreamy, yellow sunset sail.

As I came down Mount Tamalpais,
To west Heaven's gateway opened wide,
And through it, freighted with day-cares,
The cloud-ships floated with the tide;
Then, silently through stilly air,
Starlight flew down from Paradise,
Folded her silver wings and slept
Upon the slopes of Tamalpais.

The new impulse to poetry in the British provinces fortunately leads to this local coloring, and Blomidon and Tantramar still awaken musical associations. Dr. Theodore H. Rand, in the second edition of 'The Basin of Minas, and Other Poems' (Toronto: Briggs), celebrates well the robin, the loon, and the humming-bird; the aspen, the hepatica, the twin-flower, the ghost-flower; and pays a lyric tribute to that rarely sung wanderer, the dragon-fly.

Canada also gives us touches of human emotion through a poet who has before given signs of promise, Mr. Frederick George Scott, author of 'The Unnamed Lake, and Other Poems' (Toronto: Briggs). As this, for instance (p. 45):

THE HEAVEN OF LOVE.

I rose at midnight and beheld the sky
Sown thick with stars, like grains of golden sand
Which God had scattered loosely from His hand
Upon the floorways of His house on high;
And straight I pictured to my spirit's eye
The giant worlds, their course by wisdom planned,
The weary wastes, the gulfs no sight hath spanned,
And endless time for ever passing by.

Then, filled with wonder and a secret dread,
I crept to where my child lay fast asleep,
With chubby arm beneath his golden head.
What cared I then for all the stars above?
One little face shut out the boundless deep,
One little heart revealed the heaven of love.

To those who are growing weary of dialect poems—that is, to everybody—we heartily recommend an example of the French Canadian strain, which has never before been so deftly handled as by Dr. William Henry Drummond in 'The Habitant, and Other French-Canadian Poems' (Putnams). In the immense and innocent vivacity of these verses, and in their snap and movement, of which every line implies a violin accompaniment, there is a perpetual relish which belongs with the cheery and rather shallow life with which they deal. For the deeper emotions we must look elsewhere, but what can be more uproariously jolly than this, from "Le Vieux Temps" (p. 13)?

Ma fader an' ma moder, too, got nice, nice familee,
Dat's ten garçon an' t'orteen girl, was mak' it twenty-t'ree;
But fonny t'ing de Gouvernement don't geev de firs' prize den
Lak w'at dey say dey geev it now, for only wan douzaine.

De English peep dat only got wan familee small size
Mus' be feel glad dat tam dere is no honder-acre prize
For fader of twelve chil'ren—dey know dat mus' be so,
De Canayens would boss Kebeck—mebbe Ontario.

But dat is not de story dat I was gone tole you
About de fun we use to have w'en we leev a chez nous.
We're never lonesome on dat house, for many cavalier
Come at our place moe' every night—especially Sun-day.

But tam I 'member bes' is w'en I'm twenty-wan year—me—
An' so for mak' some pleasurement—we give wan large soirée,
De whole paroisse she be invite—de Curé he's come too—
Wit plaintee peep from 'noder place—dat's more I can tole you.

De night she's cole an' freeze also, chemin she's fill wit snow,
An' on de chimley lak phantome, de win' is mak' it blow—
But boy an' girl come all de sam an' pass on grande parloir
For warm itself on beeg box-stove, was mak' on Trois Rivières.

An' w'en Bonhomme Latour commence for tune up hees fidelle
It mak' us all feel very glad—l'enfant! he play so well,

Musique suppose to be firs' class, I offen hear, for sure,
But mos' bes' man, beat all de res', is ole Bateese Latour—

An' w'en Bateese play Irish jeeg, he's learn on Mattawa
Dat tam he's head boss cook Shaintee—den leetle Joe Leblanc
Tak' hole de beeg Marie Juneau an' dance upon de floor
Till Marie say "Excuse to me, I cannot dance no more."—

An' den de Curé 's mak' de speech—ole Curé Ladouceur!
He say de girl was spark de boy too much on some cornerre—
An' so he's tole Bateese play up ole-fashion reel a quatre
An' everybody she mus' dance, dey can't get off on dat.

Another Canadian poet, Mr. Bernard McEvoy, gives us no particular local coloring; indeed, his book, 'Away from Newspaperdom' (Toronto: Morang), takes us not very far from the locality thus described. The Rev. Dominic Brennan, writing under the pen-name of D. O'Kelly Branden (Buffalo: Peter Paul Co.), gives us plenty of patriotic poems, some Irish, some American, and some that are thoughtful and even profound. Mrs. Margaret Gill Currie, in 'A Romance of Old New Brunswick' (Toronto: Briggs), offers something that is labored, yet not poetic. Mr. Daniel Webster Davis, a new colored poet, in 'Weh Down Souf, and Other Poems' (Cleveland: Helman-Taylor Co.), makes a good second to Paul Louis Dunbar, although he does not equal his predecessor. He was born and reared in Virginia, and wrote the ode for the opening of the negro building at the Atlanta Exposition. Miss Lucy Cleveland's 'The Scarlet-Veined' (Randolph) means the American flag, and should, therefore, be seasonable, though published "befo' de war." Mrs. Belle R. Harrison's poems (Dillingham) are apparently of Southern origin, and have a marked flavor of Miss L. E. Landon, who furnishes the motto. 'The Spinning Wheel at Rest,' by Edward Augustus Jenks, is of value, were it only for the picture of the old stone bridge at Gilsum, N. H. (p. 22). Why have we so few picturesque bridges in the United States, when there is opportunity for so many?

Miss Fanny H. Runnels Poole, in her 'Bank of Violets' (Putnams), thus describes the bobolinks, already so well celebrated by Lowell and Bryant that Thomas Hughes crossed the ocean to hear them (p. 11):

THE BOBOLINKS.

The buoyant music of the bobolinks
  Outpours upon the June;
Now is the high-tide of the year, methinks,
  With love and joy atune!
    Yet more, I ween,
    Than heard or seen
Is that which back to fancy brings
The presence of remembered things.
The air is filled with melody,
And so, my heart, with memory!

Once more and now, O playmate of my choice,
  Only to live is sweet!
Thro' the billowy open floats your voice,
    Too happy at your feet;
    Kingcups, daisies,
    In grassy mazes,
Sway low at your undulant tread;
Hush! you are calling, "Just ahead,
Something soft to keep and hold,
Hurry! all ebony and gold.

"On the brier-rose, there! O Constantin"—
  But off with arrowy flight,
Never a moment our grasp within,
  Gleameth a ray of light,
    Its way along
    A daring song! . . .
Ah, well! adown these after-years,
Fair is the gold and few the tears.
Playmates, we follow yet—and then
Here are the bobolinks again!

Mr. Edward McQueen Gray, now of Florence, New Mexico, gives us, in 'Alamo and Other Verses' (London: Denny), a companion picture of the mocking-bird; but, perhaps because the author is of English birth, he does not quite make the subject his own, and his bird notes are not sufficiently free and lyrical (p. 50):

MOCKING-BIRD.

I awoke with the first flush of dawn,
  While the mocking-bird out on the lawn
His pæan was shrilling unresting and filling
  My heart with the promise of morn,
    Mocking-bird,
  My heart with the promise of morn.

I lay while the gathering light
  Was surely defeating the night
And, tunefully swelling, thy music was telling
  Of happiness, love, and delight,
    Mocking-bird,
  Of happiness, love, and delight.

He is more at home in writing of the battle of the Alamo; his address "To America: Proem" is a bit of warm international cousinship; and the book is printed in behalf of a free circulating library at the author's place of abode. Another poet, who sings both the mocking-bird and the whippoorwill, though with only moderate success, is Mr. William T. Dumas, in his 'The Golden Day, and Other Miscellaneous Poems' (Philadelphia: The Levytype Company). He also gives an exceedingly vigorous, but rather florid and wordy description of "The Cyclone" (p. 55). The same adjectives must be applied to the new volume of the Japanese-American poet, Yone Noguchi, 'The Voice of the Valley' (San Francisco: Doxey). His editor, Mr. Charles Warren Stoddard, says of him: "With the passionate enthusiasm of youth, this unspoiled poet has fluttered the eagles on their star-crowned peaks, and I glory in the almost frenzied daring with which he has chanted 'The Song of Songs, which is Noguchi's' " (p. 12). This is an example of the frenzied daring (p. 23):

SONG OF NIGHT IN YOSEMITE VALLEY.

Hark! The prophecy-inciting windquake of the unfathomable concave of darkest Hell!
O, the God-scorning demon's shout against the truth-locked gate of mighty Heaven!
Heaven and Hell joining their palace and dungeon, remould the sinful universe to an ethereal paradise—
O, the sphere is shaken by the Master-Mechanic working from the surface of the world to its centre!
Alas, the sun has fled in saddest woe!—O mortal, breathe thy silent prayer unto mighty Yosemite for mirth!
Behold, the light of day leaves the white mansion to the care of dolorous night!—
The genii of the Valley fly from the roar of a thousand lions to the sacred peace above—
Lo, an unknown jeweller decks the black, velvety heaven with treasure-stars—
Yea, the Mother-Goddess, mantling the earth with the night, forbids Yosemite disturb her baby-angel's dream in heaven!
Hark! the night disconcord of the eternal falling of waters sounding discontent throughout the earth—
O, a chariot is rushing down to an unknown hollow in wild triumph!
Behold, a dragon reveals divinity in the ghostly-odorous sky of the night—
Nay, the mighty sword of the Judgment Day blazes down the Heaven to the gate of Hell!

'One Way to the Woods' (Boston: Copeland), by Evaleen Stein, has much freshness and fragrance in its description of nature, and this bit of Mexican life—in spite of the monotony of its refrain—will recall charming travel-pictures to many (p. 9):

IN MEXICO.

The cactus towers, straight and tall,
Through fallow fields of chapparal;
  And here and there, in paths apart,
  A dusky peon guides his cart,
    And yokes of oxen journey slow,
      In Mexico.

And oft some distant tinkling tells
Of muleteers, with wagon-bells
  That jangle sweet across the maize,
  And green agave stalks that raise
    Rich spires of blossoms, row on row,
      In Mexico.

Upon the whitened city walls
The golden sunshine softly falls,
  On archways set with orange trees,
  On paven courts and balconies
    Where trailing vines toss to and fro,
      In Mexico.

And patient little donkeys fare
With laden saddle-bags, and bear
  Through narrow ways quaint water-jars
  Wreathed round with waxen lily stars
    And scarlet poppy-buds that blow,
      In Mexico.

. . . .

A land of lutes and witching tones,
Of silver, onyx, opal stones;
  A lazy land, wherein all seems
  Enchanted into endless dreams;
    And never any need they know,
      In Mexico,

Of life's unquiet, swift advance;
But slipped into such gracious trance,
  The restless world speeds on, unfelt,
  Unheeded, as by those who dwelt
    In olden ages, long ago,
      In Mexico.

Miss Mary Augusta Mason, in her 'With the Seasons' (Randolph), has a pretty fancy (p. 44), marred by a faulty "would" for "should" in the last line:

O SWEET, SWEET WORLD.

O sweet, sweet world, were I a bee,
And such delights were offered me,
From morn till eve I'd spread my wings
And hover o'er the fragrant things,
And never miss a single bloom,
But carry homeward in the gloom
My load of sweets and hoard it so
My golden cells would overflow!

Each cup should bear a magic name
To tell me whence the honey came!
"Arbutus," "clover," "violet,"
"Azalea," "pink," and "mignonette,"—
And other flowers we love to see
And that are sweet to man and bee;
When winter comes at home I then
Would live the summer o'er again.

Mrs. Florence Earle Coates, in her 'Poems' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), gives us this strong sonnet (p. 119):

SIBERIA.

The night-wind drives across the leaden skies,
  And fans the brooding earth with icy wings;
  Against the coast loud-booming billows flings,
  And soughs through forest-deeps with moaning sighs.
Above the gorge, where snow, deep fallen, lies—
  A softness lending e'en to savage things—
  Above the gelid source of mountain springs,
  A solitary eagle, circling, flies.
O pathless woods, O isolating sea,
  O steppes interminable, hopeless, cold,
  O grievous distances, imagine ye,
Imprisoned here, the human soul to hold?
  Free, in a dungeon—as yon falcon free,—
  It soars beyond your ken, its loved ones to infold!

Mr. Charles F. Johnson of Trinity College, Hartford, in his 'What Can I Do for Brady? and Other Verse' (Whittaker), puts neatly a single thought at a time (p. 56):

THE SHAKESPEREAN PHRASE.

He took ten words from our English speech:
Two were such as mothers teach
Their children when they croon them rhymes
Or teach them legends of old times,
One he learned from his father's men,
One he picked up from "rare old Ben,"
Two he heard Marlowe use one day
At the Mitre Tavern after the play,
One he recalled from a ballad rude
That his comrades sang in Lucy's Wood,
Two he had heard on London street—
A verb and a noun now obsolete,
But full of pith in Elizabeth's reign—
And one he found in old Montaigne.

He set the Saxon words beside
The high-born Latin words of pride,
And lo! the ten words joined together
To make a phrase which lives for ever—
An immortal phrase of beauty and wit,
A luminous thought the soul of it,
But with no baffling wordy fence
Between the reader and the sense.
Genius finds in our every-day words
The music of the woodland birds,
Discloses hidden beauty furled
In the commonplace stuff of the every-day world.
And for her highest vision looks
To the world of men, not the world of books.

Philadelphia, always a city eminent for

physicians, is becoming a city where physicians are also poets, and Dr. Edward Willard Watson, in his 'Songs of Flying Hours' (Philadelphia: Coates), is no more afraid of writing poems on the actual themes of science than was Dr. O. W. Holmes of writing 'The Anatomist's Hymn.' The Philadelphian does his work, too, like his Boston precursor, with a thoroughness and dignity that disarm criticism (p. 146):

BACILLI.

For you no kindly power, with loving art,
Adorns and shapes, with beauty rare, each form.
Beneath the eye of man, in unseen part,
Ye, in the darkness of the infinite, swarm.
Everywhere, alway, in the calm or storm,
Within the living, waiting there the hour
When ye shall rise triumphant and o'erpower,
Within the dead, where carnival ye keep,
Ever invading as ye steal and cower,
Till, on some sultry wind, ye to your carnage leap.
Are ye, then, life? Like flowers and painted things
That poise in sunshine on their gilded wings,
That hum the note that louder still doth float,
Leaping heavenward, from the palpitating throat
Of every bird that skyward soars and sings?
Or are ye death, the desolate and drear,
Ever surrounding us with legions vast;
Evading sight, lurking in guilty fear
Where never can unaided glance be cast?
Are ye the silent foe of that blest power
Who, for us, works unceasing, day and night,
That hides from us its majesty and might
Within the blushing petals of the flower?
And, in the future, will the untiring hand
That builds again each shattered house of clay,
Conqueror, before death's flying legions stand,
And claim for all that lives a deathless day?

In 'Washington: A National Epic in Six Cantos' (Putnams) Mr. Edward Johnson Runk has produced a work in which it has been his aim, he tells us, "that truth should not be invaded by imagination." In this effort he has absolutely succeeded, having produced a hundred and thirty pages of extreme doggerel, in which the only touch of imagination is in his impassioned reference, near the end, to "world-famed Chauncey M. Depew," and to "the storied page of Roe." The concluding lines are:

"A halo rests round his person,
And Freedom knows one Washington."

There is, of course, some new Omar Khayyám literature—this time of American origin. Mr. John Leslie Garner prints a second edition of his own translations, under the title of 'The Stanzas of Omar Khayyám' (Philadelphia: Coates), and intersperses them, in a rather meaningless way, with mottoes in different languages and translations from other poets, old and new, prefacing all with an introduction. At the same time Mr. Condé Benoist Pullen publishes a 'New Rubáiyát' (St. Louis: Herder), in which he seriously undertakes to refute Omar's sinful levity and to substitute better views of the universe. He, however, renders his readers a service by reprinting FitzGerald's poem at the end. Yet, since every year makes it clearer that most of what endears the whole work to us is due to FitzGerald, and not to Omar, why should we not classify the book itself frankly with English literature, and no other—as we do, for instance, in the case of Chapman's Homer—and so come to an end of supplementary disquisitions, imitations, or rebuttals? A better piece of translation than Mr. Garner's, and perhaps, under the circumstances, more worth while, is the version of Pellico's tragedy of Francesca da Rimini, by the Rev. J. F. Bingham, D.D. (Cambridge, Mass.: Sever), which is accompanied with a good deal of learning and some interesting engravings of Italian buildings and localities.

Mr. Walter Learned, the author of 'Between Times,' has edited a 'Treasury of American Verse' (Stokes), which is the best collection of the kind known to us, except Mr. Horder's 'Treasury of American Sacred Song,' which is somewhat more limited in theme. Of course no two readers will agree as to the proper apportionment of space to authors, and some will find fault with the proportions allotted by Mr. Learned; but he has preserved many good things not always included in such collections, as, for instance, the text of the really deserving plantation melodies of the late Stephen C. Foster, whose pathetic cadences are in danger of being lost to sight among the trivial and meaningless "coon songs" now in vogue. Mr. Learned's transcript of his various verses is unusually letter-perfect. We note only a few variations from the recognized texts. Pinkney's ever-graceful 'A Health' (p. 290) was originally printed, if we mistake not, in stanzas containing four long lines each, which have been gradually divided since the author's death into eight short ones, for the convenience of compositors; and in quoting Mr. Higginson's sonnet 'Two Lessons' (p. 26), the editor omits the fine lines from Vergil, of which the whole sonnet is a free translation, and which the author prefixed as its motto:

"Disce, puer, virtutem ex me, verumque laborem;
Fortunam ex aliis."

In conclusion we would suggest that in future editions of this really excellent book the full names of authors should be printed, with a very few statistics as to birth, death, birthplace, and place of residence. There should also be, as is usual, an alphabetical index of the poems by their titles, as well as by their first lines.

SIR GEORGE NICHOLLS.

A History of the English Poor Law, in connection with the State of the Country and the Condition of the People. By Sir George Nicholls, K.C.B., Poor Law Commissioner and Secretary to the Poor Law Board. New edition, containing the revisions made by the author and a biography by H. G. Willink, Chairman of the Bradfield Poor Law Union. 2 vols. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1898.

There is a singular appropriateness about this new edition of Nicholls's well-known history. It appears at a time when the strongest Conservative Government of this generation is firmly established in power in England, pledged up to the eyes to "do something" in the direction of old-age pensions; a time, therefore, when the question of the relation of that modern poor law which Nicholls did so much to create to the industrial conditions of a country like England is being reconsidered in all its aspects. That the criticism of Mr. Chamberlain's and Mr. Charles Booth's proposals should be left entirely to the Charity Organization Society is, it must be confessed, not altogether satisfactory; and even those who feel most strongly the narrowness of its principles, will be glad to see it reinforced by the experience of the strong men of 1834.

There is another reason for welcoming the present reissue. Every one who knows anything of the actual administration of poor-law relief in England is aware that the Bradfield Union, first under the chairmanship of the late Mr. Stevens, the creator of Bradfield School, and then under that of the late Mr. Garland, has for a good many years been the model for rural unions all over England. It has been thought to show the possibility of almost entirely putting an end to out-door relief even in a purely agricultural district, and that without driving larger numbers into the workhouse or causing serious distress. To the present chairman of that union, himself the grandson of Nicholls, we now owe the sober and well-written account of Nicholls's life which is prefixed to these volumes, and which by its reticent brevity contrasts so favorably with much of the biographical writing of the day.

We could, indeed, have tolerated further particulars, for the man is more interesting than his book. Daniel O'Connell once tried to raise a laugh by assuming the absurdity of setting "a sea-skipper to regulate poor laws." A thorough old skipper Nicholls was to the end, as one may see from the excellent portrait here given. Mr. Willink describes him, from his own boyhood's recollections, as "a well-knit, alert old man, with keen gray eyes under extremely bushy eyebrows, rather austere but with a genuine smile," and, it may be added, with the firm chin and mouth of one who would carry either a ship or a public measure through every kind of storm. A life so varied in its activities as his deserves a passing glance.

The son of a Cornish farmer, George Nicholls got into the naval service of the East India Company, and was in command of a ship by the age of seven and twenty. He had made skilful use of the opportunities for trade on his own account which the Company allowed its officers, and when he married in 1813 he seemed on the high road to wealth. The year after, he lost his ship by fire, and, though exonerated from blame, he retired from the service with impaired fortunes, "a broken man." The next few years he spent in quiet country life; then, as his spirits returned, he began to throw himself into local administration, and in 1821, being just forty years of age, he accepted the unpaid office of overseer of the poor in the little town of Southwell. This was the turning-point of his life: his vigorous and successful measures to diminish outdoor relief and apply "the workhouse test" made Southwell a useful object-lesson to all poor-law reformers. But before he was called upon to apply the same principles to the whole country, his career had taken another unexpected turn. Asked to advise a friend about the Gloucester Canal, he showed such businesslike qualities that he was made superintendent of its construction, and moved to Gloucester in 1823. When the monetary crisis of 1826 brought with it the ruin of the old Gloucester private bank, he induced the Bank of England to open a branch, and so impressed the directors with his capacity that in a few months he was intrusted with the delicate task of establishing a branch at the much more considerable town of Birmingham. He had set the Birmingham office on its legs, and was getting a little tired of it—for "mere banking," he declares, "*i. e.*, the receipt and payment of money and the discount of bills, is, of all the associations with which it has been my lot to be connected, the least interesting and intellectual, the most narrowing and restrictive in its influence on character"—when Lord Melbourne invited him to become one of the Commissioners under the New Poor-Law Act of 1834.

Granting that the policy of the Act was a necessary one, there can be no question of the wisdom of the choice. What the Act aimed at was to put an end to the universal

and most demoralizing practice of granting outdoor relief from the rates, very largely "in aid of wages." A man of firm character was needed to meet the outcry which the measure was bound to produce. That the purpose of the act was in the main effected is matter of history. When we look back on the angry denunciations of the new system, with its "Poor-Law Bastilles," and of the "three Bashaws of Somerset House" who introduced it, we may wonder whether any such measure could possibly have been carried out under the democratic government of the England of to-day. As to the subsequent disputes with Sir James Graham concerning Nicholls's measures for the introduction of the new Irish poor law, the evidence here given is too scanty and (in no bad sense) one-sided to enable us to form an opinion. Ireland has always been a peculiarly difficult field for the English administrator, and *festina lente* was never Nicholls's motto. When the Commission was reorganized in 1847, Nicholls was made the scapegoat of the Government, and sank from being senior Commissioner to being permanent Secretary. But this post still furnished him with congenial employment till he retired with his K.C.B. in 1851. Still unsatiated with work, he spent the last fourteen years of his life in writing his histories of English, Irish, and Scotch Poor Law and in guiding, as chairman, the deliberations of the Birmingham Canal directorate.

No one can read Mr. Willink's sketch without feeling that Nicholls deserved well of his country. Things had got to such a pass in 1834 that rough surgery was doubtless necessary. But it may be questioned whether Nicholls and his colleagues made sufficient allowance for human nature. The recent practice of "boarding out" on one side and the establishment of the casual ward on the other—not to speak of the return of a good deal of outdoor relief—are alike departures from the simplicity of the programme of 1834. The "immense scale," as a recent writer expresses it, upon which the new workhouses were planned, which now contain in most cases not half the inmates for whom they were intended, shows that they were expected to do a work which as a matter of fact they have not done.

After what we have said of the author, the reader of Nicholls's History will hardly expect to find in it any particular breadth of view, extensive historical knowledge, or literary skill. The first half follows Sir Frederick Eden and the Statutes of the Realm in a leisurely jogtrot fashion, taking statute after statute just as they come in the statute-book, so long as they have anything to do with "the condition of the people," and commenting upon them in a sensible, though often imperfectly informed, fashion. Thus his chapters present a convenient summary of all the economic legislation of England down to the middle of last century, and they breathe an optimism that is very cheering after the lamentations of Prof. Thorold Rogers and his disciples. He even believes that the justices' assessment of wages in the sixteenth century kept pace with the rise in the price of food!

The latter part of the book, dealing with the evils that called forth the great reform of 1834, and with the first twenty years' administration of the act, is much more original, and still forms the most complete account of the poor-law history of the period. It is also much narrower in its scope than the earlier part; the reader will not learn from it of the existence of Malthus or of his Essay upon Population, which first turned the attention of thoughtful men to the inevitable consequences of the allowance plan; and he will not suspect that the period was one of profound changes in the structure of industrial society. The History becomes a sort of glorified Blue-book, with the usual limitations of such performances; but it is a permanently useful Blue-book, for all that.

The History of South Carolina under the Proprietary Government, 1670-1719. By Edward McCrady. Macmillan. 1897. Pp. ix, 762.

To many readers a considerable part of the interest and importance of Mr. McCrady's book will be thought to lie in its exposition of the formative influences in early Carolina history, and the early adoption of a distinctive social and political point of view. From the first the position of Carolina was one of comparative isolation. On the north a broad stretch of wilderness, penetrated only by Indian trails, separated it from Virginia, while on the south it touched, if it did not overlap, Spanish territory. Itself an outpost of the English advance, communication with the other English continental colonies was difficult and infrequent. While its situation, therefore, favored an independent development, its natural affiliation was soon seen to be with the colonies of the West Indies, particularly Barbados. The part taken by the Barbadians in the early affairs of South Carolina has nowhere been so carefully examined as in Mr. McCrady's volume. Emigrants from Barbados came to the colony in large numbers, bringing with them not only their property and their religion, but also an established social order the distinctive characteristic of which was an aristocracy based upon the institution of negro slavery. It was this system that was transplanted full-grown to South Carolina, and that maintained itself, without radical modification, in the midst of the new conditions. In point of social stability and definiteness, accordingly, the colony early reached a relatively more advanced stage than some of its neighbors, where the operation of new or varied conditions tended to delay the formation of a predominant and enduring type.

So, again, with the pronounced disposition to construe constitutional provisions strictly—a theory of which South Carolina was later to become a foremost champion. Mr. McCrady finds the historical beginnings of this in the struggle between the colony and the Proprietors. Locke's "Fundamental Constitutions," which for more than thirty years the Proprietors sought, in one way or another, to force upon the colony, not only was an impossible attempt to reëstablish an outgrown mediævalism, but was also in opposition to the charter under which the Proprietors were to make laws only with the advice and consent of the freemen. The struggle for this charter privilege, and against the arbitrary acts of the Proprietors, is treated by Mr. McCrady in great detail. The story is the familiar one of restricted powers, restlessness, legal quibbling, and enlarging claims, on the part of the colony, and, on the part of the Proprietors, of arbitrary interference with affairs, incompetence to deal with a confessedly difficult situation, complaints, and intrigues. Throughout the fifty years of proprietary rule, however, the colony relied upon the guarantees of its charter, whether as against the "Fundamental Constitutions" or against proprietary schemes in other forms, and learned to seek its economic and political safety in a strict interpretation of its charter provisions. Trained thus early in a strict-construction atmosphere, and maintaining at the same time a social life remarkable for self-reliance and solidarity, South Carolina gave to its political thinking a bent which was ever afterwards retained. It would be interesting to know how far this view of the historical origin of strict construction would be borne out by a study of the history of South Carolina under royal control—a study, by the way, which Mr. McCrady intimates his purpose to make.

We have called attention to these two points as prominent features of Mr. McCrady's book. The work as a whole is an exhaustive study of the period to which it is devoted, and in the field of American colonial history is fairly to be called a contribution of the first order. We can do little more than mention the other important matters considered. The position of the dissenters, especially during the famous attempt of the church party to override them and obtain permanent control of affairs, is lucidly explained, as is that of the Huguenots and the struggle for their enfranchisement. The peculiar importance of Charleston, as not only the seat of government, but as the focus and, to a large extent, the theatre, of its social and political life, centralized the interests and activities of South Carolina to a degree unknown in the other colonies.

"Until the immigration of the Scotch-Irish and Virginians into the upper country by the way of the mountains, from 1750 to 1760, the development of the colony was not, as in New England, from many and distinct settlements or towns, but from one point, the circle enlarging as the population increased, but always with reference to the one central point—the town—Charles Town. . . . For many years Charles Town practically embodied all of Carolina. Beaufort, the next town to be settled, was not attempted for more than forty years after the planting of the colony, and Georgetown not until some years later. Until 1716, elections were generally held in the town for all the province, and representation outside of it—that by parishes—was not practically established until the overthrow of the Proprietary Government in 1719. No court of general jurisdiction was held outside of it until 1773, over a hundred years after the establishment of the colony. There was only one government for the province, the town, and the church. The same General Assembly passed laws for the province, laid out streets, regulated the police for the town, and governed the church. Even after the colony had grown, and the upper country had been peopled from another source, every magistrate in the province was appointed in Charles Town until the Revolution of 1776, and after that, upon the adoption of the Constitution of 1790 and the change of the seat of government to Columbia, at that place. There was thus from the inception of the colony in 1665 to the overthrow of the State in 1865, for two hundred years, only one government in South Carolina. There was no such thing as a county or township government of any kind." (Pp. 6, 7.)

The account of the efforts to suppress piracy is one of the most entertaining parts of the volume. Mr. McCrady is particularly anxious to show that the pirates who for years infested the South Carolina coast, and whose suppression proved a work of such great difficulty, not only were not themselves South Carolina men, but, further, had

neither sympathy nor support from the people of that colony; and he objects seriously to the phrase "South Carolina pirates," as conveying an entirely wrong impression. With equal vigor, though, we think, with less success, he defends the colony against the charge of neglecting the interests of education in its early years. Finally, the steps in the transfer of the colony from proprietary to royal control are minutely traced, with especial regard to the condition of affairs in England, the attitude of Chief Justice Trott, and the legal questions involved.

Mr. McCrady has done his work so thoroughly, and, in general, so well, as to make one regret that he did not build on a somewhat broader plan. The defect of his history, as it seems to us, is its too exclusive devotion to political and legal matters. Undoubtedly the documentary sources on which he has mainly relied, and of which he has made admirable use, furnish much more abundant material in these directions than in others; from the standpoint of a well-rounded survey of the period, however, the space devoted to economic and social questions seems small. Occasionally, also, the mass of detail becomes somewhat excessive, and tends to obscure the main course of events. These, however, are by no means fatal weaknesses, nor do they detract seriously from the commendation to which the work is justly entitled.

We have noted a number of misprints, most of them, apparently, attributable to hasty proof-reading. The "General Assembly of the *States*" (p. 30) should, of course, read "State," as on page 31. Of misprinted proper names we find *Saye* for Sayle (p. 186, note), and *Spottswood* for Spotswood (p. 442, note). The Dorchester colonists are probably to be thought of as "threading" their way up the Ashley River, instead of *treading*, as on page 327. The witchcraft excitement in Salem was in 1692-93, not in 1691-92 (p. 451). Mr. S. C. Hughson, the author of 'The Carolina Pirates and Colonial Commerce,' has a particularly unfortunate time of it; for not only does Mr. McCrady object to the title of his monograph, but substitutes *Commons Journal* for it on page 586, assigns it to series 2, instead of series 12 of the Johns Hopkins Studies, in the same place, gives the author's name as *Hughuson* (p. 204, note 3), and transposes the initials in the index. The "Thomas Ash" mentioned on page 386 appears as "John Ash" in the index. The absence of a table of contents, and of any chapter headings except dates, makes the volume difficult to consult, notwithstanding the full index.

Introduction aux Etudes Historiques. Par Ch.-V. Langlois et Ch. Seignobos. Paris: Hachette et Cie. 1898.

This is a book which takes one back at once to first principles. It would form an excellent text for a long article in some quarterly review; an article conceived in the fashion of fifty years ago, when the writer's aim was not so much to criticise the work nominally under his hand as to express his own general notions on the subject. We do not mean to say that MM. Langlois and Seignobos furnish little substance of their own: their pages abound in ideas and in carefully considered statements about method; but by trying to define and fix the limits of scientific history, they disclose the whole question of what history is and is worth. We cannot, of course, enter upon an academic dissertation here, and yet there is one obvious distinction which we should like to make. When the assailant of historical studies urges, let us say, Walpole's dictum, "Anything but history, for history must be false," or one of a dozen such flings, he fails to disconnect chronology from the analysis of motive and character, or from the delineation of a public policy. A vast body of fact about the past can be established on a basis so solid that your only sceptic will be one who is unwilling to admit the existence of matter. The Benedictines of St. Maur chose a most judicious title in calling their monumental work 'L'Art de Vérifier les Dates.' The best history of this class is impregnably founded. The Oath of the Tennis Court, the Declaration of Independence, the Revolution of 1688 are, as actual events, no more to be challenged than the truths of Euclid. In discussing them, to be sure, we are apt soon to get outside ascertained fact, we are apt to dogmatize too freely. Even so, is this vice not to be laid at the door of metaphysics? The moment a man begins to use the facts of history he passes into another province. In ceasing to be an epitomist he becomes a philosopher.

M. Langlois, who writes a necessary introduction, has small patience with the attempts of his predecessors in the exposition of historical method, *e. g.*, Droysen, Freeman, Tardif, and Chevalier. "Vous n'en extrairez, en fait d'idées claires, que des vérités évidentes par elles-mêmes, des vérités de La Palice." And soon after, in referring to them separately, Droysen's 'Grundriss der Historik' "est lourd, pédantesque, et confus au delà de ce que l'on peut imaginer. MM. Freeman, Tardif, Chevalier ne disent rien qui ne soit élémentaire et prévu." This criticism, however brusque, is at least open, and shows that its author puts forward his own treatise with confidence. Bernheim's 'Lehrbuch der historischen Methode' seems to be the nearest anticipation of this present product of the Sorbonne. Even Bernheim, by going too far into metaphysical problems, by passing too lightly over critical and practical questions, leaves something to be desired. MM. Langlois and Seignobos set before themselves a scientific goal. "Nous nous proposons ici d'examiner les conditions et les procédés, et d'indiquer le caractère et les limites de la connaissance en histoire. Comment arrive-t-on à savoir, du passé, ce qu'il est possible et ce qu'il importe d'en savoir? Qu'est-ce qu'un document? Comment traiter les documents en vue de l'œuvre historique? Qu'est-ce que les faits historiques? Et comment les grouper pour construire l'œuvre historique?"

The audience to which this essay on historical method is addressed contains, first and foremost, novices in historical composition; and the moral they will do well to draw from it is the old advice of the 'Ars Poetica':

> "Sumite materiam vestris, qui scribitis, aequam
> Viribus, et versate diu, quid ferre recusent,
> Quid valeant umeri."

It is a common gibe that such students as find themselves unable to score a success in any other profession go into the church, and likewise, during those recent years since history has established its place in the arts curriculum, one has heard the hint that historical courses are crowded by men who follow the line of least resistance. MM. Langlois and Seignobos are anxious to show that something besides memory and diligence are required of the historical tyro. They accumulate enough difficulties to impress the logic-chopper, perhaps even the mathematician, with the idea that some hard processes must be undergone before scientific history of the approved modern type is produced. One must distinguish, too, between instinctive processes and rational processes. "Les débutants et la plupart des personnes qui n'ont jamais réfléchi sur les principes de la méthode des sciences historiques, emploient, pour effectuer ces opérations [compliquées de critique et de construction], des procédés instinctifs qui n'étant pas, en général, des procédés rationnels, ne conduisent pas d'ordinaire à une vérité scientifique." All of which goes to show a doubting world that there is a scientific history quite apart from fine writing and from the habitual backing of one's party views through thick and thin.

Historical science, when a few more generations have rolled over its head, may develop a long terminology. Even at present it can appear at the assembly of foxes without having to lament the absence of a brush. MM. Langlois and Seignobos discuss "critique de restitution," "critique de provenance," "critique interne négative de sincérité et d'exactitude," "construction des formules générales," with the same precision which they would use in dealing with atomic weights. An experience of nearly a century in the application of criticism to the study and presentation of historical sources has something to show for itself, and were Gibbon to write again, even though he would have little to unlearn, he could gain a more rigid correctness by following the technical processes of modern erudition. Our professors of the Sorbonne furnish in compact form pretty much what one masters by rule of thumb in the better German seminaries, with this difference that pungency and a sense of style add considerably to the value of their teaching. Their matter is digested under the three heads of preliminary knowledge, analytical methods, and the steps in synthesis required by the preparation of a narrative. The second and third books, devoted respectively to "opérations analytiques" and "opérations synthétiques," are the essential parts of the treatise. Did space permit we would gladly give an outline of the main propositions advanced, for they embody the rules of the historical game as at present played. They represent common sense added to experience and inspired by the love of exact truth. From the first chapter, on *Heuristik*, to the last, on exposition, an even standard of thoughtfulness and lucidity is maintained. MM. Langlois and Seignobos are depressing in their allusions to what purports to be the historical literature of the modern world. The writers of universal celebrity seem to be peccant almost without exception. "There is none that doeth good, no not one," is the feeling created. We gather that, after the work of erudition has been completed by thousands of self-effacing toilers, the time may come when a proper co-ordination will be possible. Over against this wholesome humility we would place the sound scholarship of the authors. The examples which they take to emphasize their points are numerous and selected from a wide area. They show, particularly, an intimate acquaintance with periodical litera-

ture and with the moot questions which have been threshed out by historians since magazines and monographs were multiplied.

Lord Acton, in his inaugural address at Cambridge, praises the robust impartiality which is not content with balancing party views against each other, but is willing to state an opponent's case more strongly than he would put it himself. Bearing in mind the rivalry of France and Germany, we have been curious to observe the attitude of scientific French historians like MM. Langlois and Seignobos towards their German *confrères*. "Robust impartiality" would lead them to illustrate historical vices by French, and historical virtues by German, examples. This they seem disinclined to do. Certainly no painful politeness is evident, and if the Germans, considering what they have done for historical science during the present century, receive fair treatment, that is all. Intrinsically, most of the criticism aimed at them is just. MM. Langlois and Seignobos might, however, have adopted a strain more in harmony with the principles of their work, by so couching their illustrations that the reader would never be reminded of any differences outside the domain of pure history.

Certain Tragical Discourses of Bandello. Translated into English by Geffraie Fenton. With an Introduction by Robert Langton Douglas. 2 vols. London: Nutt. 1898. [Tudor Translations.]

These melancholy tales of Bandello, dealing with the calamities incident to the votaries of love, found, like the other Italian *novelle*, eager readers among the English of the Elizabethan age. They were put into French by Belleforest (whom every Shaksperian will remember in connection with "Hamlet" and "Romeo and Juliet"), who had a high opinion of his own literary gifts, and embroidered the simple style of Bandello with classical allusions, poetical flourishes, and other rhetorical tinsel. Belleforest's version fell into the hands of Jeffrey Fenton, who employed, as he says, some of his "voyed hours" in putting it into English. Fenton was a Puritan, and in his hands Bandello's tales became texts for copious sermonizing; so that, what with the pedantry of Belleforest and the long-winded moralizings of Fenton, the genial Milanese is "translated" much as Bottom was.

Like all the Puritans, the great Milton among the rest, Fenton has a low opinion of the female sex. "Women," he tells us, "have their being in this worlde for no other respect than to depende upon the will of men." They are "derived from the imperfection of men," and "ordained from the beginning to be their vassals." Should a wife fail in awe towards her husband, he should freely use "the rodd of correction." He is, indeed, a most outspoken and conscientious wife-beater. We cannot, he tells us, begin too young with these perverse creatures—"these ympes," as he calls them, "who have follye tyed on their backes"; and those who have charge of "lytle girles" must often "minister to them the racke and tormentes of the rodde." As Fenton did not marry until pretty late in life, and then took to wife the widow of a bishop, one is a little curious to know how far he put his theories into practice.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barnett, Edith A. A Champion in the Seventies. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Calderwood, Henry. David Hume. Scribners. 75c.
Dorr, Julia C. R. In King's Houses. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Goetz, P. B. Poems. Boston: R. G. Badger & Co. $1.25.
Hamill, S. S. Easy Lessons in Vocal Culture. Eaton & Mains. 60c.
Johnston, R. M. Pearce Amerson's Will. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Kahn, Ruth W. The First Quarter. Cincinnati: Editor Publishing Co. $1.
Leonard, J. W. Best Things by Chauncey M. Depew. Chicago: A. N. Marquis & Co. $1.
Mahan, Capt. A. T. The Interest of America in Sea Power Present and Future. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $2.
Norris, Mary H. The Gray House of the Quarries. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.50.
Page, T. N. Pastime Stories. Scribners. $1.25.
Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám. Translated into English verse by Edward FitzGerald. San Francisco: William Doxey. 50c.
Shaw, Bernard. Plays: Pleasant and Unpleasant. 2 vols. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Wheat in the Ear. By Alien. Putnams. $1.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 9, 1898.

The Week.

Numerous motives combine to make the admiring gratification over Lieut. Hobson's feat in blocking the channel of Santiago harbor both intense and universal. It was a daring exploit, maturely planned and bravely and brilliantly executed. Say what we will of heroes of peace and of civic courage equalling military, there is something in such a crowded hour of glorious life that sets the pulses leaping in unwonted fashion. The cool measuring of danger, joined with proud contempt of it; the importance of the end aimed at, and the complete success with which it was attained; the calm ignoring of the terrible risks run, and the entire self-effacement of the young officer and his heroic crew make Lieut. Hobson's deed one of the most notable in naval annals—and high and reckless daring is the characteristic note of naval annals. The fact that Hobson is a Southerner is also one to cause especial satisfaction both North and South. As a result of the civil war, almost all the higher officers of the navy are now from the North; and it was a peculiarly happy thing that this strong appeal to a united national sentiment should have been made by a man from the South. The lofty personal bravery of the men who ran the non-combatant *Merrimac* into the throat of the channel and sank her there, is clearly what woke the admiration of the Spanish Admiral. He did the handsome thing in at once sending out word that our heroes were uninjured, and that he would be glad to restore such brave men to their fleet by exchange.

The fine work at Santiago means that the policy of slow and sure has been adopted. Not a ship or a life will be risked unnecessarily. Cervera will be penned in Santiago until the time comes to capture or destroy his squadron with the least possible hazard to our ships and men. Extensive campaigning in any other part of Cuba is scarcely to be looked for. Indeed, it may not be needed at all, if Santiago is taken and Porto Rico swooped upon as is now said to be planned. One thing is certain: we can endure a deliberate campaign better than Spain. We can better afford to see the cost of the war mount up by delay than to make a needless sacrifice of life to hasten matters; whereas it is precisely the financial pinch of the war, with a hopeless outcome all the while inevitable, that is breaking down even the high spirit of Spain, and that must soon, one hopes, lead to proposals for peace.

The news received from Spain is conflicting. On the one hand, we are told that the financial embarrassments of the Government are so great that the war must come to an end soon from lack of money. On the other hand, Premier Sagasta is quoted as saying that the war will be prosecuted with vigor, and that Spain will never yield an inch of her territory. Señor Sagasta is better authority than the newspaper reporters. Spain's financial resources are slender, but they are not so near exhaustion as the cable reports would imply. The run on the Bank of Spain may carry off the silver of that institution without doing it much harm. It will then refuse to redeem its notes. In other words, it will be bankrupt with a large stock of gold in its vaults, and this gold the Government will in one way or another find means to lay its hands on. The country can carry on the war with paper money and fractional currency for a year or two, and in the meantime some help may be secured on hard terms from the money-lenders of Paris. The internal resources of the country may even yield another loan. A "bond issue" of $200,000,000 is now advertised, payable probably in silver or notes of the Bank of Spain. Such a loan if taken would not yield more than $100,000,000, gold value. It would not last more than a year at the present rate, but would still leave a margin of fighting power by the issue of irredeemable currency. The Confederate States carried on war a good while in this way. Therefore it would be quite unsafe to assume that Spain will stop fighting very soon merely for want of money.

The Senate has made numerous minor amendments of the revenue bill as it came from the House of Representatives, as well as some of a vital nature. The proposed tax on the gross receipts of corporations finally dwindled down to a "special excise tax" of one-fourth of 1 per cent. on the gross annual receipts of refiners of sugar and petroleum in excess of $250,000. This was proposed, not as a revenue measure, but as a blow at the Standard Oil and Sugar Companies. It is doubtful if it will pass the House of Representatives, doubtful if it will be sustained by the courts, and doubtful if it will be paid by the refining companies rather than by the people who buy their products. The provisions in regard to stamp taxes were modified and extended, but the changes are in most cases immaterial, and in general in accordance with fiscal principles. Every one now who draws a check, or takes a receipt, or buys a bond or a share of stock, or gives a mortgage, or ships a parcel of goods, or takes out a policy of insurance, or hires a house, or gives a proxy or a power of attorney, or buys a ticket for Europe, or sends a message by telegraph or telephone, or takes a seat or berth in a Pullman car, or buys anything at a drug-store, or anything except food that is sold under a patent right or trade-mark, will know that he is contributing to the expense of the war. Bankers and brokers have to pay special taxes; bankers being taxed on their capital and surplus, and brokers by license-fees. Savings banks, however, are exempted. The tax on legacies and distributive shares of personal property is a very severe one, in view of the extent to which many of the States have already adopted such taxation. It is a graduated tax, and in the case of estates of a million dollars may amount to 15 per cent. On the whole, the measure, even if modified, is calculated to bring the existence of taxation to the knowledge of every household, and this is not a bad idea.

The interests of the newspapers were carefully "conserved" by the Senate in adjusting taxation. No stamp tax is to be paid on packages of newspapers weighing less than one hundred pounds, when sent by express, although this tax is imposed on all other packages. This amendment was advocated by Senator Allen of Nebraska, on the ground that there should be no restraints on the diffusion of intelligence, anything printed being properly so classified, according to his view. Senator Wolcott, however, opposed the amendment in some rather striking remarks. He pointed out that the serial publications of the United States pay 3 per cent. of the revenue and occasion 65 per cent. of the expense of the mail service; that the "country press," in behalf of which Senator Allen pleaded, make no use of the express service at all, while the great city papers, aided by the fast mail trains put on for their accommodation, send 6,000,000 packages by express annually. The tax on this business would be but $60,000 a year, and Senator Wolcott thought a tax on circulation also would be a very equitable tax. He added the following remarks, which, however, had no effect on the vote of the Senate:

> "If the condition were imposed that the daily statements of circulation should be accepted as complete evidence of the number of copies sold, such a tax would produce at least $100,000,000 a year. The newspapers had been largely instrumental in leading to the war, and they ought not to object to bearing their share of the burden. There were, he said, newspapers and newspapers. The time had been when the newspapers were educators in the household, but they had gradually become sensational and cared nothing for the truth. They resorted to all sorts of slanders and misrepresentations, and had much to do with bringing about the existing state of affairs. He thought it beneath contempt for Congress to say that all the newspapers

of the United States could not pay the $60,000 a year which would be their share of the stamp tax on packages."

Senator Hoar's address at the Bryn Mawr commencement on Thursday contained truth that was wholesome for the occasion, and would have been wholesome if uttered in the Senate chamber. The Senator, to be sure, averred that the great questions of our future, and of the fate of the republic, were to be settled "at mothers' knees," and so perhaps justified himself in saying boldly to the fair girl graduates what he has not said in the Senate. There is, in truth, something plausible in the view that there is more hope in appealing to an unborn Senate than to the one in actual life. But it would at least have been a better way of letting the country know what is the sentiment of conservative and educated Massachusetts, if the things said at Bryn Mawr had been spoken at Washington. Mr. Hoar's courage, as a strict party man, might not have been equal to declaring in the Senate, as he did at the college, that political parties and tariffs and banks, and even presidents as opposed to monarchs, are of no account compared with sentiments of honor and justice in the individual citizen and in the counsels and action of the republic; but truth like that deserves a wider audience. The Senator asked, with evident reference to current events, if the controlling motives and passions of our national conduct were to be avarice, glory, and power, and if through them we were to go the way of the great empires of the past. Our flag, he said, was not the symbol of dominion or of empire, but of freedom, self-government, law, equality, and justice. This is Mr. Hoar's scarcely veiled protest against the grasping policy. As we say, it would have been an excellent one to deliver in the Senate, only there the Senator would have had to make a personal confession that he himself had contributed not a little to the forcing upon the country of the policy at which he now stands aghast.

Two men were indicted by the grand jury in the Federal Court for the District of Alaska in December, 1896, for selling liquors without having first complied with the law regulating their sale. The defendants moved to quash the indictment upon various grounds, and the case was carried to the Court of Appeals. Several of these points were purely technical, and of no interest except to members of the legal profession. But one of them went to the very heart of the question of Territorial government by Congress, and is of the first importance. It was contended that the law upon which the prosecution was based was unconstitutional, because the Government of the United States can exercise only those specific powers conferred upon it by the Constitution; that the Constitution guarantees to the citizen the right to own, hold, and acquire property, and makes no distinction as to the character of the property; that intoxicating liquors are property, and are subject to exchange, barter, and traffic, like any other commodity in which a right of property exists; that inasmuch as the power to regulate commerce was committed to Congress to relieve it from all restrictions, Congress cannot itself impose restrictions upon commerce by prohibiting the sale of a particular commodity; and that, if Congress has the power to regulate the sale of intoxicating liquors within the Territories as a police regulation, it can only enact laws applicable to all the Territories alike.

Judge Morrow, declaring the decision of the court upon these claims, said:

"The answer to these and the other like objections urged in the brief of counsel for defendant is found in the now well-established doctrine that the Territories of the United States are entirely subject to the legislative authority of Congress. They are not organized under the Constitution, nor subject to its complex distribution of the powers of government as the organic law, but are the creation, exclusively, of the legislative department, and subject to its supervision and control. The United States having rightfully acquired the Territories, and being the only government which can impose laws upon them, have the entire dominion and sovereignty, national and municipal, Federal and State. Under this full and comprehensive authority, Congress has unquestionably the power to exclude intoxicating liquors from any or all of its Territories, or limit their sale under such regulations as it may prescribe. It may legislate in accordance with the special needs of each locality, and vary its regulations to meet the circumstances of the people. Whether the subject elsewhere would be a matter of local police regulations or within the State control under some other power, it is immaterial to consider; in a Territory, all the functions of government are within the legislative jurisdiction of Congress, and may be exercised through a local government or directly by such legislation as we have now under consideration."

In other words, if the United States were to acquire Porto Rico and the Philippines, for example, it could govern either absolutely according to its own will. It might establish one form of government for Porto Rico and another totally different for the Philippines; it could let some people or all people vote in Porto Rico, and none in the Philippines; it could establish a high-license system in Porto Rico, and pass a prohibitory law for the Philippines; in short, it would possess all the functions of government for both, and could exercise those functions in the case of either as it chose.

The Republicans of Oregon have been a good deal demoralized on the financial question in the past, through the influence of ex-Senator Mitchell, who thought he could secure another term by favoring the free-coinage heresy; but they have abandoned the policy of compromise this year, and in their platform came out "flatfooted" in favor of the gold standard and in unqualified opposition to the free coinage of silver, "and to all other schemes looking to the debasement of the currency and the repudiation of debts," while they "condemn the continued agitation for free silver as calculated to jeopardize the prosperity of the country and to shake the confidence of the people in the maintenance of a wise financial policy." The election, which took place on Monday, appears to have resulted, deservedly, in a decisive Republican victory on both State and congressional tickets. It was largely the 1896 contest over again, the Republicans and Gold Democrats facing a motley array of opponents known as the "People's-Democratic-Silver-Republican ticket." This happy result comes opportunely to stiffen the House Republicans in their opposition to the "seigniorage" folly, and to the policy of throwing even that sop to the silverites. And Mr. Bryan, when he learns that the returns from the country districts show large losses from the vote polled for him two years ago, can devote himself even more assiduously to the study of tactics and the pursuit of military glory.

The contest which Quay makes in Pennsylvania this year will engage the attention of the whole country, for it involves not simply the personal fortunes of the boss or the fate of his party in the November election, but also the question whether Pennsylvania is to have a republican form of government. Quay controlled the last Legislature absolutely, but the Governor was not subservient to him, and blocked various machine schemes, either by the use of the veto power after the bills were passed, or by preventing their passage through the threat of such action. Quay has now forced the nomination for Governor of a man whom he owns. If he can secure the election of such an executive and at the same time of a Legislature which he controls, the machine will absolutely govern the State. The first skirmish for this legislative control is not calculated to encourage the opponents of the boss. Chester County elected three anti-Quay men to the last Legislature, and the forces which Mr. Wanamaker has represented sought to renominate them upon their merits in this particular. The primaries were held on Saturday, and Mr. Wanamaker visited the county on Friday to deliver a speech and rally the opposition to Quay. But the boss easily carried the day, and the county convention has since put up three men who will be his mere tools, in place of the late independent legislators.

At the International Congress of Actuaries recently held in London a paper was read which unfortunately possesses a deeper interest for American readers than it would have under ordinary circumstances. The communication relat-

ed to the mortality in the British army and navy during former and recent years, and disclosed a very remarkable improvement in the rate. During the decade preceding 1865, the average death-rate per 1,000 men in the navy was from disease 11.7, from violence 4.2, making a total of 15.9. But for the ten years preceding 1895 the corresponding rates were from disease 4.4, from violence 2.6, a total of 7.0. In 1895 the actual death-rate per 1,000 in the navy was only 1.8 in excess of the rate to be expected according to Dr. Sprague's select life tables. In the army the death-rate between 1866 and 1875 was at home 10.6 and abroad 16.9, or for the whole army 13.8. In the period 1886-1895 the corresponding rates were reduced to 5.5 for the troops in the United Kingdom and 13.3 abroad, or for the total army 9.4. In 1895 the excess in the army over the average for select lives was but 4.7. If progress should continue after this fashion, men will enter military service to prolong their lives, and the apprehensions aroused in Mark Twain's mind at the appalling numbers of people who die in their beds will become general.

The addresses delivered in Parliament the day after Mr. Gladstone's death were most of them of high merit, and together constituted a remarkable tribute to the dead statesman. His long-time rival, Lord Salisbury, in his brief but generous remarks, singled out Gladstone's invariably "high moral ideal" as the one thing, more effective even than his intellectual gifts, which explained his astonishing power of attaching men to him, and which made of him "a great example—of which history hardly furnishes a parallel, of a great Christian man." The Duke of Devonshire, speaking for the Liberal Unionists who broke away from Mr. Gladstone in 1886, testified that he and his colleagues never doubted that the leader whom they could no longer follow had been "actuated by no other consideration than that of public duty, and by his conception of that which was in the highest interests of his country." Lord Rosebery's speech excelled all the others in taste and force and elevated pathos, and his characterization of Mr. Gladstone's mental and moral power was both searching and just. Mr. Balfour, too, in the Commons, spoke with unwonted enthusiasm about Mr. Gladstone's supreme and easy mastery of that House. Not from Parliamentary records, he said, would it ever be possible to reconstruct any living likeness of what Mr. Gladstone was as Leader of the House, or of the Opposition: "Posterity must take it upon our testimony what he was to those, friends or foes, whose fortune it was to be able to hear him."

The award of Sir Nicholas John Hannen, Chief Justice of her Britannic Majesty's Supreme Court of China and Japan, in the Cheek case is another triumph for arbitration, for not only has it been received with good grace by Siam, the losing party, but it furnishes an authoritative settlement of an important question of international law. Dr. Marion A. Cheek, a citizen of this country, made a contract in 1890 with the Government of Siam under which they advanced him a large sum of money to aid him in carrying on the teak trade, and he was to raft the logs from the forests of northern Siam to Bangkok, where they were to be sold and the profits divided between him and the Siamese Government. Cheek was to pay interest on the loan, which was secured by a mortgage on his property, consisting for the most part of 150 elephants. After the first year he could not, owing to droughts, get sufficient teak to Bangkok to meet his engagement, and in 1892 the Siamese Government, having determined that he had violated its conditions, seized his logs and placed his affairs in the hands of a receiver appointed by themselves. Later they issued an administrative order preventing him from following his business in northern Siam, leaving him with many useless elephants on his hands.

By our treaty of 1856 with that government the interests of all American citizens in Siam are placed under the regulation and control of the Consul-General of the United States, and all the disputes arising between them and Siamese subjects must be heard and determined by him in conjunction with certain Siamese officers. Not only was Cheek's case not carried by Siam before our consular court, but all the proceedings were taken administratively and in spite of the protests of our consular representative. From 1891 to 1897 there was a constant dispute between the two governments relative to this matter, but in July of the latter year, Mr. Barrett, our efficient Minister and Consul-General at Bangkok, who had been especially instructed by Mr. Cleveland to secure its settlement, signed a protocol with Prince Devawongse, submitting the whole case to the eminent English jurist already mentioned. In less than two months the arbitrator examined all the statements, pleadings, proofs, cases, and counter cases, and pronounced a judgment finally disposing of the troublesome matter, at the same time removing much of the uncertainty as to the extent of extra-territorial jurisdiction, a question in which all European governments as well as our own are interested. The decision in effect is that the seizure of Cheek's property was a violation of the treaty between the United States and Siam; that Cheek had not made any default in the performance of the conditions of his contract when properly construed; and that the order suspending his business, issued by Siam on the ground that he had not complied with such conditions, was, therefore, unjustifiable. Under this decision, Siam must pay $200,000 and release Cheek's elephants from all liens and claims.

Attention is called by the *Journal of Commerce* to the introduction by the President of the Board of Trade of Great Britain of a parliamentary measure intended to reduce the charges now levied on shipping for the support of harbors and lighthouses. These charges amount to a considerable burden on commerce, and a modification of the tax has long been urged. It has produced, owing to the vast increase of shipping, considerably more than it now costs to maintain the lighthouses, and is in so far indefensible under a free-trade policy. In fact, the tax is really a survival from the days when highways were supported by tolls. The principle, which is perfectly reasonable, theoretically, is that those who use the highway, or are guided by the lighthouse, shall pay for maintaining these conveniences. But in practice, as soon as traffic expands, it is found to be advantageous to abandon the attempt to assess a specific sum on every vehicle, and to make the cost of facilitating travel a common charge. In this respect the policy of the United States may be regarded as more advanced than that of England.

The final results of the French elections look less favorable for the ministry. The loss of a seat by the Colonial Minister, and the defeat of several other candidates who were expected to take office under M. Méline, were severe blows to the Premier, and his majority turns out but slight and precarious. According to the latest figures, the ministerialist members of the Chamber will number 291, with ten or a dozen more doubtfully to be counted upon. The Conservatives have elected 49, the Radicals 104, the Socialist-Radicals 107, and the Anti-Semites 20. Here, then, is a cabinet majority of only 10 to 20 in an Assembly containing a great many turbulent elements. This is, in the French Chamber, distinctly not a working majority. Unless M. Méline can make some speedy adjustments with the opposing factions, the prospect is that enough of his own supporters will soon be detached to leave him in a minority. At present he is weaker than before May 1. All his subservience to the military spirit, as it showed itself willing to trample upon justice in the Dreyfus and Zola cases, all M. Hanotaux's appeals to Salisbury not to press him too hard in the West Africa dispute until after the elections, have profited little. There is no need of possible foreign complications to make the political outlook appear stormy.

THE REVENUE BILL.

The revenue bill, as passed by the Senate on Saturday, differs in many particulars from the same bill as passed by the House, but chiefly in the two following: (1) "coining the seigniorage"; (2) putting an import duty of 10 cents per pound on tea. Incidentally it was proved that a majority of the Senate could not be obtained for a new issue of greenbacks. On this point the majority of the finance committee was overruled by the Senate; seven Democrats and one Populist voting with the Republicans. The same vote carried the bond clause, which the finance committee had reported adversely.

Coining the seigniorage—a subtle and mysterious operation akin to witchcraft—has been explained many times, but is probably not understood by one in ten thousand of the American people, nor ever will be. We will try once more to show what the advocates of the process mean by it. Seigniorage is the charge made by a sovereign or government for coining the precious metals for private individuals. Our Government makes no charge for coining gold. It receives gold bullion from the owners and returns them exactly the amount of coin produced from it, charging them only the cost of the copper used as alloy. The Government in this case furnishes the capital and labor, and does the work for nothing. There is no reason why it should not charge at least the cost of coining. If it made a charge, whether more or less, that charge would be seigniorage. Most governments do make a charge for coining for private individuals, and our Government did so until 1873, when the present coinage law was passed. Then, at the instance of the Senators from the Pacific Coast, the seigniorage on gold was abolished.

The word seigniorage is applied also to any gain which a government makes in the act of coining. Thus, in the manufacture and sale of subsidiary coins of silver, copper, and nickel the Government buys the metal, makes the coins, and sells them to the public at their face value, but the cost of the metal is less than one-half of their face value. The difference is seigniorage. Why, then, should not the Government make an unlimited amount of these coins (halves, quarters, dimes, etc.), and pay all its expenses with the profits arising from seigniorage? Because one of the necessary conditions is that the Government after selling them at par shall redeem them at par on demand. The people require only a limited number of halves, quarters, dimes, etc., for the transaction of business. Persons who take in more small change than they can pay out must be enabled to convert it into money of more convenient form. The Government provides these facilities by redeeming all subsidiary coins in gold or its equivalent at the sub-treasuries. Hence the possible gain from the seigniorage is limited to the amount of small change that the people require for purposes of retail trade.

The same principles apply to the Government's coinage of silver dollars. The Bland-Allison act of 1878 required the Treasury to purchase not less than two million nor more than four million dollars' worth of silver bullion per month, to coin the same into silver dollars, and to deal with them as with other money belonging to the United States. If the Government could buy with one dollar enough silver bullion to make two silver dollars, and then use each of these dollars at par in paying the salaries of its employees and its other obligations, there was a gain or seigniorage of one dollar on the transaction, and this gain might be repeated as often and as long as the dollars would pass readily into the circulation.

The so-called Sherman act of 1890 substituted another mode of dealing with silver. The amount of bullion to be purchased was increased to 4,500,000 ounces per month. It was to be bought at its market value, and, instead of coining it, legal-tender Treasury notes were to be issued to the sellers of the bullion, which notes the Government must redeem on demand in coin, and practically in gold coin, because the law declared that it was the policy of the Government to keep gold money and silver money at par with each other. If coining had continued as under the Bland act, there would have been an apparent gain or seigniorage of fifty cents on each dollar as long as the public would keep the silver dollars (or certificates representing them), and not present them for redemption. In a case where there is no coining there is no seigniorage, since seigniorage is a result of coinage.

When the Sherman act of 1890 was passed and went into operation, the silver men said that seigniorage ought to result from the issuing of Treasury notes just as from the issue of silver dollars, and in this they were right in the sense that the seigniorage was an imaginary quantity in either case. A greenback dollar is all seigniorage, a silver dollar is half seigniorage, but the gain is only a matter of bookkeeping in either case, provided the Government redeems both kinds of dollars in gold. There is nothing gained, in coining the silver in the Treasury, in the way of seigniorage or otherwise that could not be better reached by issuing greenbacks outright. But there is a disadvantage in "coining the seigniorage" in the fact that it adds another kind of currency to the seven kinds now existing. It is objectionable for the further reason that it increases the demand liabilities of the Government by $42,000,000 at a time when every dictate of prudence requires that they should be reduced and put in the course of extinction. It is to be hoped, therefore, that the House will resolutely cast out this provision for coining the seigniorage, and put upon the Senate the responsibility of defeating the bill if it insists upon such folly.

The imposition of a duty on tea embodied in the bill comes as a great surprise, seeing that it was proposed by a Populist from South Carolina, and was supported by nearly the entire Democratic vote of the Senate. A tax on tea is a tax on labor—not more so in fact than a duty on wool or on blankets, but equally so in fact and more so in appearance. Whether the working classes will understand what this tax means is doubtful, but we confess our astonishment that the Democrats should run the risk of their not understanding it and resenting it. A good deal may be said in favor of this tax in an emergency like the present, but even more may be said in favor of a tax on coffee, because a larger revenue is derivable from the latter. We think it most probable that the House will concur in the tax on tea, seeing that the Democrats are estopped by their own act from making it a political issue.

RAILROAD-LABOR ARBITRATION.

The public interest in the war has been so overpowering as to cause the passage of an act of Congress intended to prevent strikes on railroads, to take place without comment. The measure, however, contains features of considerable importance; and as, after extended debate, it was adopted by the Senate with only three, and by the House with only five dissenting votes, it is presumptively satisfactory to all interests. One of the strongest points in its favor is the fact that Mr. Allen, the Populist Senator from Nebraska, denounced it. He declared that he was the true friend of the laboring people, and that this bill was a trap intended to commit them to involuntary servitude. As Senator Allen was unable to substantiate this assertion by any specific proofs, and as the chief organizations of railway men had been consulted in framing the bill and had urged its passage, the danger of involuntary servitude need not be regarded as serious.

The arbitration provided in the bill is of course voluntary, compulsory arbitration involving what philosophers call a *contradictio in adjecto*. It applies to all common carriers engaged in interstate commerce except street railroads, and provides that when any controversies concerning wages, hours of labor, or conditions of employment arise between carriers and their employees, either party may call on the chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission and the Commissioner of Labor to mediate. If mediation fails to bring about an agreement, one arbitrator is to be named by the carrier, one by the labor organi-

zations interested (or if no such organizations exist, by a majority of the laborers involved), the two arbitrators to select a third. Should they fail to agree on the third member in five days, the commissioners named above shall appoint him. Pending the arbitration the *status quo* shall be maintained, the parties submitting their respective cases in writing and stipulating to that effect, as well as that the award made shall be filed with the record of the proceedings in the proper Circuit Court of the United States, and shall be final and conclusive on both parties unless set aside for error of law apparent on the record. A third stipulation is of so much importance that we give it verbatim:

"(3.) That the respective parties to the award will each faithfully execute the same, and that the same may be specifically enforced in equity so far as the powers of a court of equity permit. Provided, That no injunction or other legal process shall be issued which shall compel the performance by any laborer against his will of a contract for personal labor or service."

This proviso is intended to prevent the issuance of injunctions of the comprehensive character which excited so much angry feeling at the time of the great Chicago strike, and while it is perhaps unnecessary in view of all the decisions, it was regarded as essential by the labor unions. A fourth stipulation is to the effect that employees dissatisfied with the award shall not on that account quit work for three months after the award is made without giving thirty days' notice, and that like notice shall be given by employers before dismissing any employee. The award shall continue in force for one year after it goes into operation. The bill further provides for appeals, and that the award when confirmed shall have the effect of a judgment of the court.

The act also provides that during the pendency of the arbitration proceedings it shall not be lawful for the employer to discharge the employees except for inefficiency, violation of law, or neglect of duty; saving, however, the right of the employer to reduce the number of employees whenever in his judgment business necessities demand it. Nor shall it be lawful "for the organization representing such employees to order, nor for the employees to unite in, aid, or abet strikes against such employer." Any violation of this section shall subject the offending party to liability to damages. This penalty, of course, amounts to nothing against individual laborers, but as Congress has already provided for the incorporation of labor unions, it may prove sufficiently efficacious. The present act requires such incorporations to exclude members who participate in or instigate "force or violence against persons or property during strikes, lockouts, or boycotts, or by seeking to prevent others from working through violence, threats, or intimidation." These corporations are given the right to sue and be sued in any of the Federal courts. Among minor provisions is one that receivers of railroads shall not reduce wages without letting employees be heard in court; another, that no workman shall be required to agree, as a condition of employment, not to belong to a labor union; others, that there shall be no "blacklisting" or similar discrimination, no contract releasing employers from liability for causing personal injury, nor any requirement of contributions to charitable or benevolent funds.

Not a few of the members of Congress who discussed this measure expressed doubts as to its accomplishing great results. But on the whole the law is a good one. The constitution of the Board of Arbitration is satisfactory, and the stipulations are reasonable. Of course, neither the railroad managers nor the labor leaders may choose to make use of this machinery; but the pressure of public opinion upon them will be strong, and the advantages from the preservation of order and the continuance of operations will be an inducement to both parties to relinquish their legal freedom of action. While the railroads may not find that the stipulations of their employees are enforceable, yet if the employees enter into these stipulations they will not find it prudent to disregard them. We trust that it may be long before any occasion arises for testing this measure, but if it does arise we shall be disappointed if it proves altogether a failure.

THE PENNSYLVANIA CAMPAIGN.

The Republican State convention in Pennsylvania on Thursday resulted as had been expected. Quay controlled everything from first to last. So absolute was his power that he did not need to lead his forces in person, but started back to Washington before the convention was called to order, knowing that the machinery had been wound up to turn out his ticket and platform.

Two or three months ago there were abundant signs of a revolt in the party against Quay which might dethrone him. The indications were that under normal national conditions the opposition to the machine would wax so strong before the first week of June that Quay either could not secure a majority in the convention for his favorite, or, if he could force the nomination, would not dare to do so for fear of a revolt at the polls. The war with Spain has changed all this. Quay quickly saw that nothing could so help him to a majority in the convention as the fact that his personal choice for the governorship was a man who had served creditably as a young soldier in the Union army a generation ago, and could therefore be held up as peculiarly fitted to become a "war Governor," while his chief assailant was a merchant who had no military record whatever. It was only necessary to put the head of the Grand Army on the slate for Lieutenant-Governor, and another veteran for Secretary of Internal Affairs, to make an "old soldier" ticket which was irresistible.

The war was equally helpful to the boss in the matter of a platform for the campaign. Under normal conditions it would have been impossible to avoid the issue of bad government in State affairs, and it would have been perilous to handle it. But, under the existing conditions, the war with Spain could be pushed to the front as the great issue of the day, and the first pledge of the platform is one of "earnest support to the President of the United States in whatever measures he may deem necessary for a vigorous prosecution of the war to a successful conclusion." Of course, the boss can now maintain that the only way for Pennsylvania Republicans to redeem this pledge is to elect as war Governor the old soldier whom he has named to head the ticket. The argument which will be heard on every stump was thus laid down in one of the nominating speeches, which "fairly took the delegates off their feet with their shouting and cheering in approval of the speaker's sentiments":

"The result of the coming election will be construed, truly and properly, either as approving or condemning the national Administration on the question of our war. Dare we rebuke the President of our own choosing? Dare we give to Spain and her sympathizers encouragement by even an apparent blow at our national Administration? No, we must stand by our Republican President with an emphatic Republican victory in the Keystone State in November next. Just as our fleet did in the harbor of Manila, passing over the mines and torpedoes of the enemy, let us dare to be courageous. Let us be united and fight to win. Let us on to the battle, assailing the main body of the enemy on the one side and his masked batteries on the other. Then we shall whip the free-silver party and all its hypocritical allies, just as brave Dewey thrashed the Spaniards in far-off Manila."

Already the boss sees his "dodge" working as he expected. The Philadelphia *Press*, which was edited by Charles Emory Smith until he entered the cabinet a few weeks ago, has earnestly supported Mr. Wanamaker in his fight against the machine, and has warned the boss that his programme was intolerable. But all that it had to say the morning after the convention was that the nomination of Quay's man for Governor is "not a victory to be proud of," because it "unnecessarily and wantonly handicaps the Republican party in the coming election"; while it hastens to add that "the rest of the ticket is unexceptionable, and the platform is strong and wise." It will not be long before the *Press* will join the chorus led by the Philadelphia *Inquirer*, Quay's personal organ, and be talking in this vein:

"Now that the party has spoken, all loyal Republicans will endorse its action. In this year, when we are making a foreign war in behalf of humanity, when thousands of

young Pennsylvanians are doing just as Col. Stone did nearly forty years ago, there will be no desire to let personal preferences before the convention enter into party discord now that the candidate has been named. We are pleased to note that this sentiment is quite general already, and believe it will be unanimous before the campaign ends."

There is speculation as to Mr. Wanamaker's attitude during the campaign. He has always boasted that he never scratched the regular ticket, and it is not to be expected that he will begin doing so "in this crisis in the nation's history." It is hardly conceivable that he can think of running as an independent candidate, because he must know that the real Independents would never vote for a man who supported the boss until the boss refused him the nomination for Governor. The men who care enough for good government to fight for it will vote for the Rev. Dr. Swallow. The vigorous canvass which he will make ought to secure enough support to render success impossible for the Quay ticket, even with the hesitating opponents of Quay in his own party shamefacedly falling in behind the boss, and salving their consciences with the theory that they are thereby supporting the national Administration in time of war.

HOLDING THE PHILIPPINES.

Mr. Chauncey Depew, in an interview in London, has expressed the opinion that the Philippine Islands would be an undesirable possession for the United States, that they would be hard to govern as a colony, and harder still to digest as an integral part of the American Union. That they are likely to be hard to hold as a colony is evidently the opinion of the authorities at Washington. It was first proposed to send 5,000 troops there. Then the number was increased to 15,000, and now the report comes that 35,000 will be required. Probably in making these rapidly rising estimates of the force required to hold the islands, allowance is made for the effects of the torrid heat of the Philippines upon men unacclimated and unused to camp life even in their own country. Experience, however, will soon make a test of the hygienic conditions of the Philippines. We hope for the best, but we sadly fear that the climate will prove a more deadly enemy than the bullets of the Spaniards.

Mr. Depew's warning is addressed to material considerations only. He aims to show that the holding of the Philippines would cost more than it would come to, and would get us into trouble in various ways. This is our opinion also, but we do not consider those reasons the strongest ones against the policy in question. Far more weighty is the objection that we began this war with a moral purpose only—that of delivering a neighboring people from oppression. This reason we put forth in a proclamation to the world coupled with a solemn promise that we would not annex the territory about which the dispute arose. This reason for beginning the war was scouted by Spain and disbelieved by every civilized nation in the world except England. The people of the latter country with unanimity believed that the idea of aggrandizement had no place among our motives; and, in fact, it had none. It is useless to deny that public opinion in Great Britain was divided on the question whether war was justifiable under all the circumstances of the case, but no Englishman has yet said publicly that he believed we went to war for purposes of gain in territory or money. Continental opinion, on the other hand, held in the beginning that that was our main, if not our sole, motive, and that helping the Cubans to gain liberty was a hypocritical pretence. This belief has gained ground among the Continental nations, and although English opinion has not changed as to our original purpose, it is now veering to the belief that our intentions are changing, and it apparently approves of the change.

The reason why Englishmen look favorably upon our holding the Philippines is that Great Britain needs an ally in Asiatic waters, and she thinks that we should prove to be one. The policy of Russia and Germany in making acquisitions on the Chinese coast is apparently to secure for themselves exclusive trading privileges in certain large tracts of country hitherto open to our own as well as to British trade. This project naturally meets opposition here, but only of a diplomatic nature. If we should hold the Philippine Islands as a permanent possession, we should be liable to constant friction with any Powers which have acquired lodgment there, especially if their views regarding trade were not in harmony with ours. Our mere presence there would strengthen the arm of England because our interests would run in the same direction as hers. This fact sufficiently explains why England would look favorably on our holding the Philippines. It would be much more for her interest to have us retain them than to acquire them herself. Indeed, there is no reason to suppose that she would accept them if they were offered to her. The warning uttered by Lord Salisbury the other day, when he reminded his hearers that every new acquisition brought new responsibilities, has an obvious bearing on the Philippines, and on the suggestion that has been made that we turn them over to Great Britain at the end of the war, or exchange them for some of England's possessions in the West Indies.

The question of property and territorial aggrandizement, whatever may be said pro and con, is not the main consideration. The main question is whether we shall justify all our enemies by going back on our solemn promise not to make this war a war of gain. "But that applied only to Cuba," say some of the annexationists. The words applied only to Cuba because Cuba alone was in our minds at the time. The intendment of the words included everything in the way of pelf. Our foreign critics would and actually do sneer at the quibble which assumes that we can clear our consciences by leaving Cuba alone, but by taking everything else of Spain's that we can lay our hands on. The force of the criticism is felt, undoubtedly; for our annexationists now say that Spain's rule in the Philippines is as bad as her rule in Cuba, and that we owe it to the principles of free government to deliver the natives of that country from the tyranny under which they groan. How this is to be done, no man can conceive, since the thought of admitting the Philippine natives to the Union as a self-governing community, with representation in our Congress, forms no part of the plan, and does not enter the mind of a single human being. It would be rejected unanimously if it could be brought to a vote of the American people.

TENNYSON AND HORACE.

HAVERFORD COLLEGE, May 24, 1898.

There are two passages in the new Memoir of Alfred, Lord Tennyson, which a teacher of Latin may be allowed to quote side by side. On the sixteenth page of the first volume we are told that from the time the youthful poet left Louth School, in 1820, till the time he matriculated at Cambridge, in 1828, his education was directed solely by his father. During this period he became an accurate classical scholar, the author most "thoroughly drummed" into him being Horace, whom he disliked in proportion. To quote his own words, "It was not till many years after boyhood that I could like Horace. Byron expressed what I felt: 'Then farewell Horace whom I hated so.' Indeed, I was so overdosed with Horace that I hardly do him justice even now that I am old." The other passage, i., 370, refers to a later period in the poet's life, when he had become, in his turn, the teacher of his own son. Here Hallam Tennyson, the author of the Memoir, remarks, "The first Latin I learnt from him (*sc.*, my father) was Horace's 'O fons Bandusiae.'"

It is tempting to suppose that the late Laureate was indebted for some portion of his marvellous technical excellence to his early familiarity with the careful art of Horace. Indeed, he was once reported to have said that Horace and Keats were his two masters. But, a short time before his death, he stated that this report must have been due to a misunderstanding, adding that he did not care for Horace at all until after he was thirty, and that after the 'Poems by Two Brothers' he did not think he had taken any one for master (Memoir, ii., 386).

In view of this statement it may be interesting to collect some of the reminiscences of Horace which are scattered here and there throughout the pages of Tennyson, and to add to them a few passages of the English poet which readily suggest Ho-

ratian parallels. We begin with a few specific allusions or quotations:

The closing line of the first Ode is quoted in Tennyson's "Epilogue,"

> "For dare we daily with the sphere
> As he did half in jest,
> Old Horace? 'I will strike,' said he,
> 'The stars with head sublime' ";

and the opening lines of the triumphant "Exegi monumentum" are employed as the motto of the poem "Parnassus." The two lines in "Becket," Act I., Sc. 1,

> "The included Danaë has escaped again
> Her tower and her Acrisius,"

allude to Od. iii., 16, 1-5, as the line in Act V. Sc. 2, of the same play,

> "And one an *uxor pauperis Ibyci*,"

comes from Od. iii., 15, 1. The allusion in "Poets and their Bibliographies,"

> "And you, old popular Horace, you the wise
> Adviser of the nine-years-ponder'd lay,"

is to the familiar "nonumque prematur in annum" of Ars Poetica, 388. And surely some of the "quoted odes and jewels five-words-long" of that wonderful university lecture in "The Princess" were none other than the "carmina culta" of Horace.

The phrase "guard about with triple-mailèd trust," in "Confessions of a Sensitive Mind," at once recalls the "robur et aes triplex" of Od. i., 3, 9. The figure in "Eleänore," vii.,

> "His bow-string slacken'd, languid Love,"

is probably borrowed from Od. iii., 27, 67,

> "perfidum ridens Venus et remisso
> filius arcu,"

and the line in "The Lover's Tale,"

> "And Death drew nigh and beat the doors of Life,"

seems to be adapted from Od. i., 4, 13.

> "Pallida mors aequo pulsat pede pauperum tabernas
> regumque turris."

The "wise indifference of the wise," in "A Dedication," and the "not to admire or desire," of "Maud," I. iv., 7, remind one of the "Nil admirari" of Ep. i., 6, 1. The "purple Cæsar" of the ode "To Virgil" may be due to the "purpurei tyranni" of Od. i., 35, 12, and the "brute earth" of "In Memoriam," cxxvii., is, in spite of Milton's use of the same phrase, "Comus," 797, probably derived from the "bruta tellus" of Od. i., 34, 9. The lines in "In Memoriam," ix.,

> "Fair ship, that from the Italian shore
> Sailest the placid ocean-plains," etc.,

and xvii.,

> "So may whatever tempest mars
> Mid-ocean, spare thee, sacred bark,"

are obviously a reminiscence of Horace's "godspeed" to the ship which was conveying Virgil to Athens, Od. i., 3, as the Christmas scene in canto cvii. of the same poem is adapted from the ode to Thaliarchus, i., 9. In "In Memoriam," lxxxix.,

> "And break the livelong summer day
> With banquet in the distant woods,"

Tennyson must have had in his mind the language of Od. ii., 7, 6.

> "cum quo morantem saepe diem mero
> fregi,"

and another line of the same canto,

> "The dust and din and steam of town,"

is curiously like the

> "fumum et opes strepitumque Romæ,"

of Od. iii., 29, 12. The first stanza of the poem entitled "Will,"

> "O well for him whose will is strong," etc.,

is deeply indebted for its sentiment and tone to the opening lines of Od. iii., 3,

> "Iustum et tenacem propositi virum," etc.;

to mention only a single detail, the lines

> "Who seems a promontory of rock," etc.,

must have been suggested by Horace's man of "rock-like purpose," "solida mente." That is, the figure is suggested by the Horatian passage, although it is apparently worked out after the model of Latinus's resistance to the popular clamor, Aeneid, vii., 586-90. The Cleopatra of "A Dream of Fair Women,"

> "*I died a queen.* The Roman soldier found
> Me lying dead, my *crown* about my brows,
> A name for ever!—lying robed and *crown'd*,
> Worthy a Roman spouse,"

is clearly the Cleopatra "generosius perire quaerens" of Od. i., 37,

> "scilicet invidens
> *privata* deduci superbo
> *non humilis* mulier triumpho."

A part of the description in "Edwin Morris,"

> "I call'd him Crichton, for he seem'd
> All-perfect, finish'd to the finger nail,"

seems to be borrowed from Sat. i., 5, 32, "ad unguem factus homo," and the expression in "Becket," Act IV., Sc. 2,

> "madden him—madden
> Against his priest beyond all hellebore,"

is probably due to Ars Poetica, 300, "tribus Anticyris caput insanabile." The ancient superstition of the "Morte d'Arthur,"

> "till on to dawn, when dreams
> Begin to feel the truth and stir of day,"

and of "The Vision of Sin,"

> "I had a vision when the night was late,"

is perhaps derived from Sat. i., 10, 33,

> "post mediam noctem visus, cum somnia vera,"

although the superstition itself is much older than Horace.

To the foregoing list of more or less conscious reminiscences we may add a few other parallels which it is perhaps safer to regard as accidental or independent. In the latest and best of our shorter manuals of Latin Literature, Mr. J. W. Mackail has remarked, p. 116, that the "Jubilee Ode" is curiously like the "Carmen Saeculare," "in its metrical ingenuities, and in the way in which the unmistakable personal note of style sounds through its heavy and formal movement." The line in "A Dream of Fair Women,"

> "Saw God divide the night with flying flame,"

bears a striking verbal resemblance to the

> "Diespiter
> igni corusco nubila dividens,"

of Od. i., 34, 5-6. The exquisite lines in "Mariana,"

> "Her tears fell with the dews at even;
> Her tears fell ere the dews were dried,"

have been called an obvious adaptation from a beautiful fragment of Cinna,

> "Te matutinus flentem conspexit Eous,
> et flentem paulo vidit post Hesperus idem";

but they have at least as close a parallel in Horace, Od. ii., 9, 10-12,

> "nec tibi Vespero
> surgente decedunt amores
> nec rapidum fugiente solem,"

a passage which itself recalls the lament of Orpheus, Virgil, Geor. iv., 466,

> "te veniente die, te decedente canebat."

Both Cinna and Horace, it will be noticed, allude to the identity of Hesperus (Vesper) and Lucifer (Eous Phosphoros); so, too, does Catullus, lxii., 34,

> "Nocte latent fures, quos idem saepe revertens,
> Hespere, mutato comprendis nomine eosdem";

and so does Tennyson, "In Memoriam," cxxi. But the careless astronomy of the ancient poets, in which it seems possible for the same planet to be both morning and evening star at the same season of the year, has no place in the characteristic accuracy of Tennyson,

> "Sweet Hesper-Phosphor, double name
> For what is one, the first, the last,
> Thou, like my present and my past,
> *Thy place is changed; thou art the same.*"

Horace has his own brook that "goes on for ever," Ep. i., 2, 43,

> "labitur et labetur in omne volubilis aevum,"

the "divinely gifted man" of "In Memoriam," lxiv., who

> "breasts the blows of *circumstance*,"

has his counterpart in the Ulysses of Ep. i., 2, 22,

> "adversis *rerum* immersabilis undis,"

and the "I shall have had my day" of "Maud," XI., i., may be compared to the "Vixi" of Od. iii., 29, 43. Such phrases as "the Motherless mother," "faultily faultless, splendidly null," "faith unfaithful kept him falsely true," remind one of the "insanientis sapientiae" of Od. i., 34, 2, the "splendide mendax" of Od. iii., 11, 35, the "iuris peierati" of Od. ii., 8, 1. In many other phrases Tennyson seems to repeat the language of the Odes and Satires: "the many-headed beast (*sc.* the mob)," "some full-breasted swan fluting a wild carol ere her death," "I the divided half of such a friendship," "friends, none closer, elm and vine," "cook'd his spleen," "the many-winter'd crow," "the Parthian dart," "the Danaïd of a leaky vase," etc.; but these are commonplaces of the poets, not sentiments or epithets original with Horace.

Finally, we may mention one or two poems in which Tennyson is indebted to Horace in the matter of metre, and quote from the new Memoir his judgment of the metrical quality of the Roman Laureate's odes. Among the many metres which he invented he was especially proud of that of "The Daisy," which he called "a far-off echo of the Horatian Alcaic" (i., 341). The invitation "To the Rev. F. D. Maurice" is eminently Horatian in structure and in tone; its metre is substantially the same as the metre of "The Daisy," but gains a slightly different effect by the dactyl which begins each fourth line. "The Horatian Alcaics," Tennyson once wrote, "are perhaps the stateliest metre in the world except the Virgilian hexameter at its best." His own Alcaics addressed to Milton, "O mighty-mouth'd inventor of harmonies," etc., read to the ordinary ear like the address of an English Horace to an English Pindar, but they were not intended, he said, for Horatian Alcaics; they were meant rather to imitate the lighter movement of the Alcaics of Greece (ii., 11). The Sapphics of Horace seemed to him much inferior to those of Sappho, and he would audaciously describe the Horatian stanza of that metre, alluding to the Adonic fourth line, as like a pig with its tail tightly curled. Yet he was deeply moved by the Roman dignity which Horace has imparted to the Sapphic in the "Non enim gazae," etc., of Od. ii., 16, 9 (ii., 500).

WILFRED P. MUSTARD.

THE DISCOVERY OF PIRENE.

CORINTH, May 22, 1898.

Of all the famous fountains of Greece the most famous was Pirene. Pindar (choosing, no doubt, as always, an appellation of which his patrons would be proud) calls Corinth "the city of Pirene." That this fountain was a centre of the city's life is as certain as it was natural. In the "Medea" of Euripides the elders are spoken of as playing checkers "around the august water of Pirene." It is true that the fountain still bubbling up on Acro-Corinth bears the name of Pirene on the authority of Strabo. But Pausanias mentions a Pirene in the city, distinguished from all the other numerous fountains which supplied Corinth with abundant water by being fitted up with a series of chambers, like caves, out of which the water flowed into a basin.

This fountain, with a façade in two stories, it has been the good fortune of the American School to discover—not, however, without considerable pains. In our pioneer work of two years ago, besides locating and partly uncovering the theatre which gave us the first fixed point in the topography of Corinth, we dug twenty trial trenches, in one of which, in the valley east of the old temple, we found, at a depth of about fifteen feet, besides numerous walls, a street thirty feet broad paved with white limestone, with a water channel on each side of it running up and down the valley at right angles to our trench. When it came to resuming the work this year (serious work last year being hindered by the war), the choice was between continuing excavating the theatre, which, from its ruinous condition, promised no showy results, although something of importance might appear near by, and following up this pavement, in the hope of finding the agora, from which, by following Pausanias, we could line out the whole topography of the city. The hope from the latter alternative was larger, because the old temple must have stood near to the heart of the city. But we had no certainty of results, and the earth was very deep. But, regarding depth of earth as rather encouraging than otherwise, I decided to "buck the centre," even if it did seem hard to break.

With track and cars borrowed from the French at Delphi, we went to work, proceeding upward from our old trench. But it was slow work. After about three weeks the Government official attending said: "These are the first serious excavations that I ever heard of where there were no finds of any importance"; and when I saw the money given by friends of the School going off at the rate of forty dollars a day, with little to point out by way of return except a big hole and a pile of earth, I felt that I was proceeding with a halter around my neck, and was convinced that, if we did not soon find something which would amply satisfy our patrons, the excavation of Corinth would definitively close with this campaign, which would be regarded as a defeat.

A little further up the valley was a house with a garden around it. Two years ago our foreman, a German, had gone down a well in this garden, and, after entering a side passage, had returned covered with mud, bringing back a story of rooms with architectural decoration along a water channel which fed the well. At the time the story seemed somewhat fabulous; but this year we went down and saw the wonder with our own eyes, and found that it had not been exaggerated. The very moment that my eyes fell upon the chambers, I said, "These chambers are the Pirene of Pausanias." But we saw them only from their back sides, and when they were partly filled with earth. From that time, however, we turned all our energies to laying bare their front from the twenty-three feet of earth which covered it, measured from the surface of the soil to the flowing water. To avoid the delay which would ensue from waiting for Government expropriation, I purchased at private sale a part of the garden for about $70—a very high price, although we took three trees in a land where trees are scarce, and a well, which we, however, promised to replace in some way.

Cross walls intervened, and a big mass of Turkish masonry had to be blown apart with dynamite; but with feverish impatience we pushed our railroad to the front of Pirene. We have opened four chambers with arched entrances, and are well satisfied with the result. Into the fifth chamber the above-mentioned well is sunk, and through this well runs the aqueduct which supplies the fountain at the square of the modern village.

In removing this well we find a difficulty. Some of the villagers object to our opening a new well for a private individual who has already made so much money by the sale of his land as to excite envy. Particular exasperation was caused by our plan to insert a pump a little way back from the present well, because that would give the man an unfair advantage over his neighbors, who have no pumps. Even without these objections our task is difficult enough. Pirene is simply the mouth of several channels probably as old as Peirander. We have explored and mapped out about 400 metres of these as they come down from the foot of Acro-Corinth, cut in the soft rock or clay which is covered by the rock stratum of sea-formation, the edge of which one sees protruding as one comes up from Lechæon to Corinth. The chambers are laid out at the very edge of this stratum, which is here cut in a straight line. Their massive side-walls support it, and the upper part of the façade hides it from view. In making a new well about ten feet back from this façade, we must cut through about seven feet of this very hard rock to reach one of the water channels. It would be a great advantage to be obliged to drill only a small hole for a pump instead of slowly blasting a hole big enough for our proprietor to operate with his leather bucket. We hope, with official help and after some delay and expense, to reach our goal; but we shall fight it out if it takes all summer. All six chambers must be shown before we stop.

The fear of being stopped just short of this goal on account of the giving out of funds having cost one week ago several sleepless nights, I wrote to one who has already made the largest gift to the excavation of Corinth, and whom I had recently met in Athens, explaining the situation and telling him that £100 would relieve me of all anxiety, while half that sum or even less might pull me through. In five days I received a telegram saying, "Hundred sent." Later came a letter more cheering almost than the money, closing with the words: "Here is your hundred. I am glad to be interested to that extent in your work."

Pirene, when completely excavated, will rank with the Temple and Acro-Corinth as a thing to visit. But this is not its whole significance. It is the long-sought key to the topography of Corinth. The agora is a little further up on the road leading through the valley. We uncovered two years ago what now appears to be the base of the bronze Herakles, the only object mentioned by Pausanias between the agora and Pirene on the road to Lechaeon, the harbor on the Corinthian Gulf. The road with the broad pavement and the water courses we have now followed up until it comes to the foot of a broad marble staircase, which, after about twenty-five low steps, disappears under a field to the south of the area already expropriated. We have also in successive soundings traced this road northward a third of a mile, almost to the edge of the lower terrace where the city wall stood. There is no longer any doubt that this was the road from the agora to Lechaeon. Adjacent to it on the right fall the Baths of Hadrian, just as they should according to the description of Pausanias. This is the big brick building in the bowels of which we rummaged two years ago, and to which we then with some hesitation gave the right name. Next year we may easily find the agora itself; but our present result is hardly less important than that.

An incidental result of what we have already done is the giving of a name to the venerable ruin which has so long stood as the only landmark of ancient Corinth. It is the Temple of Apollo, the first object mentioned by Pausanias on the right of the road leading out of the agora towards Sikyon. We have made incidental finds at last in nearly every department of archæology—statues, inscriptions, bronzes, and vases. These are rewards thrown in to relieve the monotony of our work; but in some eyes they may seem important enough to be principal.

The life here is rather exacting, requiring early rising and close attention. It also brings constant annoyance from the fact that we are not masters of a broad area as are the French at Delphi, and so have to pacificate many crotchety individuals in order to carry through our work. But when one sees the first rays of the rising sun striking Kyllene near at hand, and Parnassos across the Corinthian Gulf, it is like taking a refreshing draught which strengthens one to meet the hard day. The location of Corinth is, after all that can be said in praise of Sparta and Argos, the finest in Greece. But the most cheering sight of all to me is the face of Pirene. RUFUS B. RICHARDSON.

Correspondence.

THE CLERGY AND THE WAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am a constant reader of your exceedingly able paper. Your views on the war, silver, and protection are most acceptable to me. Your logic being usually so good, it surprises me greatly that you should be so "off" in your criticisms upon "Christians praying one against the other." This argument would strike at all prayer. Our Father in heaven of course knows all things, and knows what is best for his children, who are poor, ignorant, short-sighted creatures, in spite of the boasted enlightenment of this much vaunted nineteenth century. It is the

same in war as in everything else in which we have to seek for aid beyond our own resources. You think the Almighty is a lover of peace, and therefore must be displeased when his children proceed to the extremity of war. Let us look into this.

All things are right or wrong. If a thing is right, or a good thing to do, then we can ask the blessing of God upon it; if it is wrong, we should be fools to ask it, for we know he cannot approve of what is sinful. Now the question is, Is it lawful to go to war? We will leave this war out of the question, for I disapprove of it as heartily as you do—or *did* before it commenced. Let us take it in the abstract. Is war lawful? I suppose every one will acknowledge that it is, until we get some better way of settling national difficulties. If it is not sinful, then, each side in a quarrel can consistently ask God's blessing on its cause. Our minds are too finite to grasp things in their entirety, and human nature is very prone to selfishly look on its own side as right. So both sides ask God's help, and leave it to him to decide which is right, or which cause being successful will be most advantageous to the good of mankind at large.

As to the great numbers that are killed in battle being displeasing to Almighty God, we cannot judge of the Great Being as one would of an ordinary man. The human race would become too numerous if people were not killed off by railroad accidents, storms at sea, earthquakes, floods, and individual deaths by disease and old age. Death is the only means by which human beings can go to heaven; and, whether they die singly or "en masse," the simple fact of their death is not displeasing to God, but our wrong-doing in unnecessarily depriving them of life, the greatest of all earthly blessings. So it seems to me there is nothing inconsistent in the American bishops praying for their side to win, if they think their cause a just one, and the Spanish bishops can bring forward the same argument. You object to prayers being said after mass for those who fall in battle on our side. I can assure you that our bishops will pray just as fervently for all the poor Spaniards who fall in this sad unnecessary war, for we Catholics always pray for our enemies, and for all the souls in purgatory, regardless of what their creed may have been.

I apologize for intruding this letter upon you, but, as you have many Catholics among your subscribers, I should think you ought to be more chary of singling them out for unjust criticism. A. Dooley.

Richmond, Va., May 30, 1898.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is doubtless a matter of regret to you that the clergy are not arrayed on the side of despotism, cruelty, and rapine. All over this land the Protestant clergy are lifting up their voices in behalf of the oppressed, and preaching the text, "I came not to bring peace, but a sword." Nations, like individuals, are sometimes slow to follow in the path of equity and justice, and gleaming swords are sent among them like the fiery serpents among the Israelites. Spain is about to *rediscover America*, to find that a land of Protestant churches, innumerable school-houses, and a free and untrammelled press, will not pass by on the other side while their brother (though he be a Roman Catholic) lies helpless and bleeding.

I should be pleased to see you right on this matter; and when the war is over, and justice and humanity are again established, if you will use your influence for the extirpation of the gold standard and the consequent uplifting of the masses, you will deserve the gratitude and not the reproach of,

Yours sincerely, Wm. F. Doherty.

Schuylkill Haven, Pa., May 31, 1898.

THE ENGLISH EXAMINATION AT BRYN MAWR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The entrance examination in English recently held at Bryn Mawr College, Pennsylvania, seems to me worthy on one account of a more general notice than it would otherwise deserve. I refer to the fact that the examination in question dealt with a subject that cannot fairly be considered as included among the requirements for admission as stated in the college catalogue. That your readers may judge of this matter for themselves, I give the requirement as it appears in the Bryn Mawr Catalogue for 1897, and the subject for composition assigned in the examination paper:

"In 1898, candidates must be familiar with Chaucer's *Knight's Tale;* Shakespeare's *Macbeth* and *Midsummer Night's Dream*; Milton's *L'Allegro*, *Il Penseroso*, *Lycidas*, and *Paradise Lost*, Books I. II.; Addison's *Sir Roger de Coverley Papers;* Matthew Arnold's *Essay on Gray* and *Essay on A Guide to English Literature;* Wordsworth's *Michael* and *The Leach Gatherer;* Coleridge's *Ancient Mariner* and *Christabel;* Shelley's *Adonais* and *Sensitive Plant;* Keats's *Eve of St. Agnes;* Hawthorne's *House of the Seven Gables;* Pater's *Child in the House;* and Stevenson's *Master of Ballantrae.*"

The examination question purporting to be based on this list is as follows:

"Give a short account in chronological order of the chief periods in the history of English literature and the chief authors in each period, in so far as such an account may be collected from the books prescribed for this examination."

It is clear that the requirement laid down by the college in its Catalogue is one thing, and the actual requirement, withheld until the very moment of the examination, is quite another. An attempt is indeed made to establish some show of connection by the clause "in so far as such an account may be collected from the books prescribed," but a moment's reflection will convince us of the futility of this attempt, as the books do not contain "such an account" and it consequently cannot be "collected" from them. Familiarity with the "Knight's Tale" does not in itself give the student the required knowledge of its author, his chief contemporaries, or the literary period to which he belongs; and the same argument is equally applicable, with but two unimportant exceptions, to every one of the books prescribed. In a word, the Catalogue requires a familiarity with certain specified literary masterpieces, while the question demands in effect a résumé of the literary history of England.

The only "books" on the list which could possibly aid the student to pass the examination are the two essays of Arnold. The essay on "Gray" is clearly useless for that purpose, as it deals in a general and somewhat incidental manner with a brief and comparatively inactive period of literary history—an interval between two "great periods." The second essay is not a comprehensive survey of the course of the literature, but a review of Stopford Brooke's 'Primer'; it has but little permanent value, and certainly affords no definite and material help to a young student otherwise uninformed. I believe that no competent teacher would contend that this essay by itself gives the beginner that exact chronological knowledge of the chief periods in the history of English literature, and of the chief writers in each period, called for by the requirement.

No exception is here taken to the subject in itself; indeed, the present writer has long urged that every student who enters college should have an outline knowledge of the history of literature, and Bryn Mawr's persistent refusal to require such a knowledge has long been with him a matter for regret. But no knowledge of English literature on its historical side having been required by Bryn Mawr in any previous entrance examination, a change of policy in this matter should in common fairness have been announced in advance. Every college has an unquestioned right to set such a standard for entrance as it may deem wise or expedient, but no college has any right, legal or moral, to announce one standard for an examination in its Catalogue, and then, without previous warning, to substitute another. Such a positive breach of contract gives to every candidate a just ground of complaint.

Henry S. Pancoast.

Germantown, Pa.

AN APPEAL TO SENATORIAL COURTESY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As you seem so well acquainted with Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge, Senator from Massachusetts, will you please do me a favor or two? In his "The Story of the Revolution" in the May number of *Scribner's Magazine* he says: "Carleton *descended* from Canada"; "He came *down* the lakes to Crown Point"; "Burgoyne took his way *down* Lake Champlain." (Italics mine.) Will you please tell Mr. Lodge that the water of Lake Champlain does *not* run up hill?

Further, will you please ask him why he labels a picture of Amherst's stone barracks in Amherst's fort, built about 1759, "Ruins of old Fort Frederick, Crown Point, at the Present Time"? And, while you have his attention, ask him to give his authority for calling, on his map (p. 552), Valcour Island "Valcours" Island, and the Big Chazy (or Champlain) River "Chateaugay" River. You need not ask him why, on the same map, he calls Missisquoi Bay "Missisquoi *Lake*," or why this map says "Ft. Ann" and his text "Fort Anne"; but these other curiosities do disturb my sleep o' nights.

Very respectfully,

D. S. Kellogg, M.D.

Plattsburgh, N. Y., June 5, 1898.

Notes.

The Baker & Taylor Co. have in preparation a 'Life of George Müller' of Bristol, England, by the Rev. Arthur T. Pierson, D.D.

Nearly ready, from Ginn & Co., is 'Selections from the Correspondence between Schiller and Goethe,' edited by John G. Robertson, Lector in the University of Strassburg.

The Werner Co., Akron, O., will shortly issue 'The Determination of Sex,' by Prof. Leopold Schenck.

Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole, Jamaica Plain, Mass., will distribute this week his bi-lingual edition of Omar Khayyám already described in these columns.

A revised and enlarged edition of Justin McCarthy's 'Life of Gladstone' will be published immediately by the Macmillan Co., who also announce 'Persephone, and Other Poems,' by Charles Camp Tarelli.

To compete with unauthorized English versions of Sienkiewicz's 'With Fire and Sword,' Mr. Jeremiah Curtin's translation has been brought out anew by Little, Brown & Co. in a cheapened popular edition, which will appeal to those who like to enjoy their author while doing justly by him.

Minister Romero, whose 'Geographical and Statistical Notes on Mexico' we noticed a week or two ago, has now brought out an edition of that useful manual, bound up with a translation of various writings of his on the culture of coffee and india-rubber in Mexico. The Putnams publish this, as they did the other volume.

Good portraits of Balzac, Paul Heyse, François Coppée, and Daudet accompany as many volumes in the series of grouped short "Stories by Foreign Authors" for some time in hand with Charles Scribner's Sons. The volumes are pleasant to the eye and convenient to hold, and it is needless to say that they offer entertaining reading.

The bound volume of the *Century Magazine* for the six months November, 1897, to April, 1898, inclusive, leads us through interesting Tennysoniana and Huxleyana to Klondike adventure, Mr. Kobbé's pacific stories of heroes in civil life, and the sanguinary sea-fights between the *Huascar* and the *Cochrane* and *Blanco* off the coast of Bolivia nearly twenty years ago. Much in this fashion, meanwhile, the country has with rapid change passed from a state of mind still tolerant of things of the spirit to one preoccupied with slaughter by sea, and presently by land.

Mr. James W. Alexander's recent magazine article, 'Princeton, Old and New,' revised, amplified, and lavishly illustrated, is now issued as a small book (Scribners), bound in a pleasing cover designed by Mr. F. Berkeley Smith. While the book has its chief interest for Princeton graduates, it might well attract strangers to that lovely place, whose natural beauties have lately been enhanced by some of the best college architecture in the country. Indeed, Blair Hall and the University Library have more of the true spirit of New and Magdalen than all the Victorian Gothic at Oxford. Attractive, too, is the individuality of Princeton College life as described by Mr. Alexander, than whom no one is more intimately acquainted with it.

An interesting and useful little book is Mr. H. E. Parkhurst's 'How to Name the Birds' (Scribners), which is designed to enable a bird-lover in the Eastern States to identify any of some three hundred birds that he may see on his rambles. Mr. Parkhurst's grouping of the birds for this purpose is as practical as it is novel. Instead of following the usual scientific method of proceeding by species and sub-species, any one of which may include, as happens with the thrushes, birds as widely differing in size, color, and habits as the brown-thrasher and the kinglet, Mr. Parkhurst arranges his birds in five divisions—summer, winter, and permanent residents, migrants, and birds of prey. These classes are subdivided under the dominating colors, so that, given the time of year and the size and most striking colors of any bird, it can be quickly run down by using the key. Indeed, Mr. Parkhurst believes that even the sparrow tribe can thus be distinguished by a close observer without killing specimens. The Appalachian birds are so well known to scientists, and our museums are so well equipped with their skins and nests, that whatever influence will direct ornithologists in the Eastern States towards a closer study of bird-life and away from bird-destruction is to be welcomed. This book should increase the taking of field notes on the migration, nesting, and feeding of birds. It can be carried in the pocket, has a map and three admirable illustrations, descriptive of anatomy and plumage, two in colors.

The 'Essais de Critique Dramatique' of M. Antoine Benoist (Paris: Hachette) treat of Sand, Musset, Feuillet, Augier, and Dumas *fils*. The dedication to Sarcey is not needed to inform us that the author is a pupil of the famous critic, but it is a proper acknowledgment of the debt he owes him. Reading Benoist is like reading Sarcey without the *bonhomie* and the wit and without the wonderful knowledge of dramatic literature possessed by the critic of the *Temps;* but for a permanent study that is an advantage.

Without being in any way original, the 'Propos Littéraires' of the Vicomte de Broc (Paris: Plon, Nourrit & Cie.) are pleasant reading, and may be recommended to those who desire to have a fair idea of some of the best writers of France without studying a history of literature. M. de Broc vaguely recalls Roche, whose anecdotic History of French Literature used to be the delight of women teachers, but the present volume is a more serious piece of work.

In France, it is well known, the *lycées de jeunes filles* have multiplied rapidly, and it is no longer the opportunity for secondary instruction that needs advocates, but rather the more general admission of women to the teaching force in secondary schools and their adequate training for such positions. Dr. Macé, in his 'Place à la Femme, surtout dans l'enseignement secondaire' (Paris: A. Charles), takes up the gauntlet for this cause; but he is especially desirous of having young women prepared to teach children Latin at an early age, orally, "entre deux caresses, . . . sans efforts en se promenant." We learn from his little book that at several lyceums for boys in Paris (viz., the Lycées Molière, Racine, Lamartine, Fénelon) women, instead of men, have been appointed as physicians, and, what is more surprising yet, that the head physician at the court of "Emperor Li-Hung-Tchang"(!) is a woman.

Paul Heyse's 'Martha's Briefe an Maria: Ein Beitrag zur Frauenbewegung,' after having been widely circulated through the columns of the *Gartenlaube*, has just passed through a second edition in pamphlet form (Stuttgart: Cotta). Their mild but earnest tone and charming style make these eleven letters the most artistic plea that could be imagined. They might be read with delight by thousands of young women in our colleges and universities, who would at the same time be helping their less fortunate sisters in benighted Bavaria—the proceeds of the sale going to the fund for a girls' gymnasium in Munich.

The July number of the *American Historical Review* will contain an article by Prof. W. G. Sumner on "The Spanish Dollar and the Colonial Shilling," and a letter of Jefferson's in which, at so early a date as 1783, he makes to George Rogers Clark a suggestion of a transcontinental exploration like that subsequently achieved by Capt. Lewis and by Clark's brother.

The "Cuba number" of the *National Geographic Magazine* for May is mostly devoted to an account, by Prof. Robert T. Hill, of the geographical relations of the island, its topography, flora (which includes over 3,350 native plants), climate (far less insalubrious, in his opinion, than is currently believed), agriculture, mineral resources (chiefly iron and copper), commerce, and the inhabitants and their government. The native Cubans, outside of Havana, he says, are a "gentle, industrious, and normally peaceable race. . . . It is their boast that no Cuban woman has ever become a prostitute, and crime is certainly almost unknown among them." There are no manufacturing industries, except tobacco and sugar, "the persistent policy of Spain having been to promote the importation of manufactured articles from the mother country." In Prof. Hill's travels over the island he saw but a single other industrial establishment, a mill for extracting oil from cocoanuts and making soap. Mr. Frank M. Chapman treats of the origin of West India bird-life, and the editor gives the statistics of the trade of this country with the island for the last ten years. There are several interesting illustrations and two maps—one topographical, the other shaded so as to show the devastated regions and the Spanish fortified posts and Cuban outposts.

The *Geographical Journal* for May contains a description, by H. W. Smyth, of a visit to the Siamese states on the northeastern coast of the Malay peninsula. Among the principal industries are tin-mining and the collection of edible birds'-nests. The value of the latter may be gathered from the fact that in one state a bird's-nest farm is leased by the Government at an annual rental of $10,000, while the yearly cost of the guard-boats alone is $5,000. The white nests bring ten dollars a pound. Baron Nordenskiöld, in an account of his observations of the effect of drift-ice in calming a rough sea, suggests the protection of exposed harbors by small floating breakwaters. Among other articles are an encouraging report on the condition and progress of a district of the British Central Africa Protectorate; and a paper on sea-beaches and sandbanks, by V. Cornish, embodying "a research upon the processes which distribute the detritus which enters the sea at its margin, and upon the behavior of the material distributed."

The Balkans seen from a bicycle is the subject of the opening article of the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for May. It consists of a series of entertaining sketches, by the Rev. H. Callan, of the scenery and the people of the western part of the peninsula. In his characterization of the Turk, the writer says that the rank and file of the people are "physically, morally, and socially sound," that the "common Turk, peasant or soldier, is a man whom you are bound to respect for his many good, sound qualities, *e. g.*, honesty, sobriety, modesty, bravery." He draws an impressive picture of the Governor-General, Suleiman Pasha, who told him "how hard it was to govern well or wisely in a régime that was not leaving the world, but that the world was leaving." Least hopeful of the other races are the Greeks, "who are developing too quickly, exceeding

their natural means"; most interesting are the Albanians, in whom the bond of "guest friendship" is as strong as in the days of Herodotus and Xenophon. Following this in a number of exceptional value is an account by J. A. Greig, a Scottish missionary in Mantchuria, of a journey across that country to Vladivostok, and thence by rail, steamer, and tarantass to Moscow. The activity of Russia was evident at every point. Along its bank of the Amur, for instance, "at every few miles are villages, post, and military stations. On the Chinese side the great primeval forests are unbroken." Mr. Greig closes by saying that the three things which impressed him most were "the strength of Russia as a military power, the extent of useful, and in parts beautiful but undeveloped, territory she possesses in Siberia, and the great desirability to Russia of the sunny, fertile, and wealthy mineral province of Mantchuria." The journey from Kirin to Leith, we may add, took seventy-six days and cost $375.

Dr. Alexander Agassiz and Dr. Alfred Goldsborough Mayer, during a recent visit to the Great Barrier Reef of Australia, obtained some specimens of Medusæ, which they describe in the Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy at Harvard College (volume 32, No. 2). The first number of this volume contains a paper on Dactylometra by the same authors. Admirably executed plates accompany both articles.

A biographical sketch of the late Hubert Anson Newton, professor of mathematics in Yale University, appears in the Proceedings of the Royal Society of London for April 30. The writer selects two series of investigations to illustrate how much modern science owes to Prof. Newton, and gives a summary of their results. The first of these is his great work on November star-showers, which led to the discovery of the real orbit of the meteors. The other is the explanation of the motions of periodical and non-periodical comets. The same number contains a notice of Sir Richard Quain, the eminent physician and editor of the 'Dictionary of Medicine,' with which his name will always be associated. The Croonian Lecture on "The Nature and Significance of Functional Metabolism in the Plant," by Dr. Wilhelm Pfeffer, and the Bakerian Lecture, on "Further Experiments on the Action exerted by certain Metals and other bodies on a Photographic Plate," by Dr. W. J. Russell, are to be found in these Proceedings for April 28.

The loan exhibition of book-plates and super-libros held by the Club of Odd Volumes at the Boston Museum during the past five weeks, under the auspices of the Print Department, has been attended by the publication of a catalogue which all collectors will be glad to own. An historical introduction of twenty-two pages; the list of pieces arranged by country (the United States constituting one-half); a list of American designers and engravers not named in the catalogue, but who have executed plates for public libraries; the list of super-libros ("outward signs of the ownership of books"); the bibliography; and finally the list of designers and engravers and of owners embraced in the catalogue, make this little volume most useful for reference. It is beautified by several examples of book-plates in facsimile, of various periods, from Albert Dürer to Paul Revere and E. D. French.

The Managing Committee of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens will hold examinations for two fellowships in Classical Archæology on March 16-19, 1899, both at the School and at the American School in Rome, and in America at any of the universities and colleges represented on the Managing Committee. A third (Agnes Hoppin Memorial) Fellowship has been established, with an income of $1,000, and will be awarded to any woman worthy of it in the Committee's opinion without examination, but not without evidence. Intention to compete for the first two fellowships must be in the hands of Prof. Benjamin I. Wheeler, Ithaca, N. Y., not later than February 1, 1899.

In these days of war maps we could not expect the great German cartographers to stay their hands. The Spanish-American seat of war is well shown, accordingly, in a folding map between paper covers, edited by Hermann Habenicht—an ominous name for Spain (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The scope of this chart embraces Newfoundland on the north, the Orinoco on the south, the whole of the West Indies, the United States east of the Mississippi, with part of Mexico and all of Central America. Cables are colored according to the nationality owning and controlling them. There are side maps of Cuba (to show disputed possession), Porto Rico, Havana, New York and its approaches, the Bermudas, and the North Atlantic, with currents and trade routes. Apart from the Philippines, this map will answer all ordinary purposes.

—The *Atlantic Monthly* for June has three articles on Education, the most noticeable of which is Frederic Burk's "Normal Schools and the Training of Teachers." He mentions the fact that in Massachusetts the number of pupils in these schools is decreasing, there having been a loss of 23 per cent. in the nine years 1888-97, as against a gain of 38 per cent. in the previous nine years. Mr. Hill, of the State Board of Education, suggests three reasons: the influence of the local training-schools for teachers, the influence of the higher standard of admission, and the influence of the colleges in attracting to their courses many who would otherwise attend normal schools. The second reason, however, "can hardly be considered a primary cause," because the higher standard was not enforced till 1896, while "the ebb-tide in attendance set in as early as 1888." Any one who will read carefully what Mr. Burk has to say of the method of instruction pursued in normal schools, will probably come to the conclusion that those who wish to qualify themselves for teaching can now get the substantive knowledge required elsewhere, and that the normal-school method at present in vogue is positively vicious. He declares that the normal school has "staked its fortune" upon the assumption that, for the preparation of teachers, a "substitute for knowledge" is possible and practicable. This substitute he describes as "the selected facts required by the common-school curricula, together with certain specific methods of teaching them according to the ordained principles which pupils are trained to believe are more or less fixed." Of the extraordinary importance attached to method, one gets an idea from Mr. Burk's account of what he calls "devices" for teaching. The pupil, for instance, is encouraged to devise a new method of teaching elementary branches. One draws out some cardboard elephants, horses, and bears, and explains that the child can by tracing lines round these draw a much more accurate elephant, horse, or bear than by free-hand drawing. Another draws a circle with radii on the blackboard, and at the centre puts the word "at." At the extremities of the radii, the consonants, *m*, *c*, and *r* are written. Thus the child learns at a glance the correlated words mat, cat, and rat. On the other hand, so little attention is paid to substance that, in a normal school, history may mean the bare facts of American history. No wonder that "State normal schools have been supplanted" by training-schools, colleges, and especially colleges for women. The principles of Horace Mann have been perverted to base uses, and his name is invoked to bolster up a deadly formalism which, were he alive, he would be the first to denounce. The *Atlantic* has introduced the improvement, which other magazines will perhaps follow, of putting all its verse together. This gives dignity to it, and, if generally adopted, will relieve editors of the grotesque charge brought against them by some poets, of regarding poetry merely as a sort of printers' "fat," to be used to fill up the blank spaces at the end of prose articles.

—*Scribner's* for this month, except for the continued contributions, is rather empty. The leading paper is an article on "Undergraduate Life at Vassar," by Margaret Sherwood, forming one of a number on undergraduate life in general which this magazine has been publishing. The article throws some light on the supposed deficiency of a "sense of humor" among women, a charge so often brought forward by masculine critics. It is obvious from such accounts as this that women have just the same sense of the ludicrous that men have—that is, they laugh just as much, and find just the same food for amusement in absurd, grotesque, and ridiculous contrasts. But as they have not necessarily the same interests as man, they do not necessarily laugh at the same things. For instance, when we are told that a debate was held at Vassar on the question, "Does a college education unfit men for domestic life?" and was decided in the affirmative, we perceive a secondary satiric intent, which must have provoked hearty amusement among the losers as well as the winners, but it is not a man's joke.

—The *Century* has three Spanish articles, one on Toledo, by Stephen Bonsal, with illustrations by Joseph Pennell; one called "Pictures for Don Quixote," by W. D. Howells, written to accompany drawings by Vierge; and one on the Spanish Armada, by William Frederic Tilton, based in part on "manuscript Irish correspondence in the London Record Office," and accompanied by a critical introduction by Capt. Mahan. The sum and substance of the story is that what accomplished the ruin of the Armada was mainly "very commonplace human mismanagement." Medina-Sidonia was an incompetent commander—we have his own word for it that he knew "nothing of the sea or of war," and had many times said that he was "unfit for a command at sea"; the vessels were not adapted for the kind of fighting they were expected to do, being neither swift enough nor handy enough; the English were better gunners and sailors. Finally, the security of the fleet, and the time and manner of the junction to be ef-

fected with the Duke of Parma, commanding the Spanish army in the Low Countries, were left to chance. As to the disasters in the Atlantic after the fleet had got to the west of Ireland, these were due "either to original unseaworthiness, or to damage received in action, or to bad judgment in taking unweatherly ships too close to the shores of Ireland, where strong westerly gales prevailed and the coast was inhospitable." All these conditions were "preventable by human foresight and skill," but it is a curious fact that both sides attributed the result to a direct interposition of the Almighty. The reception which the wretched Spanish fugitives met with when wrecked on the Irish coast almost beggars belief, but outrageous cruelty was so much the rule three centuries since among civilized men that no great kindness was to be looked for from savages, who, as Capt. Cuellar reported, lived among their rugged hills like wild beasts. When it was a common fate for a prisoner of war to be knocked on the head in cold blood because he was one of the "poorer sort" who would bring no ransom, we cannot but feel that the historian may over-emphasize the difference between the civilized man of the period and the wild creatures among whom Capt. Cuellar fell.

—*Harper's* has for its chief illustrated articles an account of "The Czar's People," by Julian Ralph, and a paper on "The Trolley in Rural Parts," by Sylvester Baxter, who has a vision of the world that is to be, in which the face of nature will be a network of trolleys, and every citizen of moderate means, as he now has his bicycle, will have his private trolley-car, with which he will go anywhere he likes, taking his household and friends with him. Already the new systems are pushing far into the country. Capt. Mahan contributes an article on "Current Fallacies upon Naval Subjects," which, if we are not mistaken, consists itself very largely of a fallacy—that of confounding actual with potential preparation for defence. What induces other nations to respect or to heed the wishes of the United States is not merely the number of its ships or regiments, but a reserve force, consisting partly of its wealth, and which has on every occasion enabled it to deal successfully with every foe it has encountered. Most Americans believe that this reserve force counts for far more than any other one thing in making the country respected abroad. Most people think, too, that one of the best ways of increasing this potential defence would be to pay off the national debt as fast as possible. But if they are not right, then the only alternative is to make every man a soldier, as on the Continent, by actually training him as such, and having a navy equal at least to the two greatest navies in the world (this being England's plan with reference to her European rivals). Captain Mahan shrinks from any such conclusion, but he assumes throughout that we are surrounded by neighbors who are merely waiting for an opportunity to pounce down upon us and tear us to pieces. For instance, he makes the exclusion of "direct European political control" of the Isthmus Canal as much a matter of "national defence" as "the protection of New York harbor." Is there any evidence that any European nation contemplates exclusive control? The only nation in the world that has threatened exclusive control is the United States. The fact is, that Captain Mahan, when he wanders out of his own field of naval strategy, and undertakes to discuss questions which are part political and part economic, is feeble; he writes like a doctrinaire. In the present article his remarks on obsolescent ships are valuable; his observations on law and government show clearly that he is quite out of his depth in writing about them. In one extraordinarily confused passage he suggests that the Mexican war, though it may have been "unjust," was not necessarily "wrong"; and maintains that "law" is "set aside . . . at every election."

—The Harvard *Law Review* for June has a valuable article by Prof. J. B. Thayer on "The Present and the Future of the Law of Evidence," a subject on which he always speaks with authority. The article is a model of condensation, for in seventeen pages the writer manages to bring before the reader's mind the principal features of the common-law system of evidence, while in seven more he disposes of the question of needed reforms and how we should get them. Of the drift of this learned essay as a whole, it is impossible in the space at our command to give an adequate idea; we can only refer to one or two practical points. Prof. Thayer insists that decisions as to evidence in the trial court should be generally final. This would do away with one great abuse productive of enormous delay and expense in this country, and, curiously enough, non-existent in England—that of trying a case "for exceptions." In the United States, questions of evidence "are generally taken up (*i. e.*, appealed) on exceptions, a procedure never common in England, and now abolished there, which presents only a dry question of law—not leaving to the upper court that power to heed the general justice of the case which the more elastic procedure of the English courts so commonly allows, and tending thus to foster delay and chicane." Every one knows that it is a constant incident of the administration of justice with us that a case is tried in order to get one or two exceptions to evidence which may be sufficient in the appellate court to upset the verdict—the theory being that if, with the objectionable evidence admitted or rejected, the jury *might* have rendered a different verdict, then the whole case must be tried over again. Prof. Thayer would first have a thorough revision of the whole law of evidence for the purpose of eliminating from it what are really rules of substantive law (this thorough revision is the work on which he has been engaged for many years); and if some one asks whether his suggestions are not in a measure directed against jury trial itself, he says that the reduction of the volume of jury trials would not be an unmixed evil, and in many jurisdictions, *e. g.*, in Massachusetts, this volume has been greatly reduced by the introduction of the simple rule that cases will be tried without a jury unless a party in interest asks for it. But assuming jury trial to continue in the main as at present, the great fundamental principles for its regulation are simple. The testimony must be given orally in court in the presence of the jury; the parties must have the right to cross-examine; writings must be produced for inspection; unnecessary, irrelevant, confusing and misleading evidence must be excluded; new trials must be had where injustice would otherwise be done. Jury trial is based on a few great principles like these, and if they were kept steadily under the oversight and control of the court "by being dealt with as rules of court," our system of evidence "might be vastly improved, and be made conformable to the changing convenience of mankind."

—The Colonial Society of Pennsylvania some time ago announced its intention of reproducing the *American Weekly Mercury*, the first newspaper issued in America south of Boston, from its commencement in 1719 to its close in 1752. The publication of this paper was begun in Philadelphia in December, 1719, by Andrew Bradford, a son of the founder of the press in the Middle Colonies. The father, William Bradford, settled in Philadelphia in 1685, and was forced, in 1693, to seek in New York the freedom of thought which was denied to him by the persecuting spirit of the religious faction then dominant in Pennsylvania. Andrew Bradford, some twenty years later, revived his father's business in Philadelphia, and continued it successfully until his death, in 1744. The newspaper, which he began to publish in 1719, did not die with him, but was continued by his widow until 1752, when it was finally suspended. The reprint of the first volume is an absolute facsimile, prepared under the care of Mr. Julius F. Sachse, from the copy now in the Philadelphia Loganian Library, and the only one known to exist. A glance at the volume is all that is necessary to show the excellence of the reproduction. The committee in charge of the work have spared neither pains nor expense to make it both attractive and useful—witness their elaborate index, which opens up a field of information of the greatest utility to the historian and genealogist. The latter will find the advertisements a very fruitful, if not always an entirely pleasing, source of information; while the former, in the communication "To the Printer," will discover much valuable matter which has been hitherto overlooked. The shipping news not only is an interesting showing of the growth of Philadelphia's commerce, but supplies curious details as to the movements of the ancestors of many Americans of to-day. The volume is bound in brown cloth, and sells at seven dollars and a half.

GENERAL MEADE.

Life of General George Gordon Meade, Commander of the Army of the Potomac. By Richard Meade Bache; with portraits and maps. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co. 1898. 8vo, pp. xxii, 596.

General Meade came of a family of Philadelphia merchants, largely engaged in commerce with the West Indies and with Europe, and prominent during several generations among the business men of that city. His father, after spending several years of his early manhood in business ventures in foreign parts, made his temporary residence in Spain, establishing a business house at Cadiz, where he resided seventeen years, down to 1820. The General was born there on the last day of 1815, and was therefore in his fifth year when the family was reassembled in the United States. As his father's purpose to return had been unchanged, though the absence was protracted by business exigencies, the children were natural-born citizens of this country; yet persons unfamiliar with law often annoyed General Meade with ignorant debate of the subject.

He was appointed to the Military Academy at West Point in 1831, graduated in due course, but resigned in 1836 to devote himself to civil engineering. After several years devoted to railway construction and to work as a civilian assistant to army engineers running national boundary lines at both extremities of the country, he returned to the army in 1842, as lieutenant in the corps of topographical engineers. In the Mexican war he served on General Taylor's staff in the opening campaign, and then with General Scott at the taking of Vera Cruz, but, being a supernumerary there, was not permanently attached to Scott's staff and returned home.

When the civil war broke out he was at the head of the list of captains in his corps, John Pope being next, with W. F. Smith, J. G. Parke, and G. K. Warren among the juniors. All of these became general officers of volunteers. Meade took the field in 1862 as Brigadier in the Pennsylvania Reserves, under General McCall as division commander. From that time he was in active service with the Army of the Potomac. He was commandant of division at South Mountain, Antietam, and Fredericksburg, commandant of corps at Chancellorsville, commandant of the army at Gettysburg, and commanding it as second to Grant from The Wilderness to Appomattox. In every subordinate position he had the fullest confidence of his superiors; but, by a fate not uncommon among soldiers, his elevation to the command of an independent army in the field led to a partial eclipse of his renown, generals of the first rank being few indeed in proportion to the number of respectable and even brilliant subordinates.

The victory at Gettysburg was of immense importance to the national cause, but as it was, on Meade's part, a purely defensive battle, it left open the question of his ability to conduct offensive operations. Mr. Lincoln was disappointed at what seemed to him a failure to reap the fruits of success. Assertions were made by officers of rank near Gen. Meade that he was unwillingly led to accept battle at Gettysburg, and, if left to himself, would have retired to the line of Pipe Creek, a day's march nearer Washington. It seems to be true that orders for such retreat were drafted and a council of war called to consider the subject, but the council voted that it was necessary to fight where the army was. The Potomac Army was stronger than Lee's, but the latter was not again brought to battle until Grant took the command in the field in the following year. Lee sent Longstreet's corps six hundred miles to join Bragg, and, after the mischief was done at Chickamauga, Hooker was sent from the Potomac army with a similar force and by a still longer circuit to Rosecrans to help repair the damage; but the two armies in Virginia did each other no harm.

It was in the nature of things that a change of some sort must be made, and it came in the form of Grant's appointment as Lieutenant-General and his taking active command in the field in Virginia, Meade being then reduced to the position of second in command. This, of course, involved some chafing. The principals seemed to get on well enough together, but about each were friends who looked askance at what was going on at the other headquarters. Grant generously insisted that Meade's promotion for subordinate work should keep pace with Sherman's for independent successful campaigns on a great scale. But when all was done, it was evident that grievances were laid up and jealousies cherished which must be brought to the light of day when the time for historical writing should come.

Meade's biography was an altogether appropriate task for his kinsman, Mr. Bache, who, though not himself a military man, had been a good deal in contact with military life, and had enjoyed the affectionate confidence of the General. It was also quite natural that Mr. Bache should conclude that, from Gettysburg onward, Meade's military biography must include a pretty full history of the campaigns of the Potomac Army, for his proposition turns out to be that Grant's influence there was only evil, and that continually. To put it in his own words:

> "Taking it altogether, there never was in history, so far as I am aware, any case so detrimental as Grant's presence in the field with the real commander of the army, except that of a king, or a prince of the blood, who was formerly often there, as an inspiring influence or from military aspirations, and, from whatever motive, generally a hindrance instead of a help to military operations" (p. 403).

It is plain that if this proposition is to be established, thorough work must be made with the analysis of the campaign.

It would next seem a pity to deal fully with the latter half of the Potomac Army's history and give only bits of the first half by limiting the author to Meade's own part in it, and so the plan of the work seems to have widened out to a narrative of all the campaigns of that army. Mr. Bache does not find that any one of them, prior to Gettysburg, showed true military ability in the successive commanders. McDowell, Pope, McClellan, Burnside, Hooker, with Halleck as their chief, are all tried and found wanting. The criticisms upon them vary in harshness; those who were, at the time or subsequently, brought into controversy with Meade being flagellated with such exaggerated severity that it suggests a disposition to punish Meade's enemies more than to make a sound criticism of a campaign.

Yet many of the general statements of canons for judgment of military conduct are correct, and we cannot deny that the Army of the Potomac had failed to find a leader able to give it the triumphs its numbers, its discipline, and its courage deserved. If, however, we look for the application of these same rules of judgment to Meade's leadership from June, 1863, to March, 1864, we are disappointed. The story here becomes a rather lame and painful apology for lack of results, and when we come to the systematic disparagement of Grant as a "hindrance instead of a help" to what Meade would have done in 1864, we think involuntarily of Lincoln's original answer to such disparagement in 1862, "At least, he fights"; and, destructive as it is, fighting is what an army is made for. Nothing but dogged, determined, and most costly fighting, East and West, brought the war to a successful end.

The assertions of Grant's incompetence turn out to be, in the main, mere assertions, though made with a self-assurance which is phenomenal. Let us take, for example, the crossing of the James River by the Potomac Army and the movement to Petersburg in June, 1864. Mr. Bache begins with the assertion that Grant left Meade "completely in the dark as to his ulterior purpose" (p. 460). He follows this up with the assertion that Grant "bungled the matter of his intended surprise of Petersburg" (p. 461); that he "did not in his memoirs scruple to ignore" his omission to inform Meade of his purpose (*ibid.*); that this not only was an "egregious error," but gave the case "the aspect of his having wished to signalize himself by a master stroke of strategy," and so "having purposely withheld from him [Meade] information which should have been imparted" (p. 467). Instead of proving all this, the author excuses himself on the ground that "space does not admit" it, but he is sure his assertions will be found correct by the reader who carefully examines the records and histories, and that "it is only too sadly confirmed by the evasion of Grant himself and his accredited historian Badeau" (p. 460).

As to the "evasion," the industrious reader will be amused to find that Grant, instead of evading, squarely states in his memoirs that, immediately on his return from the visit to Gen. Butler on June 14, at which the attempt to take Petersburg was arranged, he "communicated to Gen. Meade, in writing, the directions I had given to Gen. Butler," and instructions to hasten details of coöperation (Memoirs ii., 294). The amusement will be increased when the diligent one turns to the Official Records, and finds Grant writing to Meade himself within a fortnight of the event, "I am very much mistaken if you were not informed of the contemplated movement against Petersburg, as soon as I returned to Wilcox's Landing from Bermuda Hundred, and that the object of getting the Second Corps [Hancock's] up without waiting for the supply train to come up to issue rations to them, was that they might be on hand if required. I arranged to have rations sent down from Bermuda Hundred to issue as the troops crossed" (O. R. xl, pt. 1, p. 315). This letter was written in reply to Meade's endorsement on Hancock's request for investigation; and while there is room for doubt whether it was officially transmitted, the event showed that its contents were made known and acquiesced in. It stated that Grant found no fault with Hancock or Meade for the delay in the advance of the Second Corps from Windmill Point.

If we strive to follow still further Mr. Bache's suggestion to examine the Records, we find in Meade's communication to Hancock internal evidence that Grant had given him the results of the visit to Butler precisely as he stated. Grant's original directions had been that the troops, on crossing the James, should encamp at the nearest suitable place on the south side (*Id.*, pt. 2, p. 1). At 8:30 A. M. of the 14th, Meade accordingly ordered Hancock to begin crossing to Windmill Point in transports at once, and to "encamp on suitable ground after crossing the river" (*Id.*, p. 24). The shallowness of the water at the south bank was a cause of delay, and the passage took all day and most of the night. Grant wrote to Butler after getting back to his headquarters, telling him that Hancock's corps would all be over before daylight of the 15th, and would march in the morning direct for Petersburg, halting at the point on the road nearest City Point for further orders. He authorized Butler to send back to Hancock for support if it was needed. Butler was also directed to send rations for Hancock's men by water to Windmill Point, to save delay (*Id.*, p. 36). This letter was dated at 8 P. M. In the

same evening we find Meade writing to Hancock, revoking the orders as to encamping, and saying, "You need not spend any time in taking up a line, but hold yourself ready to move, as you may receive orders to march to Petersburg, in which case rations will be sent you from City Point" (*Id.*, p. 27). No hour is marked on this dispatch, but its time is sufficiently fixed by the date of Hancock's answer, which is 9:25 P. M. At ten o'clock in the evening, Meade writes again, saying: "Gen. Butler has been ordered to send to you at Windmill Point 60,000 rations. Soon as these are received and issued you will move your corps by the most direct route to Petersburg, taking up a position where the City Point Railroad crosses Harrison's Creek, at the cross-roads indicated on the map at this point," etc. (*Id.*, p. 29). The facts here given could come to Meade from no one but Grant. They contain the essential facts and directions which are contained in Grant's letter to Butler of eight o'clock, and unanswerably confirm his statements before quoted.

We have to add to this that W. F. Smith's corps (the Eighteenth) had been sent, a day or two before, to Butler, by way of White House and steamboat transportation, and Meade had himself issued this order. He knew the force Butler thus had on hand, and its position, threatening Petersburg; and no one could so grievously attack his intelligence as a soldier as he who would argue that he did not know the meaning of the order for Hancock's hasty advance, from the circumstances, even if the explicit statement that Butler was about to attack Petersburg had been accidentally omitted. But the quotations Meade made from Grant's communication settle all that.

The records also throw a curious sidelight upon the little things which, in war, may baffle the best calculations. As a matter of fact, Hancock's corps was not out of rations, and had no need to delay for them. He had written to Meade on the 14th that he had three days' rations from that morning, which would carry him to the night of the 16th (*Id.*, p. 25). But no notice seems to have been taken of this by Meade, and the representations that Hancock's men were hungry, made Grant order Butler to send down a supply by water in the night. As Meade's dispatches still continued to tell Hancock to receive and issue the 60,000 which would come to him, the latter naturally supposed there must be some strong reason for it, and waited till the middle of the forenoon of the 15th before marching. At 7:15 A. M. he was deceived by a report that the rations had arrived, and at 7:30 Meade ordered him to march without them, but added a postscript leaving it optional in view of the report that they had come (*Id.*, p. 57). The result of it all was that the column did not get in motion till 10:30.

Yet Butler was not in fault. He had ordered the rations to be sent, and the Quartermaster started them from City Point in the schooner *Susan*, with a steamboat alongside. The vessel was probably one of the supply fleet loaded with assorted rations, and the intent was to save handling the freight. But the *Susan* drew eleven feet of water and could not come to the shallow landing at Windmill Point (*Id.*, p. 58)! The chapter of accidents and small blunders was thus completed by "the total depravity of inanimate things"; and, if we may paraphrase a passage from Mr. Bache (p. 555), Grant, who had Scotch blood in his veins, may have recalled the couplet,

> "The best laid plans o' mice and men
> Aft gang agley."

The example given is a perfectly fair specimen of Mr. Bache's inability to judge reasonably of Grant and his conduct. He fails to read or to understand the record, and seems to see facts and conclusions from them alike distorted by his own prejudices. When he ends by suggesting that Grant could by any possibility be aided in "signalizing himself" by hiding from Meade the purpose which the latter must assist in carrying out, the thing becomes childish. The correspondence between Grant and Butler was there to settle the "priority of invention," and no subsequent frankness with Meade could imperil it. Grant was never expansive, but finesse in making a mystery of his plans was not in his line. As he, from the first, exonerated Meade as well as Hancock from blame for his disappointment, Mr. Bache's violence is gratuitous and wanton.

It must be remembered that Butler was also an army commander independent of Meade, and as such was intrusted with the direct movement on Petersburg. He was directed not to make the attempt unless it was reasonably sure to succeed with the force which he had in hand; but in the unexpected contingency of needing assistance, he was to send back to Hancock for it. The latter by every fair reckoning would be within short supporting distance, and Butler's or Smith's official word that they were authorized to call on him for aid would, by every military rule and custom, be sufficient. That all were ordered to move rapidly was the fact, but it would have been none the less their military duty if not a word had been said about it. Finally, Butler was Meade's senior, and if Grant, as Mr. Bache's official marplot, had been absent, Meade would have had the pleasure of reporting personally to Butler for orders. We do not need Mr. Bache to tell us how he would have enjoyed it.

MORE NOVELS.

A Spanish Maid. By L. Quiller Couch. London: Service & Paton; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

The Beth Book. By Sarah Grand. D. Appleton & Co.

The Celebrity: An Episode. By Winston Churchill. Macmillan.

Mrs. Knollys, and Other Stories. By F. J. Stimson. Charles Scribner's Sons.

A Night in Acadie. By Kate Chopin. Chicago: Way & Williams.

The War of the Worlds. By H. G. Wells. Harper & Brothers.

Mr. Quiller Couch, in his new story, has imported into the already eerie atmosphere of Cornwall a fresh element of mystery from Spain. The uncanny traits of Carmen and the Flying Dutchman have been blended in the episode of the visit of a bewitching Spanish maiden to the good fisher folk of Landecarrock. Arrived by means supernatural, her conduct is such as is merely natural to the siren of song and story, the "minx with a way with her" of Mrs. Humphry Ward's felicitous christening. She is the spirit of evil incarnate in beauty's own shape, and she acts accordingly—from the time that fisher-boy 'Zekiel rescues her, to his own undoing, to the moment when incensed Landecarrock chases her down to the sea, and she is caught up again in the supernatural. The tale is painful, but there are cheery glimpses through the storm, and a bright gleam in the west as the story goes down. An antiquarian parson, his little granddaughter, who dreams dreams of princes, the soundhearted young squire of the village, the long-suffering hostess of the Spanish waif, the victimized 'Zekiel, and the wicked spirit herself, are well drawn; and the indignant matrons and merry maidens, with the village gossip, grave-digger, and idiot, are well sketched in. There is a dreadful deal of weather in the book. The scene is set with frantic accompaniment of thunder and lightning; and though the case is one which Mendelssohn declared to be the only justification of heavy brass music—namely, "witches or some deep grief"—yet the din of it oppresses the mind's ear. We cannot think the book, imaginative though it is, quite as great a gain to literature as Mr. Quiller Couch's short stories. Those we have long delighted to honor as exquisite little creations. This is a readable book.

"Some things may be thought that cannot be said," sings Peacock's ballad, in which the monk thinks "Get up" aloud and the docile mule runs away. Mrs. Sarah Grand either has not read or does not agree with Peacock. There is nothing thinkable about Beth from the cradle to the second husband, from her complexion to her soul, that is not set down in 'The Beth Book.' For nearly six hundred pages we are chained to her, doomed to learn how she thought, felt, aspired, and rebelled, how she learned to eat, sew, bathe, and brush her hair, and even what vulgarities and obscenities she overheard in the streets. We learn how, in a *moment perdu*, she took to writing, and caught the mannerisms of the favorite author of the moment; how, when she was reading Macaulay, her own thought "jerked along in short, sharp sentences" (a perfect description of Macaulay's style), and how she caught the "peculiarities of De Quincey, too, of Carlyle, and also some of the simple dignity of Ruskin, which was not so easy"—all this before she discovered that coming "under the influence of academic minds" made her "artificial" and her English "turgid with Latinities." There is no fault to be found with Beth's determination "not to write plotty-plotty books nor make a pivot of the everlasting love-story"; but if those topics are eliminated, others as taking should be substituted. If there is "an absence of a true sense of proportion" in making love the centre of all stories, and we agree with Beth in thinking there is, surely there is as little balance in writing a book with no centre at all and swelling it with unwholesome ingredients to shapeless and dropsical hugeness. The implied confidence in public interest in this enormous mass of largely repulsive details almost reaches the sublime—yes, goes even a step further. "Poverty of mind accounts for the shortness of the book as a rule," says one of Mrs. Grand's characters, discoursing on authorship. If this explains the quantity of the narrative, the quality remains still unexplained and unexplainable. It would be going too far to say that there is nothing noble in it. There are fine thoughts and clever sayings, and a much insisted upon high purpose of emancipating woman from

the tyranny of dissipated husbands. There is even a trace of amiability toward the monster, man, in a declaration that he is mainly bad through habit. Teach him that he can be as good as a woman, and he will learn to believe in himself. But, first, woman must shut him up in a dark closet and starve him on dry doctrine through the keyhole, and write books about him, and preach to him that he can be good, only he does not yet know it. A great deal of firmness and a little kindness make the method.

Beth's genius hovers over many fields; the piano, rabbit-killing, the exercise of what is called her "further faculty"—a sort of second sight which never accomplishes anything but to deprive her of the first; then writing, till finally, in a blaze of revelation, her mission is discovered to be public speaking in behalf of "the work," which, roughly stated, is the elevation of man without anæsthetics. For a woman who disbelieved so thoroughly in him, Beth had a susceptible head. (Love affairs never went to her heart, which was the organ of self-pity.) Her redemption from despair is accomplished by the daily sight of a horseman passing her door, with whom she never exchanged a word; she makes an engagement or two and a miserable marriage and a few friendships, and we leave her about to be redeemed again by a gentleman "in art." He is last seen stalking across the fields towards her with redemption in his eye and, let us hope, divorce papers in his pocket; for, to all seeming, she is still the wife of her very unpleasant first husband. This latest life-saver of hers is an American; and yet there are those who oppose the Monroe Doctrine!

'The Celebrity' is too good a story to spoil by outlining it and thus anticipating its surprises. It belongs, indeed, to vulgar literature, but is neither insincere nor unclean, and may safely be commended as a clever achievement in extravaganza, emitting, in a way not all extravagant, sparks of satire against the egoistic passion, and adorned with a portrait or two more living than mere penwork. Most notable of these is that of the Western magnate and turfman, who is made surprisingly possible though at once unbearable and a good fellow; superstitious, profane, kind, and "horsey," a man who gives as a wedding present to the bride and groom who animate the closing pages a *repoussé* silver urn bearing the design of Mercury driving four horses with tails docked (by special instruction to the artist).

"Mrs. Knollys" is and long has been a lovable little story. It tells how a glacier after forty years yielded up its dead, and it brings into an effective and affecting parallel the image of the slow march of the eternal ice, faithfully preserving, and the step of time down the course of human experience, relentlessly change-making. In short stories Mr. Stimson has never done better. Its followers in this volume we find something less successful, although they hold the attention, and are mainly on a theme dear to all the world—that of military and other conquerors blighted in every style by hopeless love for beautiful damsels.

Kate Chopin tells a story like a poet, and reproduces the spirit of a landscape like a painter. Her stories are to the bayous of Louisiana what Mary Wilkins's are to New England, with a difference, to be sure, as the Cape jessamine is different from the cinnamon rose, but like in seizing the heart of her people and showing the traits that come from their surroundings; like, too, in giving without a wasted word the history of main crises in their lives. That Cape jessamine is sometimes a thought too heavy is perhaps inevitable in the heated South. But enough there is of artistic in the best sense to hold the reader from cover to cover, transported for the time to a region of fierce passions, mediæval chivalry, combined with rags and bad grammar, a soft, sliding Creole accent, and the tragedies and comedies that loom with special meaning in a sparsely settled country.

As is well known, the scientifically gruesome is Mr. Wells's forte. In his 'Thirty Strange Stories' we supped on thirty kinds of horror, each course a brief one. But in the 'War of the Worlds,' which is a novel, we are sated with one long banquet of horrors. The usual miseries of war are not enough; a hundred new ones are invented to suit the invented inhabitants of another and a more highly civilized world. The men of "vast, cool, and unsympathetic intellects," who are all brain and hand, smiting with heat-rays, and choking out life with tubes of liquid black smoke, make mere powder and shell household pets by comparison. To read this story of the emptying of London and the wasting of Surrey by the loathsome Martians—for they are repulsive as well as fearful—is to quake by day and sink into nightmare after. Such tribute as this is certainly not to be denied it. The whole conception is highly ingenious, and the deliverance at last, although a fresh horror in itself, is unexpected cheer. That the accursed bacteria of disease and putrefaction should come to man's rescue and stay the Martians (who, having no bacteria in their otherwise happy home, have developed no resisting power against them as we have) is an untying worthy Mr. Wells's genius. Under his accustomed skill of treatment the whole is entirely convincing, but we acknowledge that we prefer terror in smaller prescriptions. We suspect, however, that Mr. Wells thinks it nothing, as Thoreau says, to go round the world to count the cats in Zanzibar, and that he is not likely to be restrained from ever bolder flights of his weird fancy, to ever stranger places, whither perforce his spellbound readers must follow.

HOLM'S HISTORY OF GREECE.

The History of Greece from its Commencement to the Close of Independence of the Greek Nation. By Adolph Holm. Vols. II.-IV. Macmillan.

It will be interesting to observe the effect of the displacement of Curtius by Holm as the standard history of Greece for the general reader and literary worker. In a former notice of the translation of Holm's first volume, we commented on the sobriety and sanity of his judgment, and more especially on the pains he has taken in all doubtful matters to distinguish the threads of the original tradition from the fabrics of modern erudite conjecture. The impression is strengthened by a rapid perusal of the three remaining volumes of the translation which now lie before us. The book is not only the most compact and convenient repertory of the facts accessible to the general reader, but it is a salutary illustration of the simplicity and directness of a true method as opposed to the conventional declamation party spirit and caprice that mark many of the most picturesque and popular of our histories of Greece. Prof. Holm has simply eliminated rhetoric from his treatment of Greek history, and the resultant economy of space and clarification of our vision show us how large a place it had occupied. Where the evidence does not permit us to conclude, he is content to say so, instead of juggling with it in the endeavor to make possibility look like probability, and probability pass for certainty. He admits, with a touch of Socratic irony, that he cannot vie with the genius of a Curtius, a Droysen, or a Mommsen. But he confronts Curtius's highly colored picture of the degeneracy of democratic Athens with a tabular view in parallel columns of the eloquent historian's own phrases, from which it appears that precisely the same symptoms of sudden and irremediable moral decline manifested themselves about the years 430 and 360 B. C. Had a great moral revival occurred in the interim? he pertinently inquires. He deals similarly with Droysen's declamations about the frivolity of the Athens of Epicurus and Menander; and, while admiring the ingenious historian's "combinations," dryly observes: "The narration of the facts conjectured by him naturally occupies a great deal of space." Equally refreshing and incisive are his remarks on Mommsen's Cæsar worship, and on the oversubtlety of classification which the learned historian of Rome applies to the legal status of the subject cities of the Empire. The study of Holm will prove a wholesome antidote to the mystic and pontifical manner of writing history.

In his defence of democracy, and his preference of the Athenian to the Dorian or Spartan type, Holm is a disciple of Grote. He even outbids Grote in admiration for Pericles, to whom he attributes far-reaching designs of "pulling out a few more stops in the average Athenian," as Matthew Arnold would say, by the introduction of Ionian science and Ionian culture and liberalism in the treatment of women. Like Grote, Holm protests against the use of Aristophanes as an historical authority, and, without committing himself to the exaggerations of Müller-Strübing, he knows how to make allowance for the inevitable prejudices of Thucydides. He joins in the rehabilitation of Cleon, whose success at Sphacteria he thinks (for once venturing on a conjecture) was due to a scheme prearranged with Demosthenes and the party that favored a vigorous prosecution of the war. He even has a good word for Hyperbolus, a "baser nature," perhaps, but unjustly thrust "between the pass and fell incensed points of mighty opposites." But his desire to rehabilitate the democracy and the popular leaders stops short of Grote's justification or palliation of the judicial murder of the generals of Arginousæ.

Holm's treatment of the fourth century is perhaps sufficiently indicated by his admiration for Xenophon, "a genuine Socratic, who eschews all phrase-making," and Isocrates, "the first and greatest publicist of antiquity." Accepting as he does Isocrates's programme of uniting Greece under some strong headship against Persia, he is comparatively unsympathetic towards Demosthenes, whom he oddly compares with "the agitator Gladstone," and takes a more favorable view than Grote of the character and achievements of Alexander.

The most valuable portion of the entire work is the fourth and final volume, in which the history of Greek civilization is

brought down from the death of Alexander to the battle of Actium. The unity and interest of the theme lie, not in the shifting fortunes, the political intrigues, and the petty wars of the successors of the adventurers who carved themselves kingdoms out of Alexander's empire, but in the gradual diffusion of Hellenic culture over new continents and in the continued life and development of Greek city civilization. The name Alexandrian commonly applied to the entire period is a misnomer. The national life is far more truly represented by Athens, Rhodes, and the Greek cities of Asia Minor and the leagues than by the endowed science, the artificial poetry, the absolutism, and the immorality of the court of the Ptolemies. The alleged degeneracy of the Athenian people is sufficiently refuted by the high spirit they repeatedly displayed through these centuries in defence of their lives and liberties. The conventional declamations about the overthrow of Grecian liberty by the Macedonian or the Roman rest on an utter misconception of the facts. The course of history had demonstrated that freedom for the Greek meant simply the autonomy or local self-government of the *polis*. It did not and could not mean playing a great part on the stage of world-politics. The last hope of that vanished with the overthrow of the Athenian empire by the separatist cantonal jealousy that was at once the strength and the weakness of the Greek. "He was born to other politics." Even under the hegemony of Athens, Sparta, or Thebes, the citizen of an ordinary Greek town would have enjoyed at the most the liberty of communal autonomy, and this he did not forfeit under the rule of the successors of Alexander and the Romans. And the history of the fourth century proved that neither Athens, Sparta, nor Thebes could maintain order and play the part of international arbiter as justly as Rome and the kings did on the whole. The conclusion is, that we ought not, in the name of an illusory political liberty, to deplore the hegemony of Alexander, which extended Greek civilization to lands undreamed of by Isocrates, or the later rule of the Romans, which secured to the Greek cities of Asia Minor, under the *Pax Romana*, two or three hundred years of a prosperity hardly matched in the annals of mankind.

The life of the Greek *polis* during these centuries has more than a merely historical interest for us. Our vast centralized modern states, fenced from each other by protective tariffs and groaning under the burden of colossal armaments, do not necessarily constitute a higher political type than that presented by the system of Hellenized cities grouped about the Mediterranean under the presidency of the "central monad," Rome, which, as a rule, took from them little beyond the pernicious privilege of making war on one another.

Space fails us to follow in detail Holm's application of these considerations to the history of this interesting and little known period. He deserves the greatest praise for his masterly grasp and lucid presentation of the immense and complicated material. For the first time, unless we make a partial exception in favor of Mahaffy's interesting sketches, we have an intelligible and readable account of these important centuries. It is the indispensable preparation for any true appreciation of the work and mission of Rome.

A word, too, must be said in commendation of the notes that are appended to each chapter throughout the work. To the student they are more interesting than the text. They contain full references to the extant original sources, a critical examination of these sources, with a statement of all that is known or conjectured of their dependence on authors now lost; judicious criticism of the chief modern authorities, German and English, and a full treatment of all the latest epigraphic, monumental, and numismatic evidence—an enormous collection of useful material in systematic, compact form.

The translation is readable and substantially correct, though not free from occasional awkwardness and inaccuracy. "Forms of speech" and "forms of thought" (3, p. 222) should evidently be "figures of speech," etc. Miltiades was the victor rather than the conqueror of Marathon. Free inquiry was not limited to a "particular district" (2, 422), but to "ein spezielles Gebiet," namely, the phenomena of nature. "Defeated just like Dionysius had been" is poor English. Misprints and blunders in proper names and Greek words are much rarer than they were in the first volume, but are still far too frequent. We have noted, among others, Dexileus (3, 47), ἀπεψηφίσμενοι (2, 286), ἠτοίμοικεν (3, 256), Halonnessus (2, 265), τὸ λυσιτελῶν (3, 242), προβάλεσθαι (*ibid.*), ταπεινώσειεν (3, 259), μετακλησείς (3, 243), Democles for Demokedes (2, 430), Thrasydacus for Thrasydaeus (2, 86), Flaminius for Flamininus (4, 63), Gytheum for Gythium (4, 239 and 357), τό for τέ (4, 429), καταπληκτικὴ φαντασία for καταληπτικὴ (4, 158), etc., etc. The population of Seleucia (4, 450) should evidently be 600,000, not 6,000,000!

Reminiscences of the Old Navy. By Edgar Stanton Maclay. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

This small volume is the product of the material found in the journals and papers of Captain Edward Trenchard and of his son, the late Rear-Admiral Stephen D. Trenchard. These papers, though covering a period of time measured by eighty years, judged by results, present comparatively little of interest or historical value. There is, for instance, but the barest mention of the services of the elder Trenchard in the waters of Tripoli or during the war of 1812, in which he superintended the construction of one of the first of our vessels built upon the waters of Lake Ontario. At the time of the affair with Tripoli, Edward Trenchard was the intimate friend and contemporary of Stephen Decatur, while in the war of 1812 he commanded the sloop of war *Madison*. The only time in Edward Trenchard's career which is treated with any degree of fulness is his cruise in the *Cyane*, in 1820, against the slave trade on the west coast of Africa.

Admiral Trenchard, with a much longer and more recent career in the navy, has for his part worthy of mention only the attack upon the Pei-ho forts and his creditable share in the operations against Fort Fisher during our late civil war. In the affair of the Pei-ho forts, which occurred in 1859, the attack was made by Admiral James Hope, of the British navy, in command of an allied force, composed of British and French naval forces, the latter being quite small in number. Trenchard was present at the affair as flag-lieutenant of Commodore Tattnall, who then held the position of flag-officer of the forces of the United States upon the China station. With Mr. Ward, our Minister to Pekin, Tattnall and Trenchard were on board an English merchant steamer, chartered as a tender, the flagship *Powhatan* being of too heavy a draft to cross the bar and ascend the river to Tientsin. In the first attempt made by Tattnall to ascend and convey Mr. Ward towards Pekin, the tender—the *Toey-wan*—grounded opposite the forts of the Pei-ho, and was relieved from this predicament by the assistance of Admiral Hope, who had authorized Tattnall to hoist the American flag upon one of the English gunboats if he deemed it necessary—an exceptional act of courtesy. Before another attempt was made by the *Toey-wan*, the attack upon the barrier and forts was made by the force under Admiral Hope. The Chinese batteries, hitherto masked by hanging mats over their embrasures, opened a heavy fire upon the column of gunboats. Several were sunk, and a number of officers were killed or wounded, Admiral Hope being among the latter number. It was at this time that Tattnall made the exclamation, "Blood is thicker than water," and proceeded with his barge to the assistance of the English Admiral, receiving a shot in his boat which killed his coxswain and slightly wounded Trenchard, who accompanied him. The boat sank as it reached the gunboat carrying the English Admiral's flag, and, while waiting for another boat, the barge's crew manned the bow gun of this vessel most effectively. Other material assistance was rendered by the *Toey-wan* to the attacking force, which was repulsed, however, both ashore and afloat, and the English Admiral was forced to withdraw with a heavy loss of eighty-nine killed and three hundred and fifty-five wounded. This disaster was one of the most serious which have occurred to the British navy of late years.

During the greater part of our civil war the duty of Admiral Trenchard, as commanding officer of the *Rhode Island*, was principally one of supply and convoy. Towards the end of the war, however, an opportunity was given him of seeing more active service, when his ship was made one of the fleet under Admiral Porter engaged in the operations against Fort Fisher. His share in the attacks upon the fort was performed in a most creditable manner, especially in the second and successful attack. The *Rhode Island* did her work most effectually, for not only was an efficient landing party put on shore to join the naval assault upon the fort, but another party under Lieutenant (now Commander) Tanner performed great service in landing siege guns for the army through the surf, while the ship itself, with the present Chief of Naval Ordnance as second in command, kept up a heavy and uninterrupted fire upon the mound battery connected with Fort Fisher, during the entire engagement.

Admiral Trenchard had thus exceptional opportunity during his professional career of observing the difficulties attending a naval attack upon well defended land fortifications, and the necessity of combining with it a military force of sufficient size and mobility. In the two cases referred to, the command of the sea was with the attacking force; with this in doubt, the difficulties and uncertainties are necessarily greatly magnified.

Ambroise Paré and his Times. 1510-1590. By Stephen Paget. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

France, perhaps on account of her promi-

nence in European warfare during the past 600 years, has been fortunate in developing a long line of good army surgeons. The list begins with Jehan Pitard, who went crusading with St. Louis, and reaches its culminating point in Jean Dominique Larrey, Napoleon's faithful servant and the surgeon of widest practical experience in the field that modern times has produced. Nearly midway between Pitard and Larrey we encounter Ambroise Paré, the superior of the first in opportunity and almost the equal of the second in character. Had he not written numerous works, some of them autobiographical, he would be remembered solely for his connection with the later Valois kings and for his practice of ligaturing the artery after amputation. His own writings make him a flesh-and-blood reality instead of a name, and Mr. Paget has placed us under obligations by editing for the English reader such treatises as the 'Account of the Plague' and 'Journeys in Divers Places.' We do not refer merely to his translation from the French of the sixteenth century, but to his presentation of Paré's typical *opera* in any form. The original copies are very rare and seldom to be met with outside of great national or corporate collections.

Mr. Paget's essay on Paré's life and actions belongs to history rather than to surgery. That science has so far advanced since the beginning of the French Revolutionary wars that the technique of the best men before Larrey belongs to the archæology of the subject. Paré, kind-hearted though he was, must be called proud. He was a stanch friend of the poor, and we do not mean that he was proud in the Filippo Argenti sense. Still, he set great store by himself, and was not a little vain of his achievements. He felt that he was the only surgeon of his age who had followed armies in the field for thirty years. Remembering this, we are the less surprised to find among his dedications this account of his place in the history of his craft:

"God is my witness, and men are not ignorant of it, that I have labored more than forty years to throw light on the art of surgery and bring it to perfection. And in this labor I have striven so hard to attain my end, that the ancients have not wherein to excel us, save the discovery of first principles, and posterity will not be able to surpass us (be it said without malice or offence) save by some additions such as are easily made to things already discovered."

To pen this sort of a challenge was evidently not considered by sixteenth-century prophets to be a flight in the face of Providence. Now that Paré has been superseded, it would be unkind to dwell upon his natural and harmless vaunting. We should only remember that he was the first to supplement theory by a vast experience; the first to set trained hand and eye above the cogitations of the easy chair; and among the foremost of those who showed that, even amid the debasement of a Valois palace, life could be well led.

From the contrast between his spirit and the circumstances of his time, one takes great pleasure in tracing out Paré's career. He was a devotee of science, and, despite Renaissance tendencies, the love of war still clashed with the pursuit of scientific aims. He believed in justice, and had to see the masses trodden under foot. An ardent patriot, he was forced to stand and wait while factions were ruining the happiness of his country. He professed Huguenot doctrines at the moment of the *noces vermeilles*, and was saved from destruction only by a friendship which led Charles IX. to place him in the same class with his own nurse. He was a lover of righteousness, and yet beheld the daily existence of princes from the inside. A good deal of what Brantôme describes must have passed under his eyes. L'Hôpital, Coligny, and Paré stand forth prominent among the saving remnant of a generation whose moral sense was blunted by the sins "that practice burns into the blood." He did not shrink from the shock of what he regarded to be honest war. On one occasion a volley levelled by his advice killed nearly a score of canaille. This story notwithstanding, his humane qualities mark him off from the mass of his contemporaries. He ministered to the enemy's wounded after the siege of Metz, and was used to shun all forms of professional cruelty which could be avoided.

Paré's 'Apologie et Traicte contenant les Voyages faicts en divers Lieulx' is admirably translated by Mr. Paget, and occupies, with its attendant notes, nearly one-half of the entire space. Written in polemical form against Gourmelen, Dean of the Faculty of Medicine at Paris, it proves how the author reached his unequalled skill. Gourmelen, "mon petit Maistre," attacked the ligature in defence of the cautery. Paré then, in 1580, at the height of his fame and by no means past his vigor, picked up the glove. His answer, judged by standards of sixteenth-century controversy, is polite, without lacking force. His purpose is simple enough. "You accuse me of malpractice. I will show you how I learned surgery and what I have done." Then, under separate heads, he describes nineteen campaigns or journeys on important professional business. After three years of hospital life in Paris, he had gone with the army to Italy, simply for the sake of getting good cases and material. His success was due to sheer merit. He went to the root of his trade before he reached the head of the royal surgical staff. Paré's style is delightfully vivacious, and from his wealth of adventures he draws forth those only which are to the point. Considered as memoirs, they are all too brief. They can at a sitting be read through aloud, and, once taken up in this way, they will hardly be laid aside till the end is reached. To select a single instance: French historical literature must be ransacked before it yields a more life-like picture than Guise's defence of Metz.

We can give unqualified praise to Mr. Paget's part in this book. It is not a work of erudition, but, besides being based on Paré's writings and the best modern authorities, it is well prepared, well arranged, well written. Doctors and historical readers will alike welcome his sketch which brings them into living contact with a surgical pioneer of high character; one, also, of the decentest men France produced in the century of the Reformation. The illustrations are very suitable, and the single censure we can make involves a small point of chronology: Charles IX. was a year or so older at his death than Mr. Paget states him to have been.

Religion and Conscience in Ancient Egypt. Lectures delivered at University College, London. By W. M. Flinders Petrie, D.C.L., LL.D., Ph.D. Scribners. 1898. Pp. 179.

Syria and Egypt. From the Tell el-Amarna Letters. By W. M. Flinders Petrie. Scribners. 1898. Pp. vii, 187.

These two volumes by Prof. Petrie are quite characteristic. The author is a man intent upon the representation of what is, rather than upon the development of fantastic theories of what may have been. To be sure, the most important part of the first book mentioned is in the exposition of what may be called the author's theory of the manifold and conglomerate nature of the Egyptian population; but if theory it be, it has a mass of fact behind it which is entirely lacking in the speculative explanations of the Egyptian religion with which we have been surfeited *ad nauseam*. In the capacity of discoverer, as it were, of this commingling of races in Egypt, Dr. Petrie may be excused for a fondness for a presentation of the subject, particularly as he dwelt upon the matter within very modest limits in his 'History.'

Any one who has studied the religion of Egypt at all has been struck by the discrepancies of conception which characterize it. This feature has been explained by the conservative character of the people; by their unwillingness to discard the old and by their willingness to adopt the new, notwithstanding the fact that there was an evident lack of harmony and consistency between the amalgamated elements. But Dr. Petrie has shown us a more excellent way. He finds four sources of immigration, each distinct and each having its peculiar religious notions and belief. From these he argues as many classes of theistic conception. These diverse ideas were supreme or mingled according to the political relations of the races which held them; one set dominating another or mingling with it, according as one race was supreme or only the ally or peer of the other. Such an hypothesis is certainly suggestive at least, and as it serves to explain many "discordances" of religious tenets, it has much in its favor.

The religious texts of Egypt are past number, but their contents are very meagre in their stores of actual information. The official religion is somewhat a matter of conjecture, but this is less true of the texts which Prof. Petrie here investigates. He has turned a keen mind to the examination of the tales which have come down to us embodying the folk-lore of Egypt. Here we come face to face with the popular religious belief, and here we find the most satisfactory results in the whole book. The whole discussion of the religion is stimulating, and it forms an important addition to our information.

When we turn to the discussion of conscience, we descend to a treatment of a distinctly lower order. Dr. Petrie's preliminary remarks on the nature of conscience are unsatisfactory, and the massing of material lacks life and spirit. The term conscience is also a misnomer; the subject treated is rather the standard of morality. There is no attempt to show whether there was any historical development or not, and the use of passages from Egyptian texts by way of illustration reminds one of the method of citing Biblical proof-texts in theology without any regard to their location in the order and progress of revelation. The Pentateuch, the Psalms, the Gospels, and the Epistles used to be regarded as equally good sources from which to draw. Similarly, Dr. Petrie makes no distinction between the documents from which he draws. It

would be interesting to know whether the tone of morality and the standard of ethics advanced or retrograded, or simply changed the points of emphasis; but the reader is left in the dark on these important subjects so far as any effective details are concerned. If the entire documents used as sources of information had been reproduced in an appendix, they would have afforded some aid in this matter; but as this was not done, the present performance must be regarded as only partially satisfactory and, on the whole, as quite inadequate. The classified treatment of the duties of the moral code of Egypt is too mechanical and wooden to arouse much interest or to add greatly to our knowledge. The lack of an index further reduces the value of the work as a book of reference.

The volume on 'Syria and Egypt' contains a brief account of the finding of the cuneiform tablets of Tell el-Amarna, with summaries of their contents and a brief running commentary. The finding of these letters is one of the romantic things in modern discovery, and the marvel of the story which they have revealed surpasses the wonders of the necromancers. Prof. Petrie's performance is an attempt to arrange the letters in their historical order, but his commentary is restricted within too narrow limits. He has made a beginning, but scarcely more. There are many questions of contemporary history to be cleared up, and the claims and theories of earlier students are to be sifted with great care. With regard to the question of the date of the exodus of Israel from Egypt, the author's weight is thrown in favor of the usual view.

The general character of the two volumes is that of *obiter dicta*. The author is a busy man who has thrown off these books in the intervals of engrossing excavation and research in the field, and they bear the character which must attach to labors of this sort. They contain much valuable material, but they are not deeply learned, and they do not smell of the lamp.

Ceylon: Tagebuchblätter und Reise-Erinnerungen. Von Wilhelm Geiger. Wiesbaden, 1898. New York: Lemcke & Buechner. Royal 8vo, illustrated.

The present illustrated and descriptive volume on Ceylon is the work of a German professor, distinguished for his scholarship. It is a spirited and bright contribution, without a particle of the dry-as-dust element that tradition sometimes associates with Teutonic erudition. In other words, the book is not the diary of an ordinary traveller who is off on a jaunt to foreign lands, but is the production of a scholar who has a trained mind, a sympathetic heart, a wholesome love for nature, and who is qualified to judge of what he saw during his voyage to the Island of Ceylon in 1895-'96.

Dr. Geiger's name first became known in the field of Persian literary research. Of late years he has turned his attention to the sacred language of the Buddhists, and especially to the Singhalese. This latter fact accounts for his particular interest in southern India; and as an outcome of this he has given a good picture of the life that he saw in Colombo and in portions of the interior of Ceylon. The professor is evidently not a golf player (see p. 80), although the game has its devotees even in Ceylon. One may be interested in reading that Christianity, among the various sects of the island, claims one-sixth as many adherents as Buddhism (pp. 44, 72).

Of importance to the anthropologist, as well as to the philologist, are the author's investigations into the characteristics of the aboriginal tribe, the Weddas. This curious people, not pigmies but small of stature, are as deft in the use of the bow and the hatchet as they are shy in avoiding intrusion from outsiders into their jungle home. The photographs of these aborigines show rather an interesting, odd type. The book, moreover, is embellished by more than twenty original illustrations, which have not been published before; it is appropriately got up, and is written in a style of German that deserves commendation for its ease, grace, and charm.

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Basket, J. N. "At You-All's House." A Missouri Nature Story. Macmillan. $1.50.

Bates, J. H. Christian Science and its Problems. Eaton & Mains. 50c.

Baxter, Katharine S. His Pretty Cousin. F. T. Neely.

Blass, Prof. Fr. Philology of the Gospels. Macmillan. $1.75.

Carlyle, Thomas. History of Friedrich II. of Prussia. Vol. VI. [Centenary Edition.] Scribners. $1.25.

Comfortable Thoughts for those Bereaved. Whittaker. 25c.

Day, T. F. Songs of Sea and Sail. New York: Rudder Publishing Co.

Fulton, Chandos. An Unusual Husband. F. T. Neely.

Goetschius, Percy. The Homophonic Form of Musical Composition. New York: G. Schirmer.

Grey, Henry. The Classics for the Million. New ed. London: John Long.

Hudilston, J. H. Greek Tragedy in the Light of Vase Paintings. Macmillan. $1.75.

Kennedy, Walker. Javan Ben Seir: A Story of Olden Israel. F. A. Stokes Co. 75c.

King, Capt. Charles. A Wounded Name. F. T. Neely. $1.25.

Leiser, Joseph. Before the Dawn: Poems. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co.

Lowrey, Oliver. A Runaway Couple. F. T. Neely.

MacEwan, E. J. The Essentials of Argumentation. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.12.

Marbourg, Dolores. The Soul of a Woman. F. T. Neely. 50c.

McKesson, C. L. Under Pike's Peak. F. T. Neely. 50c.

Neely's Panorama of Cuba. F. T. Neely. 10c.

Peary, R. E. Northward Over the "Great Ice." 2 vols. F. A. Stokes Co. $6.50.

Petrie, W. M. F. Syria and Egypt. From the Tell el-Amarna Letters. London: Methuen & Co.

Prentiss, H. M. The Great Polar Current. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.

Proal, Louis. Political Crime. Appletons. $1.50.

Ravenstein, E. G. A Journal of the First Voyage of Vasco da Gama, 1497-1499. London: Hakluyt Society.

Rice, J. M. The Rational Spelling-Book. Two Parts. American Book Co.

Romero, Matias. Coffee and India-Rubber Culture in Mexico. Preceded by Geographical and Statistical Notes on Mexico. Putnams. $3.

Rosher, Charles. Poems. London: Haas & Co.

Sienkiewicz, H. With Fire and Sword. Popular Edition. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.00.

Simonds, Prof. W. E. An Introduction to the Study of English Fiction. Briefer Edition. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.

St. Clair, George. Creation Records Discovered in Egypt. London: David Nutt.

Stetson, Charlotte P. In This Our World. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.25.

The Century Magazine. Nov., 1897—April, 1898. Century Co.

The Encyclopædia of Sport. Parts XIV. and XV. Putnams. Each $1.

Thoroddsen, Th. Geschichte der Isländischen Geographie. Zweiter Band. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.

Todd, Mary I. The Heterodox Marriage of a New Woman. New York: Robert Lewis Weed Co. $1.

Triggs, O. L. Selections from the Prose and Poetry of Walt Whitman. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.25.

Van Oss, S. F. Fenn on the Funds; being a Handbook of Public Debts. 16th ed. London: Effingham Wilson.

War: Tales from McClure's. Doubleday & McClure Co. 25c.

Ward, Mrs. Humphry. Helbeck of Bannisdale. 2 vols. Macmillan.

Wentworth, G. A. An Advanced Arithmetic. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.

Willets, Gilson. Anita, the Cuban Spy. F. T. Neely.

Zeigler, W. G. It Was Marlowe. A Story of the Secret of Three Centuries. Chicago: Donohue, Henneberry & Co.

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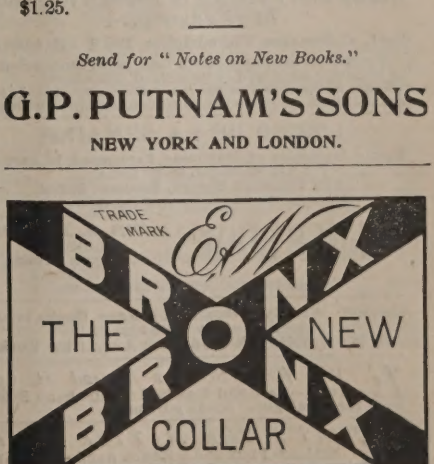

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 16, 1898.

The Week.

The assurance that Oregon will send another gold-standard man to the Senate next January encourages the hope that the Republican Senators committed to that policy may constitute a majority of the upper branch in the Fifty-sixth Congress. One seat now occupied by a Democrat, that of Gorman, will be turned over to a Gold Republican next March, through the election of McComas by the Maryland Legislature last winter. Another Democrat, Mitchell of Wisconsin, is sure of a Republican successor, who will be sound on the financial issue. The chances must certainly be considered more than even that similar changes will occur in the cases of Murphy of New York, Smith of New Jersey, Turpee of Indiana, and White of California, all of whom belong to the class whose terms will expire next spring. Leaving out of the account Bill Chandler, who "wobbles" more or less, there are thirty-seven gold-standard Republicans whose terms last through the next Congress or who are sure to be succeeded by men of the same mind. Maryland and Oregon already assure two more, and Wisconsin is as certain to send another as though the election had already been held, bringing the total up to forty, which would rise to forty-four with Republican victories in the four generally close States of New York, New Jersey, Indiana, and California. If Nebraska could be added to the list and send a gold-standard man to succeed the Populist Allen, the casting vote of the Vice-President would give that side a majority, even if Chandler should be eccentric enough to go the other way. If the elections next November shall give the Republicans the House by a large majority, there is a good prospect that they may control the next Senate also.

Not having been able to get their own way about coining the seigniorage, the silver Senators are consoling themselves by denouncing Secretary Gage for having recognized the probability of the Government's needing money to carry on the war. The Secretary, it seems, had been so presumptuous as to contemplate the passage of an act providing for an issue of bonds and the application of stamps to the millions of papers used in ordinary business. This act, it need hardly be said, was certain to go into effect at once; nevertheless, the Secretary of the Treasury, according to the views of the silverites, ought to have calmly ignored all probabilities, and not lifted a finger to make preparations for carrying it out. On the same principle the Army and Navy Departments ought to have abstained from all military preparations until the actual declaration of war by Congress. We do not know what preparations the Secretary of the Treasury may have made, but we venture to say both that he has exercised the utmost forethought and that the demand for internal-revenue stamps will be so sudden and so great that all his forethought will be shown to have been necessary. He is to be congratulated on the enemies he has made, and the press of the country can do him and the cause of intelligent government no better service than by giving the widest publicity to such criticisms as those of Senators Jones and Wolcott.

A correspondent writes to us that Senator Tillman, the Populist pitchfork Senator from South Carolina, had a protectionist motive for proposing the duty of 10 cents per pound on tea. Tillman has a constituent, the writer says, at Summerville, S. C., who cultivates tea and produces two or three thousand pounds per year at three times the cost of the imported article of equal grade. This constituent has always clamored for protection, and now he is likely to get it by means of a tax on the 90,000,000 pounds consumed in the United States. This is the only satisfactory explanation that has been offered for Tillman's motive and for the support he received from the Democrats in the Senate. The conference committee on the revenue bill has accepted the duty on tea, and it will form a part of the complete measure. Its productiveness in the way of revenue and the present needs of the Government make this clause too attractive to be thrown away when presented as a Populist-Democratic measure.

It is refreshing to observe that the demagogues are "getting left" in the war which they were so anxious to bring about. The Masons and Thurstons and Gallingers in the Republican party find nobody ready any longer to listen to their rant, while even the Forakers see how absurd the course of events has rendered their clamor of two months ago for recognition of the Cuban republic. The demagogues in the other party fare no better. Bryan himself has come to occupy a ridiculous position. The Populists have been "pitching into" the Republican President for appointing men without military training, and with only political or family claims, to high positions in the army, and now the Populist Governor of Nebraska puts Bryan in the colonelcy of a regiment, although he knows nothing whatever about the army, and is without the slightest experience even in the militia. Even Populists must be able to see the absurdity of such a performance.

It is the first step that costs. Those supporters of Hawaiian annexation who think that they can take those islands and stop there, and who desire to stop there, are fatally mistaken. They cannot control the onward movement. They cannot even control themselves. It is Hawaii to-day, the Philippines to-morrow, and something else the day after, until we are involved in all the complications of the Old World, and in army and navy expenses to correspond. That this is the expectation of the promoters of Hawaiian annexation is proved by the fact that whenever this so-called expansion is presented to them as an almost necessary consequence of their act, they say that they see no objection to colonies, and then they talk about making markets abroad for our manufactures. The "colonial policy," as understood by ninety-nine-hundredths of those who use the term, means the taking possession of a foreign country, and restricting its trade to our own producers by tariffs more or less exclusive. This is the policy of Spain with Cuba and the Philippines, and in the case of the former island has been the prime cause of the present and past insurrections. Those who talk about "colonial policy" for us, mean that we shall step into Spain's shoes and do what she did as regards trade.

It deserves attention that the Supreme Court of the United States has recently declared the law of citizenship applicable to children born in Hawaii, or in any other place that may become a part of this country. The language employed is as follows: "The fourteenth amendment affirms the ancient and fundamental rule of citizenship by birth within the territory, in the allegiance and under the protection of the country, including all children here born of resident aliens," with the exception of the children of foreign ministers, those born on foreign ships, those of enemies in hostile occupation, and those of Indian parentage. In whatever state of subjection we may expect to hold the motley populations of the Pacific islands, we must therefore exempt from it their children. These, being citizens of the United States, must have the rights of citizenship guaranteed by the Constitution, and no State can exclude them from its limits. The idea of our extending our government to the Philippine Islands is very pleasing to some minds, but it involves the idea that the population of these islands may transfer itself to this country. We may by act of Congress exclude people now in exist-

ence, but we shall be obliged to welcome the coming generations in all regions over which our flag may float to the full rights of American citizenship. Of the extent of this future immigration no one can form the slightest idea.

The remarks of President Patton, in the baccalaureate sermon which he delivered on Sunday at Princeton, afford an excellent illustration of the prevalence, among our educated classes, of a species of fatalism concerning measures of public policy. There is, no doubt, such a thing as "the logic of events, the march of history, the inevitable," before which we feel helpless; but there is also such a thing as a spirit of devotion to human rights which has altered the march of history, and interrupted what would otherwise have been the logic of events. Nothing could have seemed more in accordance with this logic than that a few thousand Athenians and Lacedæmonians should have submitted to the vast force of the King of Persia; but Thermopylæ and Marathon showed that events are shaped by human determination. We have often heard in this country that right makes might, and the "logic of events" and the "march of history" confirm the truth of the maxim. What conscientious people need to ask now is nothing but the old question—the question which, although tiresome, is just as "inevitable" as the march of history—What ought we to do? Nothing has been done in the present war that cannot be undone if justice demands that it be undone. "The boom of Admiral Dewey's cannon," said President Patton, "made us forget the Farewell Address." On the contrary, it made a great many people remember it; and the wisdom of Washington was never more manifest than at present. The principles that he explained will endure, as permanent appeals to reason, long after the sensations aroused by the boom of cannon and the slaughter of Spaniards have subsided; and it is in such principles that the logic of events is most truly expressed.

The appointment of the clerical force in the Bureau which it is proposed to establish for taking the next and subsequent censuses, has given rise to a vigorous struggle in the Senate. The bill reported by the committee provides for the appointment of the clerical force by the director of the census, after an examination of his own. Senator Cockrell flung down the gauntlet by proposing to amend the bill as reported, by making the clerical force subject to the civil-service laws. He declared that the object of the committee in removing this force from the operation of the law was to make the offices "the spoils of Congress, pure and simple, and unadulterated." Senator Lodge was equally open in asserting that the object in leaving the examination of clerks to the director of the census was to place the offices within the disposal of members of Congress, and he was supported by Senator Hoar. The spoilsmen, of course, repudiated this interpretation of their motives. Some said that the director of the census could have just as good examinations as the Civil-Service Commission; others that this commission was doing the cause of reform great injury. This was the position of Senator Chandler, whose attitude suggested that of the Irish orator who declared his willingness to sacrifice a part of the Constitution, and, if necessary, even the whole, in order to preserve the remainder. He professed great devotion to civil-service reform in the abstract, but fell back on the old ground that "this particular measure" was not desirable, and warned the Commissioners and their friends that by extending the system "upward and downward" they were constituting themselves the foes of genuine civil-service reform.

In spite of the fact that Senator Cockrell modified his amendment to the census bill so as to allow the chief clerk and the principal statisticians to be appointed without regard to the civil-service rules, the "spoilsmen" refused to give up their chance of plunder. Only 18 votes were cast in favor of the amendment to 31 against it. Party lines were not observed in this division, nor was there any reason why they should be, as a "non-partisan" amendment was carried. This provides that the appointments shall be divided in the ratio of one-third to one party and two-thirds to the other, so far as supervisors and enumerators are concerned. It was suggested that this should apply to clerks as well, but, as Senator Chandler justly observed, it would make the non-partisan theory ridiculous to apply it to women. Finally it was agreed that all persons employed in the Census Bureau should be selected on account of special fitness and without reference to their political affiliations. "The bearings of this observation lays in the application on it."

In consequence of the combination of abnormally heavy shipments and abnormally high wheat prices, the country's export of breadstuffs during May not only exceeded in value the highest record for the spring and summer season, but ran some eight or nine million dollars beyond even the December exports of 1891, which up to this date were the largest ever reported in any single month of our history. The comparison with recent years is most extraordinary. Against the $38,280,000 worth of breadstuffs sent abroad last month, there were exported in the same month of 1897 only $13,094,000, and in 1896 only $10,400,000. As compared even with the month of April, 1898, when the movement was already heavy, the May export of breadstuffs increased nearly eleven million dollars. When the figures of our cereal exports for the eleven months ending with May are reckoned together, it appears that the shipments for this period in the present fiscal year exceed those of the same months in 1897 by $116,500,000, those of 1896 by $171,600,000, and those of 1895 by $193,000,000. The student of our commercial and industrial situation hardly needs to go further to explain the powerful situation of the United States in the market for international exchange. It is in fact noteworthy that the increase in exports of the season is not even confined to breadstuffs, but has equally affected the outward movement of such commodities as cattle, pork, lard, dressed meats, and even cotton.

The Agricultural Department last week published its estimate for the growing crops, of which the winter-sown wheat is now so near maturity that forecasts may be made with safety. The estimate shows, as was to be expected after the season's high prices, a great increase in planted acreage of wheat. For the early and late crops combined, the estimated area is 43,000,000 acres, as compared with 39,465,000 acres harvested last year, 34,618,000 in 1896, and only 39,916,800 even in the "record year" 1891. In other words, the planted acreage under wheat this year is by far the largest in our history. Returns of the condition and promise of the crop are equally encouraging. The percentage condition of the winter-wheat crop is better by 12 per cent. than it was a year ago, and is the highest by far since 1891. The spring-wheat prospect, as computed by the Government returns, is apparently unprecedented in the Agricultural Department's records; it is certainly higher than any June estimate in the last fifteen years, and exceeds by 11 per cent. the corresponding estimate of a year ago. The conclusion of the Government experts is that a total crop of 637,300,000 bushels may be expected, which compares with accredited commercial estimates of 580,000,000 bushels last year and 680,000,000 in 1891. If precedent is to guide, the Government's forecast of the yield to be expected under existing circumstances is probably much too low; for the Agricultural Bureau has invariably underestimated the crop, and last year, even in August, published an estimate which the subsequent movement of the grain proved to have been at least one hundred million bushels below the facts. Commercial experts seem to agree at present that the wheat crop of 1898, barring accidents, will exceed considerably even that of 1891. Unless Mr. Bryan promptly achieves military glory in his amateur colonelship, we cannot look altogether hopefully on his prospects or on those of his associates.

The last proceeding in the Brooklyn Navy-yard dry-dock scandal is quite in keeping with the rest of the sad story. After a trial lasting twenty-four days Civil Engineer A. G. Menocal, U. S. N., who was in charge of the construction of the dock, has been found guilty of neglect and inefficiency in the performance of his duty, and has been sentenced to suspension on furlough pay for three years. This is a ridiculous punishment in view of the great loss to the Government in prestige and money, and in the disabling of the only dock large enough for first-class battle-ships in time of war—that is, if Mr. Menocal is really guilty. About this the court evidently had the gravest doubts, for it not only failed to find him "wholly neglectful" and "culpably inefficient," as the charges specified, but eight out of its nine members signed a recommendation for clemency, "because of his absence under orders at various times, and because of his absence from sickness at times, during the building of the dock; because of the imperfect provision of the contract and the imperfect wording of the same; because of the large amount of work under way at the time of building the dock, and because of the poor assistance Mr. Menocal had for his numerous duties. His attention to his duties, and his zeal and industry in attending to them, are most strongly certified to by all of the commanding officers under whom he served." One may well ask whether the court has not cleared Mr. Menocal by this recommendation and found the Navy Department guilty of some very serious offences, such as the making of imperfect contracts and of failing to provide proper inspectors.

A very important step has been taken by the Rapid-Transit Commission in obtaining an accurate statement of the revenue derived by the city of New York from the taxes on street railroads. Information of this character is an indispensable condition to any permanently satisfactory solution of the problem of the relations of these transportation companies to the municipality. There is a violent outcry against the companies because, it is claimed, they possess franchises of great value for which they pay little or nothing to the city, and many occurrences, recent as well as remote, have been of a nature to justify the charges of corrupt dealing brought against them. The best means of forming intelligent conclusions about the matter is to know what the companies earn and how much they pay, and this we now know officially from the reports of the Comptroller, based on the records of the Finance Department and the reports made to the State Railroad Commission. For the year ending June 30, 1897, the Metropolitan Company paid for percentage and license fees about $266,000, and for taxes on real and personal estate $384,000, a total of about $650,000. It carried during that time about 178,000,000 passengers, and its gross earnings were $8,888,000. It paid, therefore, about 7 1-3 per cent. of its gross earnings in taxes, or about one-third of a cent for each passenger. In view of the great expense of changing the means of propulsion, prospective as well as past, it is doubtful if the rate of taxation is at present lower than is expedient. The Manhattan Company is taxed about $609,000, its gross receipts being $9,163,000, and the number of passengers carried 183,000,000. Its taxes thus amount to about 6 2-3 per cent. of its gross earnings, or about a third of a cent per passenger. The Third Avenue road, on a much smaller business, pays a much lower rate, about 2 8-10 per cent. of its gross earnings, or one-seventh of a cent per passenger. The franchises more recently obtained would thus seem to pay more to the city than the older ones, which is no doubt equitable, but we require more complete statistics than have yet been furnished before a scientific system of taxation can be devised.

Mr. John Morley, by a few words which he uttered at Leeds last week, threw a flood of light on the proposed Anglo-American alliance. So far as that alliance was a union for peace and harmonious coöperation for mutual good, he welcomed it with exceeding gladness; but if it were an alliance of the Jingoes of England with the Jingoes of America, an alliance not for peace but for menace and war, it would be a new curse to both nations. Then he added:

> "I know tens of thousands of the best and wisest men in America who believe that hardly any more inexpressible calamity can befall mankind than that a community, as Lincoln nobly said, conceived in freedom and dedicated to the happiness of free and equal men, should entangle itself in the unrest and intrigue of militarism, which are the torment and scourge of the Old World."

Nothing could be more true or wise or more timely. Friendship we cannot have too much of. Friendship we can have without alliances. Indeed, the very word alliance means enmity to some nation or nations with which the ally is at enmity, but with which we are at peace. We hope never to see the United States in such an alliance. We hope never to see England in such an alliance. The best hopes of mankind are enlisted in the peaceful direction of the energies and resources of both countries. England is able to take care of herself, as Mr. Morley says. She needs no alliance to defend her rights. Nor do we need any to defend ours. All that we need is to keep out of other people's quarrels and to keep our hands off other people's property. We went to war (we solemnly declared) for the distinct and defined purpose of delivering a neighboring people from tyranny and anarchy. That purpose will undoubtedly be achieved. When it is accomplished, let us return to the duty of improving our own country and our own people. In this task there is enough work to employ our undivided energies for a hundred years to come.

What threatened to be a most ugly international dispute disappears with the signing of the Anglo-French convention on Monday respecting the division of territory on the Niger. The settlement has been made in a way to enable each side to claim a victory, and that is surely the highest triumph of diplomacy. The French retain a part of what they had seized, but to make up for it surrender a part of what they had held for a long time. Lord Salisbury gets something and yields something, and though his political opponents will angrily cry out that here is another of his "graceful concessions" to the detriment of England, he has clearly purchased peace at a very small price. English title to the lands in dispute rested upon too dubious treaties with native chiefs, too dubiously negotiated, to go to war to defend. The French Government may well say that it has come out of the affair with credit, but its troubles at home are thickening. M. Méline retains the Premiership only by a thread, and that may be snapped any day. The incurable vice of French political life—the breaking up of the Chamber into endless factions—makes party government and enduring cabinets impossible. As the *Figaro* lately jested, putting the words into the mouth of M. Joseph Prudhomme, contemplating the decreasing birth-rate and the growing number of political parties, "We have two great faults in this country—we do not multiply enough and we divide too much."

Zola's appearance before the Versailles tribunal for his second trial was made the occasion of a fresh manifestation of judicial bias against him. His counsel argued against the competency of the court, on the general ground of what we should call a wrongful change of venue from Paris to Versailles. The court asserted jurisdiction, but M. Labori took an appeal, which gave the Procureur-Général and the presiding judge a fine chance to display their prejudice. Said the former, "Condemned by the Seine jury, and fleeing before the Seine-et-Oise jury, MM. Zola and Perreux will not be tried to-day, but their cause is judged." Then the judge dismissed the jurors, saying to them, "M. Zola will not accept the trial." He also turned to Labori and unctuously reminded him that there was "nothing above the law—nothing, nothing, nothing—not even Zola." Evidently the French courts are still eager to gratify the masses in this melancholy business.

THE WAR-REVENUE BILL.

The revenue bill in its latest form, while not the best possible measure, and distinctly inferior to that which passed the House, is better than might have been expected when we consider the unsoundness of the Senate in respect of its financial notions. The seigniorage clause, which was the chief point of disagreement with the House, has not been eliminated, but it has been attenuated to a degree where it will be the least hurtful, and will not be hurtful at all under the present administration of the Treasury. The silver bullion owned by the Government is to be coined at the rate of not less than $1,500,000, instead of $4,000,000, per month. Our currency, especially the silver part of it, was in a terrific tangle before, so far as popular comprehension goes. It was unintelligible to the masses, and it cannot be made more so, but it may be more or less intelligible to economists, brokers, and others whose business it is to understand such things. To the latter class, the new scheme for dealing with seigniorage and silver dollars will be rather more obscure than anything that has preceded it, but they will be able to make their way through it, and they will find that it is not nearly so bad as the measure which passed the Senate.

Although the amount of the seigniorage comes to the same thing in the end as the Senate bill provided for, it is not likely to inflate the currency. The clause looking to the issue of silver certificates against the Government's holdings of silver dollars is stricken out of the bill. The public will not take and use any more "cart-wheel dollars" than they are now using. Consequently, the seigniorage dollars will simply rest in the Treasury. They can be paid out whenever there is a public demand for them, and when such a demand exists they will do the minimum of harm. They will add to the Government's demand liabilities, but any prudent Secretary of the Treasury will be able to manage them, as a prudent banker manages his note issues. It should not be overlooked that even under the existing law the coinage of this silver bullion was going on at a slow rate, dependent upon the presentation of Treasury notes for redemption, and that seigniorage is one of the consequences of such coinage.

The bond clause of the bill is in a satisfactory condition. The Secretary of the Treasury is authorized to issue $100,000,000 of 3 per cent. certificates of indebtedness, running not more than one year, and $400,000,000 of 3 per cent. bonds, redeemable in ten years, and payable in twenty years. There is no difference between the certificates and the bonds except as to the time they have to run, both being interest-bearing securities, and having no relation to the currency, except that the bonds are available to the national banks as security for their circulating notes. They will undoubtedly be used in preference to the existing 4s and 5s, because they can be obtained at par, and hence there will be no premium to be charged off at the end of each year, or when the bonds become payable. The upshot of the matter is that the Secretary will have $500,000,000 of 3 per cent. securities available for the purposes of the war, which ought to be sufficient. The proceeds of these securities can be used only for the war expenses. This would be a proper provision if any means were devised to distinguish war expenses from other expenses. Probably no harm will come from it in any case, but it might be difficult to say whether the ordinary expenses of the army and navy—those expenses which go on in times of peace—are properly chargeable as war expenses under this bill.

The new inheritance taxes call for separate treatment in conjunction with those of the several States, and we may recur to them hereafter, meanwhile merely pointing out what they are. Legacies or inheritances under $10,000 are exempt. On sums above $10,000 the rates vary according to the degree of relationship to the decedent, those passing from husband to wife or from wife to husband being exempt. On sums above $25,000 the rate of tax is cumulative, *i. e.*, on sums ranging between $25,000 and $100,000 the rates of tax are to be multiplied by one and one-half; on those ranging from $100,000 to $500,000 the rates are to be multiplied by two; on those ranging from $500,000 to $1,000,000 the rates are to be multiplied by two and one-half, and on those above $1,000,000 the rates are to be multiplied by three. The rate of tax for the nearest relationships, parents and children, brothers and sisters, on sums below $25,000, is 75 cents for each $100, on sums between $25,000 and $100,000 it is $1.12½ per $100, and so on to those above $1,000,000, when it becomes $2.25 per $100.

The additional taxes imposed by the bill will probably continue for some time after the war comes to an end. It is desirable that they should so continue, not only for the purpose of liquidating the debt incurred by the war, but to choke the deficit which was left by the Dingley tariff. That wretched measure has yet to learn its fate at the hands of the people, and it is necessary that the Treasury should be made independent of it. It is indispensable, too, that the Treasury should have a surplus in order to keep its various kinds of currency at par with gold. There will be bonds of former issues falling due from time to time, which will absorb any overplus the Secretary may have any time. So there is little danger of his having too much after the war expenses come to an end.

YIELDING TO DESTINY.

Whatever advantages have accrued to natural science from the establishment of the doctrine of evolution, it is certainly doubtful if it has hitherto contributed to the political progress of mankind. In the popular mind this doctrine is associated with the name of Herbert Spencer; but nothing sadder can be imagined than the present position of this philosopher. At the end of a career which may justly be called glorious if not triumphant, he finds himself reduced to declaring that the tendency of evolution is at present contrary to all that is desirable for mankind; that the chief end of man is freedom, while his immediate prospect is slavery. Eventually, Mr. Spencer, of course, holds, this tendency will be changed. The rhythm of progress will become more and more melodious, and the divine event, however far off, will surely come. But his eyes shall not see this event, nor even, perhaps, the reversal of the existing tendency. He can lament, but why should he struggle? It is *Athanasius contra mundum;* it may be magnificent, but it is not war.

Now, while the doctrine of evolution is not to be spoken of disrespectfully, it should be observed that for practical purposes it may be as pernicious as the doctrine of predestination. That doctrine is not easy of refutation, but any one who undertook to carry on his business under its influence would quickly find himself without any business to carry on. For practical purposes men rely on the doctrine that God helps those who help themselves, and political affairs do not differ in this respect from other matters that are under the influence of human volition. It is very easy for people to say that the destiny of our country lies in a certain direction and that it is vain to struggle against it. The fact is that the destiny of such a people as ours depends upon the will of certain classes of its citizens. Some of these citizens are determined to enlarge our limits and to undertake the government of distant islands occupied by peoples of different race, language, and institutions. These citizens declare with great earnestness that this is our manifest destiny; and there is undeniably a disposition among others to accept this declaration as prophecy. But all that it amounts to is a statement of the desire of these citizens that a certain novel policy shall be adopted by our government; and people who talk of yielding to our manifest destiny are really yielding to a popular outcry. It is simply a question of one set of human wills against another set, and our destiny will be whatever is determined by the more powerful set.

That is the sum and substance of the doctrine of evolution as applied to political action. The less people think of destiny and the more they think of

righteousness and experience, the clearer will be their political views and the more vigorous and consistent their political action. We have a country protected by nature from the intervention or attack of foreign Powers, a government based on the principle of equal political rights, founded on the free consent of the governed, recognizing the superiority of certain inalienable rights to the physical force of rulers. We have been trying the greatest experiment of this kind that the world has yet seen, and we cannot yet say that the work of our hands is finally established. We are now urged to occupy territory that is exposed by nature to foreign attacks, and to set up a government therein that will not be based on the principle of equal rights, that will not be founded on the free consent of the governed, or recognize their right to determine its nature. In so doing, we repudiate the principles in which we have boasted and bring our professions to open shame. We shall impose our laws by force upon other nations, and establish a system of taxation without representation. It seems strange that such a policy as this should be affirmed to be in accordance with our destiny, involving as it does the abandonment of our most cherished traditions. Revolution, rather than evolution, seems the appropriate word to describe it.

But, as we have said, the less plain people muddle their brains with talk about evolution, the better. What every conscientious citizen is called upon to do is to make up his mind and declare his opinion on certain practical measures that are already advocated, and will very soon have to be adopted or rejected. The Lord will not hold him responsible for not determining what our ultimate destiny is to be; that may be called the divine prerogative. But no one can escape responsibility if he has been all his life upholding the Declaration of Independence as Gospel truth, and now takes the position that it is nothing but a tissue of glittering generalities. If other races are rightfully to be held subject by our own, what moral basis is left for democracy? If taxation without representation is just, how long since it became so? If dark people have no rights that white people are bound to respect, what was the significance of the abolition movement? These are questions which foreigners will not hesitate to ask in the most pointed manner, and it is high time for conscientious Americans to gird up their loins like men and prepare them to answer. Let them not lay the soothing unction to their souls that they must accept the decree of destiny and submit to the irresistible force of evolution. What they will accept, if they accept an imperial policy, will be the fierce demands of a set of irresponsible newspaper writers and vociferous politicians, claiming to be the people. What they will submit to will be their own lack of consistent and courageous and honest determination; their own weakness before the clamorous insistence of an impetuous faction, without claim to wisdom, insignificant in numbers, but bent on having its way. If this faction be victorious, it will indeed be in accordance with evolution; but if it is defeated it will just as much be in accordance with evolution, and evolution of a much more satisfactory kind.

COSTLY BOSSES.

It has been discovered by the Republican managers at Washington, who are calculating the chances for securing a majority in the Congress which is to be elected in November, that the two States which make Republican success doubtful are New York and Pennsylvania. The disturbing cause in these two States is the same—a party boss who uses the party habitually as his personal property. Quay is the government of Pennsylvania in the same way that Platt is the government of New York. The methods of both men have been described too often to need particularization now. Neither of them regards himself as the agent of the party, using his leadership of it to strengthen its numbers and increase its power; that is an obsolete idea of the function of a party leader. The modern boss looks upon a party as existing mainly for his personal benefit—not so much to win victories as to give him a basis upon which to lay claim for an authoritative voice in the distribution of offices, to make bargains with the bosses of a rival party, and to levy political blackmail.

What Platt has been doing in this State during the past ten years everybody knows. His performances of last year were simply an extreme application of his usual methods. He obtained great power in the election of 1896 because the people of the State were forced without choice to the support of the Republican party in order to escape the peril of Bryanism. Platt took the victory as his personal property, and at once went to work to make all he could out of it for himself. He had the greater city created with this object in view, and then divided it with Tammany for what he considered a satisfactory price. Tammany has defaulted on the bargain because of Gov. Black's conduct in refusing to ratify the Platt side of it by means of legislation at Albany. The result is that Platt is now trying to prevent Gov. Black's renomination, and is resorting to party practices which are injuring seriously the Republican chances of success in so many congressional districts of the State that there is much alarm at Washington about it.

Platt will care nothing for this. He cares nothing for the success of his party in Congress or anywhere else. What he is working for is Platt and the Platt family, and if he can benefit them he will sacrifice everything, from a Presidential election to a ward caucus. No man in this State knows Platt better than Jacob Worth of Brooklyn. What Worth thinks of him has been made plain many times during the past year, but never more so than in a recent interview. "I have been told," says Worth, in the figurative language so dear to politicians, "that he is the captain of the Republican ship, and I have replied that the coal-bunker is the place for him, and not the quarter-deck." Who can say, in view of Platt's achievements at last year's election, that this is too strong language? The difference between him and a real leader is well set forth by Worth:

> "Once the Republican party in this State had a real leader. His name was Thurlow Weed. He could make personal sacrifices for the benefit of the party. When he picked up a man like William H. Seward, for instance, he watched over him and prevented him from making mistakes and helped him on. Now, in place of Weed we have Platt, who tries to ruin every man who has a spark of manhood, of independence, and honesty. Platt is a coward in war and a renegade in peace."

The purposes for which Weed wanted a man for Governor were very different from those for which Platt wants one. Platt himself said about a former Governor who refused to do his "deal" work for him: "No, I shall not renominate him; he cannot be depended upon in emergencies." The same objection is now made by him to Gov. Black. An "emergency" is always some disreputable "deal" or other which is so obviously infamous that no Governor can consent to do the bidding of the boss without utter loss of character. If Gov. Black had allowed all the "deal" bills which Platt's bargain with Croker included last winter, he would have been "equal to emergencies," would have used his office as a clearing-house for Platt-Croker paper drawn at the expense of the people of the State. He refused to submit to this baseness, and now Platt is determined to get rid of him even if in so doing he costs his party a majority in Congress. What is the peril of a Bryanite majority in Congress compared with peril to the Platt dynasty in New York?

The situation in Pennsylvania is much the same, and is due to exactly the same causes. A stupendous Republican majority in 1896 was virtually obliterated in 1897, and to-day the State is in doubt. In 1896 all but three of the State's thirty representatives in Congress were Republicans. Now the seats of fifteen Republican Congressmen are in danger because of the dissatisfaction in the party which Quay's corrupt personal leadership has caused. There can be no doubt that if the war were not a powerful factor in his favor Quay would be defeated in the election, and the State would be turned over to the Democrats. In no

other part of the Union is the Republican party in such perilous condition as it is in these two States. So far as New York is concerned, nothing saves the party from annihilation here except the leadership of another boss, of equally detestable character, on the Democratic side. If we flee from Platt, we throw ourselves into the arms of Croker. So long as that situation continues, so long as the people of the State are content to have these two bosses divide the business of government between them, just so long shall we be bracketed with Pennsylvania as the seat of the most harmful political system in the country.

THE IMPORTATION OF BOOKS UNDER THE COPYRIGHT LAW.

A correspondent, on another page, presents an interesting question as to the importation of foreign books which have been copyrighted in the United States. The copyright of a book would be of no commercial value unless the monopoly of a market were assured to its proprietor; and in order to secure exclusive control of the sale of an author's work, it is necessary to bar out copies of any and all editions produced without his consent. This prohibition of importation, therefore, has always been provided for in the copyright statutes. In the earliest Federal copyright act, that of May 31, 1790, it was provided, in section 2, that if any person, after the recording of the title of any book, imported any copies without the written consent of the author or copyright proprietor, signed in the presence of two or more credible witnesses, he should, at the suit of the copyright proprietor, forfeit all the copies and be subject to a fine of fifty cents for every sheet imported; one-half of this amount to go to the proprietor and the other half to the United States. In section 5, however, the act provided that it was not to be construed to prohibit the importation of books written by any person not a citizen of the United States, as copyright was granted by the act of 1790 only for the works of citizens or residents; hence the importation of reproductions of works by authors not citizens was permitted. The same provisions of law were contained in sections 6 and 8 of the first general revision of the copyright law of February 3, 1831.

In 1866 a commission was appointed to revise the statute laws of the United States. It published in 1868, 1869, and 1870 revisions of the patent and copyright law, which led to the adoption of the act of July 8, 1870. This codification of the copyright law became, with unimportant changes, title 60, chapter 3 of the revised statutes, as adopted in 1873, and still remains, with subsequent amendments, the law in force for the protection of literary and artistic property. Section 4964 of the revised statutes provides against the unauthorized printing and importing of books, it being enacted that if any person, without the consent of the copyright proprietor, first obtained in writing, signed in the presence of two or more witnesses, imports any copies of his book, he shall forfeit them to the proprietor, and that he shall also forfeit and pay such damages as may be recovered in a civil action brought by such proprietor within two years in any court of competent jurisdiction. But the provisions of section 5 of the act of 1790 were reënacted in section 4971 of the revised statutes, which provided that "nothing in this chapter shall be construed to prohibit the . . . importation . . . of any book . . . written . . . by any person not a citizen of the United States nor resident therein." By the act of March 3, 1891, section 4971 was repealed, thus removing the statutory provision which for more than a century had made reprinting possible. Otherwise than by this repeal and a special provision concerning the importation of newspapers and periodicals, this act did not affect the prohibition of importation of *unauthorized* editions.

The so-called "International Copyright Act" of March 3, 1891, instituted important changes in copyright matters. One of the most far-reaching of these changes was the requirement that from and after July 1, 1891, books must be manufactured in the United States in order to obtain copyright. To give force to this stipulation, a special proviso was added in section 3 of the act that "during the existence of such copyright the importation into the United States of any book so copyrighted, or any edition or editions thereof, shall be, and is hereby, prohibited." This prohibition of importation is to be distinguished from that embodied in section 4964, as not being concerned with the protection of the copyright proprietor's book market, but only with the requirement that his book shall have been printed in the United States. In order to effect this exclusion of foreign copies of all books copyrighted in the United States, provision is made for the printing and distribution to collectors of customs and postmasters of weekly lists to contain the entries of all books "wherein the copyright has been completed by the deposit of two copies of such book printed from type set within the limits of the United States."

Under date of July 3, 1891, the Treasury Department issued a circular instructing collectors of customs that copyrighted books under the provisions of section 3 of the act of March 3, 1891, should not be admitted to entry, and if imported *with* the consent of the proprietor of the copyright, the books are to be seized as forfeited to the United States; but if the attempted importation be *without* the consent of the author or copyright proprietor, the latter is to be notified so that he can proceed to enforce his right to their forfeiture to himself. The circular makes a distinction between copyrighted articles prohibited importation by the section cited, and "copyrighted articles the importation of which is not prohibited, but which are forfeited to the proprietor of the copyright when imported without his previous consent," under section 4965 of the revised statutes. No mention is made in this document of section 4964, which provides the like remedy in case of the unauthorized importation of books, but in another circular, issued February 3, 1896, attention is directed to section 4964 as giving protection against the importation of unauthorized copies *for sale*.

On June 22, 1896, the Treasury Department was again called upon to record its interpretation of the special prohibition of importation in relation to chromolithographs; and the law was laid down that the "importation of articles of this character copyrighted in the United States, with or without the consent of the owner of the copyright, is in violation of sections 3 and 8 of the act of March 3, 1891"; and on October 31 of the same year the department ruled that chromos (copies of copyrighted paintings but not copyrighted as chromos) are not prohibited importation under section 3 of the act. In 1897 an actual case occurred as follows: The American copyright proprietors of an English book, having exhausted their edition printed in the United States, imported fifty-seven copies of the English edition, which were seized. This importation was not covered by section 4964, because made by the copyright proprietor himself and therefore with his consent. But the Treasury Department, when appealed to for a release of the books, refused to interfere, ruling that they were liable to forfeiture to the United States under section 3 of the act of March 3, 1891.

When the special prohibition of importation which we have quoted was included in section 3 of the above-named act, certain exceptions were enacted. It was agreed that newspapers and magazines which did not contain any copyrighted matter printed without the authorization of the author should be exempted from the prohibition. Importation was also permitted in the case of persons purchasing for use, and not for sale, not more than two copies of a book at any one time. This latter exception came before the Treasury Department for consideration in the case of the importation of pirated Canadian copies of 'Ben Hur.' The publishers of Gen. Wallace's book contended that the prohibition of importation enacted in section 3 of the act of March 3, 1891, was for the purpose of preventing the importation of books published with the consent of the author in foreign countries, except that books so published might be im-

ported for use, and not for sale, to the extent of not more than two copies, as stated above; and that the importation of a book published without the consent of the author in a foreign country is an infringement of the copyright, and subjects such book to forfeiture under section 7 of the act. The question was submitted to the Department of Justice, and an opinion rendered April 19, 1895, deciding that the provisions as to prohibition of importation contained in section 3 of the act of March 3, 1891, apply to books copyrighted before the act was put into force as well as to books copyrighted since the passage of the act, and that the exception to this prohibition in favor of two copies of foreign printed books imported for personal use, and not for sale, is not limited in its application to the *authorized* editions of such books. It seems quite clear, therefore, that in the case of the French book mentioned by our correspondent, the law allows any person to import for his own use, but not for sale, two copies at any one time.

In addition to the two special exceptions to the prohibition of importation noted above, several paragraphs from the tariff act of 1890, remitting the payment of duties in certain cases, were transferred in a lump to the copyright law to serve as further exceptions to the general enactment of non-importation. This furnishes a good example of a method of legislation that should be avoided. The taking over of a group of provisions relating to one subject of legislation into a statute dealing with an entirely distinct subject would naturally lead to difficulties of interpretation and contrarieties. Moreover, the statute from which these sections were taken was replaced by a new tariff act in 1894, and the first question that arises is, Did the repeal of the tariff act of 1890 render these provisions nugatory in the copyright law? Neither the courts nor the Treasury Department seem to have rendered any decision on this point in our tangled legislation, but we believe that, so far as the copyright law is concerned, paragraphs 512 to 516, inclusive, of the free list of the tariff act of 1890 have still the force of law.

Briefly stated, these paragraphs exempt from the prohibition of importation under consideration books when (a) printed more than twenty years, (b) when printed exclusively in languages other than English, (c) when printed in raised characters for the blind, (d) when imported for the use of the United States, the Library of Congress, or for public libraries, or incorporated institutions of learning, and (e) when belonging to persons from foreign countries, if actually used by such persons not less than one year.

We will not go into these various provisions in detail, but it seems clear that, by reason of the first exception, the prohibition of importation ("during the existence of such copyright," instead of the full term of copyright protection, forty-two years) really endures but twenty years; while the second exception allows the importation of a book when it is printed exclusively in a language other than English, and this exception is not qualified by any limitation as to private use or number of copies.

THE LATE FRENCH ELECTIONS.

PHILADELPHIA, June 7, 1898.

In the twenty years during which the Republic has solidly established itself in France, it has sought a stable majority that would permit it to live and to advance. It has not yet found one. In the French chambers an immense majority is for the Republic; but as to the form of that Republic, and the conceptions and principles that should direct and govern it, men differ, and the Republic suffers from their divisions. For twenty years it has oscillated between the opportunist doctrine which would have the Republic take root gradually and advance with short steps, and the radical doctrine which intends a brusque, swift, and incessant progress; and it inclines towards each in turn without ever reaching a decision, and its hesitancy is the cause of numerous haltings and numerous shocks.

Ministries are forced to maintain themselves not by obliging one party, but by satisfying several, which is the best method of displeasing all. Compromises, deals, luffing among the shoals, are the ordinary manœuvres in which ministers employ their strength, talent, and dexterity. From time to time, weary of the policy of compromise, they have tried one of vigor and explicitness, which for a moment seemed successful since it pleased as a novelty. Then, after a while, it, too, showed itself powerless to create anything fixed and stable, and return was made to the old method, which also lasted as long as it could. In the past ten years the chief representatives in France of the policy of compromise have been successively MM. de Freycinet and Ribot; of vigorous policy, MM. Charles Dupuy and Casimir-Périer. Both have had the same fate. At the end of about six months, the equilibrium preserved by means of suppleness and coolheadedness suddenly gave way, and there was one more ministry in history.

In the Chamber of Deputies there has been for twenty years a Moderate Republican majority, stronger than the Radical and Socialist group and than the Monarchist and Clerical group respectively, but weaker than the two combined, so that a coalition of these parties absolutely hostile, and owning not a single idea in common, was enough at once to put a Moderate ministry in a minority. For a considerable time, in the epoch of the establishment of the Republic, and at the date of passage of the principal laws which are properly the republican work, the necessary complement of the Moderate majorities was taken from the Radical group. This was called the policy of concentration. The Republicans, Moderate and Radical, forgetting what separated them, united against the Right. To this policy was due the enactment of the military laws reducing the term of service to three years, and making it compulsory upon all, even priests; and especially obligatory and lay public instruction. But, apart from certain great questions, the Radicals distinctly held aloof from the Moderate Republicans. Turbulent, uneasy, with an appetite for opposition to the knife, they formed a very unstable element in the Moderate majority, and never missed an opportunity, on some secondary point, of abandoning the bulk of the party for a coalition, temporary but effective, with the Right, for the overthrow of a ministry.

Thus the day when, the principal republican laws having been enacted, and the Monarchist Right being no longer a menace because of its increasing feebleness, the constitutional question passed to its second stage, the Moderate Republicans looked elsewhere for support. After 1893 the danger was no longer in monarchy, or even in Cæsarism, but in Socialism, which for the first time became an important factor, having more than forty members, and embracing some of the most eloquent orators in the Chamber. The steady growth of Socialism engendered the necessity of the policy practised for nearly two years by M. Méline, a sort of concentration to the Right, consisting in borrowing from the group of *ralliés*, and even from the conservative Monarchists, the votes hitherto taken from the Radicals. It has proved more durable than the concentration to the Left because, in the first place, M. Méline is, on account of his protectionism, particularly popular with the agricultural population represented by the Right, and because the Right has discovered that a Moderate ministry is worth more to them than a Radical, and that they have greatly injured themselves by playing so long at the game of upsetting cabinets.

The question at the recent elections on May 8 and 22 was to ascertain whether the country would grant the Moderate Republicans and the *ralliés* the needful majority with which to confront at once the impenitent Monarchists and the Radical Socialists. On all sides it was asserted that such would be the case, and that the elections would witness the crushing out of Radicalism, caught between the Moderates and the Socialists, and the triumph of the Government Republicans. In numberless speeches, M. Méline in the Vosges, M. Barthou in the Pyrenees, M. Ribot in St. Omer, enforced the necessity of having at last a majority in the Chamber. By dint of talking of it, the Moderates imagined that they were going to get it. Alas! the results show that they were badly out. Not only have they not augmented their number, they have lost a notorious quantity of seats; the Radicals and the Socialists have increased their following, and the situation, far from having bettered itself, has assumed a really grave character.

The returns published by the ministry vainly announced in the new Chamber 254 Moderate Republicans, as against 250 in the former Chamber—four more! In vain were 235 Radicals found in place of 248—that is to say, thirteen less! The first political manifestation of the Chamber showed that the strength of the Opposition is nearly or quite equal to that of the Government. In the ballot for President the Government's candidate, M. Paul Deschanel, in fact received 282 votes, while the Opposition candidate had 278—which indicates a majority of four in favor of the Premier. The truth is, we must count as Opposition, not the Radicals alone, but a certain number of Monarchists who prefer disorder to the Republic, and

a score of former Boulangists now masquerading under the names of Anti-Semites and Nationalists—a formless crowd which for ten years has been the permanent leaven of every folly and extravagance in the Chambers. All these, together, form in the Lower House a heterogeneous and desperate group of some 280 members, very competent to the overthrow of the ministry, to making interpellations and provoking tumults, but powerless to inspire or to direct a policy.

Foreigners may ask how it is that in the French Chamber no majority exists in favor of any political or social doctrine. The reason of it is very simple, namely, that no majority exists in the country. The only thing that France knows clearly, and says without ambiguity when it votes, is, that it wants the Republic. What Republic? What are the principles that should animate it? The doctrine of slow, intermittent and gradual progress heralded by opportunism; or, on the contrary, the doctrine of forward march, with haste and violence, without regard to routine or tradition, heralded by radicalism? The species of collectivist demagogy which the Socialists have in hand, or the Cæsarian, clerical, and retrograde demagogy of which, without a proper conception of it, a certain number of Boulangists dream? As to all this the country says nothing because it knows nothing.

The French masses, as a whole, have no very distinct political education; and, furthermore, the French elections do not turn on politics alone. Indeed, the suffrage is so organized that the Deputy represents not so much a political doctrine as a small arrondissement—in other words, a petty territory quite restricted, having generally on the average 20,000 voters, where he is known, judged, and appreciated, beloved or detested, not according to his ideas, but according to his attitude towards his fellow-citizens, and the services he has rendered or may yet render them. It is sometimes said: Such an arrondissement is Royalist, Bonapartist, Moderate. The truth is, that this arrondissement contains a man of wealth, influence, and popularity, who for many years has, as Deputy, rendered great services, and whom the accident of birth has made a Monarchist, a Bonapartist, or a Moderate. His compatriots elect him, not for his views, but for his personality. There are thus in France a great number of rotten boroughs which have for a long period belonged to families.

This very year, for example, we have seen seats like that of the Bonapartist de Cassagnac in Gers, return to Bonapartism, which they abandoned four years ago. Shall we say that Gers, after having been Republican for four years, has become Bonapartist again? No; it means that M. de Cassagnac, who lost his seat by reason of having neglected the electors, has regained it on becoming more solicitous to satisfy them. M. Jaurès, the mighty Socialistic orator, was beaten in the arrondissement which he represented by a marquis, a local lord, rich and influential. Has, then, the district formerly revolutionary suddenly become Moderate or *rallié*? No; the simple fact is, that the Marquis de Solages is a gentleman who possesses a larger fortune than does M. Jaurès, and has rendered more services to the electors.

People are not aware of the slight importance which politics has in many districts. A Deputy is popular if he be rich, powerful, a "good fellow," on familiar terms with humble folk, and especially if he have, in common parlance, a long arm to obtain favors for his electors from the Government. It is only in the cities that politics plays a more important part, and that it concerns a Deputy to have advanced ideas and to keep step with the Opposition parties. In general, the French populace, already much infected with radicalism, is taking great strides towards Socialism. All the chief industrial centres are to-day nearly won over to it. Paris, where, beside a bourgeoisie, lives so numerous a proletary, has always been in the van of all political movements. To-day the great majority of its wards are revolutionary-socialistic. So likewise with Marseilles. Lyons and Bordeaux, once exclusively opportunist, are now strongly carried away by the Socialists. Wherever a working population exists, Socialism has made marked progress. The check given to its two most intelligent leaders is purely accidental. Jules Guesde and Jaurès, the theorist and the orator, of the party, were both beaten by rich patrons having a great clientèle of workingmen.

Another party which is also forging ahead, but less vigorously, is the "Nationalist-Anti-Semite." Composed of low demagogues who work upon what Jaurès calls the elementary instincts of the mob—that is to say, a crude patriotism and a beastly hatred of foreigners—it has profited by the stupid legends implanted in the intelligent public in connection with the Dreyfus affair, which many imbeciles regarded as the manœuvre of a "Jewish syndicate."

The Royalists have lost altogether only nine votes, and the *ralliés* have gained eight. Apparently there will, for a long time to come, remain in the Chamber a small minority of representatives of the former régimes, whose rôles will consist in tipping this way and that the parliamentary scale, with the resulting paradox that French policy receives its principal direction from the smallest and seemingly the feeblest of the parties.

Past experience, serviceable in forecasting the work of a Chamber which so much resembles other Chambers, teaches us that this one will be as the others have been. Turbulent, impressionable, very sensitive to the influence of Opposition orators when they appeal at once to its Chauvinism and its demagogic passion, it will slaughter as many ministries as its predecessors have done, and will be succeeded by a Chamber no better than itself. Universal suffrage has few surprises for those who have practised it a bit.

OTHON GUERLAC,
Editor of the Paris *Siècle*.

THE SITUATION IN ITALY.

ROME, May 26, 1898.

The present troubles in Italy should not be taken as an indication of the poverty of the country, or of a general distress due to class-poverty inducing real suffering more than that which is at all times found in any population where public resources are ill administered. In other years, when the price of grain was much higher, there has been perfect quiet, and the proof that the present disturbances are not due either to the want of bread or of work is that they are, like the strikes, the most grave where there is least want of either, as in Milan, the most prosperous and industrious city of Italy, in Pavia, Bari, and Leghorn, where there is no want of work, and where, with the recent concessions of the Government, the taxes on breadstuffs have brought the price of bread to the usual level. In fact, we get in Rome an excellent whole-meal bread, such as I have rarely eaten in London, at thirty centimes the kilogramme, or 1½d. the pound. In sections where the destitution is the greatest there has been no violation of the peace.

The difficulty is even graver. It lies in a progressive demoralization of the State, a growing relaxation of civic discipline, an indifference to the *res publica* in every department of the Government, from the electors, who no longer concern themselves with the election of Deputies, to the head of the State, who abandons all the constitutional checks on the caprices of a frivolous Executive. There is no longer any criterion of internal policy, as there has long been no continuity in the external; the Government has no definite purpose except to remain in power, and to this end it has attempted to conciliate every section in the multicolored politics of the country by turns, and has allied itself in the elections as readily with the Republican as with the Conservative, until the Legislature is a complete chaos, and every measure which is demanded by the stability of the institutions is defeated by the defection of some section of the majority; and the legislative record of the two past years is read in the withdrawal of project after project of laws for indispensable ameliorations of the condition of the population at large. Since the present Ministry took office it has not passed a single important measure, but has withdrawn one after another brought in, on the defection of a section of its mosaic majority. And all this time it has flirted with the Republicans and "dealt" with Cavallotti, the chief organizer of legislative anarchy in the Chamber, steadily and knowingly increasing the strength of the dissolvent element in Italian politics, in mortal fear of being found in a minority, and so fostering in the strongest measure the confidence of the revolutionary party. The severity and promptitude with which Crispi repressed the risings of 1893 were made the ground of political attacks on him, in which the Conservatives, from personal antagonism to the man, took part, and the present Government is paying the penalty. The Conservative element in politics, either in the country at large or in the Chamber, has no conception of the necessity of organizing to meet the disciplined action of the small Republican minority, which has its strength multiplied by its organization, a condition which exists in no other party, for the Conservatives (also a minority) agree in nothing but the hatred of Crispi and any strong Ministry which they cannot control. When in the State the party of order is indifferent, the party of disorder grows strong, and this is now the condition in the entire peninsula. The genuine Republican element is insignificant, but disorder is popular, and, with a weak and discordant Government like the present, inevitable.

Italy is not yet consolidated, and the liberties gained with such sacrifices by a patriotic minority are made valueless by the antagonisms of fractions and sections which spend their strength, like the Byzantines during the Turkish siege, in quarrels, and leave the future of the country to chance

and intrigue, external and internal. It is to this condition of political anarchy that the present disorders must be attributed. The Government has no policy and no civic courage: it lives by expedients and lets to-morrow care for itself; the King declines to exercise his prerogative, and the better part of the population all over the country would hail a dictatorship with delight and relief, if the Dictator could be found. Under these circumstances the rapidly increasing unpopularity of the King is a most dangerous element in the complication. Italy is not ready for a republic, and if it came it could be only one of anarchy more or less complete. Socialism is a mere effervescence of theorists, but adds dangerously to the disorder because there is no help from the Government; and Socialism and Republicanism, through the incompetence of the Government and the indifference of the King, may capture the State. In fact, the only safeguard against a revolution to-day is in the army, which is, I believe, perfectly loyal and safe, and is the only disciplined institution in Italy, including in it the navy. But the army is only a defensive institution, and cannot long defend incompetence.

The active element in the alarming events of the late four days at Milan, Pavia, etc., is Clericalism in alliance with the Republicans and Socialists; but the passive elements, which are by far the most dangerous, are the disaffection with the inefficiency of the Government; the corruption of the Legislature and of the judiciary, with its consequence of constant and patent miscarriage of justice; the indifference of the better classes to the elections, and their contempt for parliamentary government; and, worst of all, the virtual abdication of all his prerogatives by the King, whom one may hear anywhere and everywhere spoken of as "that man of straw." Italy is drifting, and States do not drift long before getting into breakers. W. J. STILLMAN.

Correspondence.

A COPYRIGHT QUESTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A Boston publisher gives notice that he has secured the rights in America and England of a certain French book, that the French text has been set up in this country and will be copyrighted here. The firm contends that no copies of the original Paris edition in French can be imported or kept for sale by dealers in America. Is this really the law, and can the original Paris edition be thus kept from the American book-buyer? A cheap and nasty edition may be set up here, simply to secure the copyright of the translation, and the American holder of the copyright may thus wish to force the American public to buy his translation. Can the lawful original issue of any book be kept out of a country which is a party to the international copyright act? The Tauchnitz volumes are authorized reprints in Germany, but nobody is prevented from securing the original London edition of any book contained in the Tauchnitz series. Some years ago a New York firm issued a similar caveat covering the French original of 'Tartarin sur les Alpes,' but to my recollection their contention was not good law. Can you enlighten an

INTERESTED PARTY?

NEW YORK, May 17, 1898.

NEW METHODS AT HINGHAM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A certain publicity has been given, among teachers and others, in various parts of the country, to an announcement according to which I am to be a member of the faculty of the "New School of Methods," a school for teachers, which is to meet at Hingham, Mass., July 18-29. According to the announcement in question, I am said to be one of two officers who are to represent the "Department of Psychology," as "lecturers in this department." The announcement also speaks of me as about to give "discourses at the New School of Methods this summer on such subjects as the Problem of Knowledge, Realism and Idealism, the Problems of Nature, and more particularly on the growth of the child mind and its perception of and relation to the world outside."

As a fact, I was not long since asked to give, at some time between July 18 and July 29, a *single* evening lecture, before the "New School of Methods" at Hingham, on a psychological topic. At that time I consented to give this one lecture, and to have my name announced for this sole task. I assumed no other responsibility than this for any enterprise connected with the school, and did not promise any series of "discourses" upon any topics whatever.

For good and sufficient reasons, I have now found it imperatively necessary to cancel this single engagement. I have now no connection whatever with the "New School of Methods," at Hingham or elsewhere.

Yours sincerely, JOSIAH ROYCE.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., June 10, 1898.

FELLOWSHIPS FOR WOMEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The European Fellowship which is awarded annually by the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ, has been given this year, as has already been announced, to a very satisfactory candidate; but, in making the choice which they have done, the committee of award have been obliged to pass by other candidates whom it is a real loss to the cause of sound learning among women not to be able to send out for a year of study at a foreign university.

As an indication of the sort of work which women college students are doing nowadays, the following extracts from letters of recommendation written for different candidates by professors in the colleges where they have studied, form interesting reading: "I have never had a student whose work I could more unreservedly commend for its originality, acuteness, and thoroughness." This is said of a student who is only just taking her first degree: "Both in ability and attainment she is far above the average graduate student, and I have rarely seen any student who, even after some years of advanced study, has shown such effective grasp of the subject and such power of independent work." This comes from Chicago: "As a careful, intelligent investigator, she is among the best in the University; I have never met a student whose work and promise I could more heartily endorse." One of the most distinguished of German professors writes: "This work is most admirable, and I have only to learn from it." Of another candidate it is said: "The professors under whom she has studied, especially at Leipzig, Heidelberg, and Berlin, uniformly speak of her, not as being one of their best American students (which is the usual form of praise), but as the absolute equal of the best students in their department." Of a paper already published in one of the German philological journals, a college professor says: "It is on the nominative singular of weak substantives in old High German—one of the most vexing problems in historical German grammar. The new explanation is, in my opinion, correct, and I appreciate her paper both as a very gratifying addition to our present knowledge of Germanic grammar, and as a testimony of its author's advanced scholarship and high aims." This is the account of a student at an Eastern university: "She has a very unusual record, having carried off the double *summa cum laude*, which no college student took in her year."

In her last printed report, the chairman of the committee of award says that in the earlier years of the fellowship it was customary for the college professors, after commending the originality exhibited by some candidate, to add the phrase "so very rare in a woman," but that, for the year covered by the report, that addition had, for the first time, not once occurred. This year there is a return to the idea, but it occurs in the course of such a remarkable piece of commendation that the most sensitive guardian of the interests of her sex could not object to it:

> "It was thus possible for me to become well acquainted with the qualities of her mind, and to compare her with the young men who were taking the same course. The comparison was to her advantage. She has, I believe, not only a quick and receptive mind, but also a capacity for independent thought and original investigation which (with my very limited experience) I suppose to be even rarer in women than in men. I regard her as one of the most promising scholars I have had the pleasure of teaching, and of much greater ability than many men—of greater ability than most men—who hold travelling fellowships and scholarships."

To be obliged to deny a fellowship to such candidates as this has been a painful task to the committee of award. Very large sums of money are spent annually upon the exclusive education of men; it seems as if it would be no more than fair if a somewhat generous provision should be made for sending to Europe those women whose studies have been carried so far that a foreign residence is essential to their continuance. It is certain that nothing better could be done with several sums of ten thousand dollars than to add a few permanent European fellowships to the one that is now awarded by the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ; immediate necessities could be relieved by the contribution of several sums of five hundred dollars. Remittances for this purpose may be made to Mrs. Helmer, No. 1428 Michigan Avenue, Chicago; Mrs. I. J. Backus, No. 57 Livingston Street, Brooklyn; or to Mrs. C. Ladd Franklin, No. 1507 Park Avenue, Baltimore. X.

WAR AND LITERATURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of the *Nation's* article of June 2, "War as a Literary Stimulus," are we "bound to believe that the Spaniard [Señora Emilia Pardo Bazán], tasting the bitterness of war, is nearer the truth than

the Englishman [Sir Walter Besant], knowing it only as a spectacle"? Señora Bazán asserts in the *Revue des Revues* that "when a nation finds itself at the edge of a precipice, it is forced to withdraw its attention from its writers. Letters require a tranquil spirit." Sir Walter contends that war has an awakening influence upon the literary as upon the civic character.

Let us look for a moment at several of the great literary periods of the world. When Dante, Petrarch, and Boccaccio created the first modern literature, was not Italy desolated from the Alps to Tarentum by the fierce struggles of Guelph and Ghibelline? When Voltaire and Rousseau ruled the world of literature, had not France reached the ebb-tide of humiliation in war: defeated at Rossbach, compelled to sign the peaces of Aix-la-Chapelle and Versailles, forcibly deprived of her hold upon India and of her colonies? When Goethe and Schiller were in the zenith of their creative powers, had not Germany almost ceased to exist politically? Did not 1806, the year after Schiller's death, see the secession of the Rheinbund, the abdication of Francis II., the battles of Jena and of Auerstädt, Napoleon in Berlin, where the pusillanimous nobility urged the common people to cheer the Emperor, crying, "For heaven's sake give a hearty hurrah; cry, *Vive l'Empereur!* or we are lost"; and Napoleon said, "I know not whether to rejoice at my success or to feel ashamed for this people"? During this time and the even greater degradation that followed, Goethe was at work upon "Faust," the first part of which appeared in 1808. Was not Germany then on the "edge of a precipice"? Did it "withdraw its attention from its writers"? Do "letters require a tranquil spirit"?

EDWARD MEYER.

WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY.

Notes.

The Harpers have in press a volume of 'Collections and Recollections,' by "One who has kept a Diary," a Radical M.P.

The Macmillan Co. will publish at once 'Questions and Answers in the Theory and Practice of Military Topography,' by Major J. H. Bowhill.

The Croscup & Sterling Co., New York, will undertake, in conjunction with J. M. Dent & Co., London, a new edition of the Saintsbury Balzac in twenty volumes, illustrated with full-page etchings from the original plates.

The Robert Clarke Co., Cincinnati, will issue next week an 'Introduction to the Study of North American Archæology,' by Prof. Cyrus Thomas, with 108 illustrations.

P. Blakiston, Son & Co. announce for immediate issue 'Hay Fever: Its Successful Treatment,' by Dr. W. C. Hollopeter of Philadelphia.

T. Fisher Unwin, London, has in press 'The Real Gladstone,' by J. Ewing Ritchie, consisting of anecdotes and quotations from that statesman's speeches and writings.

Mr. James Bryce's masterly appreciation of Mr. Gladstone, unabridged, has been promptly made into a pretty book by the Century Co. The matter is displayed under seven subheads, viz., Introduction, Early Influences, Parliamentarian, Orator, Originality and Independence, Social Qualities, Authorship, Religious Character. A vigorous portrait of Mr. Gladstone in his late prime furnishes a frontispiece.

The new (third) edition of Miss Scidmore's 'Guide-Book to Alaska' (Appletons) brings the Bering Sea question down to date, and adds a chapter on the Klondike, with an account of the several avenues to the gold fields and a map.

The pith of Walt Whitman is to be found in the Selections from his Prose and Poetry made by Dr. Oscar Lovell Triggs of the University of Chicago, a fervent disciple. The scarce preface to the first edition of 'Leaves of Grass' is here. The typography of the book is much marred by the affectation of dispensing with paragraph-indention, as well as by the uncentred sub-titles. A selected bibliography is appended, and a biographical sketch precedes.

We noticed last week the enterprise of the Colonial Society of Pennsylvania in reproducing in facsimile Bradford's *American Weekly Mercury*. We learn that the work will be pushed to completion at the rate of two volumes a year, and that the price has now been made uniform to members and non-members alike, namely, five dollars a volume. The office of the publication committee is at 1208 Betz Building, Philadelphia.

The second and final volume of the new illustrated History of Swedish Literature, a preliminary notice of which was given in these columns two years ago, has recently appeared in Stockholm. The first part, by Prof. Henrik Schück, treated the literature from the earliest period of the runic inscriptions to the beginning of the eighteenth century; the second volume, by Prof. Karl Warburg, carries the survey down to the year 1830. It is further stated that it is the intention of the author to publish a supplementary volume covering the last seventy years. The reputations of the two authors are sufficient guarantee of the excellence of their work, which is the first complete history of Swedish literature ever published.

It is with something of a shock that one opens the belated report for 1895 of the Smithsonian Institution, to find the general and summary review by the late G. Browne Goode, Assistant Secretary. Apart from the report proper and its appendices, the stout volume is almost wholly occupied with two elaborate and learned papers, "The Social Organization and the Secret Societies of the Kwakiutl Indians," by Dr. Franz Boas, and "The Graphic Art of the Eskimos," by Dr. Walter James Hoffman. Both of these are copiously and often beautifully illustrated, and are a mine of authentic information. Not to be overlooked, also, are the "Notes on the Geology and Natural History of the Peninsula of Lower California," by George P. Merrill, with interesting views of the curious landscape of the peninsula.

Cassell & Co., No. 7 West Eighteenth Street, send us the first three of five 'Royal Academy Pictures' for the current exhibition. As heretofore, the plates are excellent memoranda by photographic process, and they are completely unprovided with text, critical or other, if we except the legend under each. On the other hand, M. Philippe Gille resumes his pen in comment on the Salon, in 'Figaro Salon,' which has begun to be distributed on this side of the water by Jean Boussod, Manzi, Joyant & Co., Goupil's representatives in this city (No. 170 Fifth Avenue). Neither assortment is particularly exhilarating, artistically considered. As usual, the several numbers of the French publication have each a separate color print twice the page size.

The principal article in the *Annales de Géographie* for May is a statement of the Argentine side of the Chilian-Argentine boundary question. The Argentine Republic maintains that the summit of the chain of the Andes forms the boundary, while Chili contends that it follows the watershed. These two lines are independent for at least five degrees of latitude, and the territory in dispute is "the most fertile, the best fitted for the establishment of agricultural colonies," in all Patagonia. The article contains many fresh geographical details in respect to this interesting region. There are also accounts of explorations in the Tian-Shan Mountains in southwestern Siberia, and a summary of the principal geographical results of French expeditions to the bend of the Niger. In addition to the maps illustrating the articles is an excellent map of Cuba prepared in 1896 for the "Service Géographique de l'Armée."

The opening article in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, No. 4, is a description, by Lieut. Werther, of a region in German East Africa in which a Hamburg company has obtained land and mining concessions. The accompanying map, the result of an exploring expedition sent out by it, is an unusually fine specimen of cartography. The editor, Dr. Supan, contributes a series of tables showing the foreign trade of China for 1896. In closing, he dwells upon the great significance which the acquisition of Kiao-Chau will have for German commerce.

The Russian petroleum trade in 1897 is described by our consul at Batum, Mr. J. C. Chambers, in the Consular Reports for May. The average daily production of 657 wells was about 139,000 barrels, which, though the largest output up to that time, has become 200,000 barrels during the present year. Signs are not wanting, however, of the coming exhaustion of the Baku territory, and efforts are being made to find new oil-fields, so far without success. With the larger production there has also been an immense increase in the demand for residuum for fuel. Great Britain took the most oil, 44,000,000 gallons, India and Turkey taking the next largest amounts. Consul-General Du Bois sends an instructive and encouraging comparison between the labor conditions in Europe and in the United States, the locomotive fireman being taken as an example.

"Some Geological Evidence regarding the Age of the Earth" is the subject of an address delivered before the Royal Physical Society of Edinburgh by Mr. J. G. Goodchild, retiring Vice-President. He says that all who have made the attempt have realized that it is impossible, with our present knowledge, to state the antiquity of the oldest strata containing fossils "in terms of centuries, thousands of years, or even in millions." After reviewing certain changes which are known to have taken place, he concludes that "seven hundred millions of years carry us back to the commencement of the Cambrian period, but not to the beginning of life upon the earth," which, he argues, "must be vastly more remote—perhaps as much farther back from Cambrian times as they are removed from our own."

"Occurrences and Mining of Manjak in Barbados" is the title of a paper by Walter Merivale published in the April number of the Transactions of the North of England

Institute of Mining and Mechanical Engineers. Manjak is "one of the many bitumens that the modern demand for insulating-material, varnishes, waterproofs, etc., has called into the market." "The Coal Seams of the Transvaal," and "The Economical Combustion of Coal for Steam-Raising Purposes," are among the other subjects treated in this number.

Some new refinements in the use of the words impression, edition, and reissue are proposed by the Publishers' Association of London for general adoption. They desire each title-page to bear the date of the year of publication—that is, putting on the market—as well as of reissue, but with a bibliographical note on the back of the title-page recording this latter fact. In the same place should be indicated the date at which the book was last revised. Impression is to mean "a number of copies printed at one time"; a new impression, "a reprint without change." Edition signifies some change, even to resetting; reissue, "a republication at a different price, or in a different form, of part of an impression which has already been placed on the market." The area to which the circulation of an impression is limited by agreement should also be conspicuously stated. The record "Fifteenth impression (third edition)" would indicate the relative frequency of revision.

—"B." writes to us:

"Your correspondent, Mr. Dooley, in your last issue, informs us that 'Death is the only means by which a human being can go to heaven.' This, though highly interesting, is not novel. It was known as early as the sixteenth century. In the interlude called 'The Four P's,' the Poticary and the Pardoner are disputing as to the merits of their respective callings. The former boasts that in the practice of his profession he has sent multitudes to heaven. On this the Pardoner queries:

'Though you had slain a thousand in the place,
How came they to Heaven, dying out of grace?'

and the Poticary retorts:

'And though a thousand pardons about their neck were tied,
How came they to Heaven if they never died?' "

—In the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for June one may read a succinct account of the changing character of the Board of Overseers from its foundation, as a prelude to an impartial statement of the recent contest, in the Board and in the Massachusetts Legislature, over the extension of the suffrage in the election of the Board. The measure has been hung up for a year, but its ultimate passage is certain. Of wider interest is Samuel Hoar's argument on the taxation of college property. The frontispiece of the number is a view of the Phillips Brooks House about to be built at the northwestern angle of the College yard, and it appears that the designer, Mr. A. W. Longfellow, has adapted himself not only to the elder adjacent buildings, but also to the college gateway. In keeping with these boundaries will doubtless be the gate offered by the Class of 1873, so that in time we may look for a complete harmonious enclosure. Of real moment is the abandonment, from sheer unwieldiness of the classes, of the Class-Day "exercises" about the tree, with the disorderly scramble for flowers, in favor of a truly dignified and manly order of song and speech in another part of the grounds. The war party has the floor in the chronicle of Harvard's choice in the late attempted stampede of college students to the recruiting sergeant, and already we are bidden to look for the tablets that will commemorate militant patriots worthy in all respects of the honor accorded the dead alumni of the civil war. "The principal motive of these men [the actual volunteers of the present hour]," we are told, forestalling the judgment of posterity, "was a generous spirit of self-sacrifice, such as the University expects from her sons in time of danger." But what danger was the country in? And if any, how was it brought on us? There is material for a tablet that will lack nothing of the honor of any yet erected at Harvard, in the news item relating the deed of gift by Mr. Alexander Agassiz of his collections and library in the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, on the modest condition of personal use of them as if still his own; and in the fact that this bounty caps gifts in money to the Museum and to other college objects exceeding $800,000 in the course of twenty-six years from the same devotee of science, seeking neither glory nor self-advertisement.

—Vol. XX. of the Jesuit Relations (Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Co.) contains four documents; the concluding chapters of the Relation for 1640, composed in the Huron country by Jerome Lalemant; a letter of Charles Garnier to his brother, also from the Hurons; some passages from a dispatch sent by Brébeuf to Vitelleschi, the general of the order; and the opening part of Le Jeune's Relation for 1641. Brébeuf wrote at Quebec, and Le Jeune began there but finished at Paris. The principal topics taken up in these several reports are, firstly, the trials endured by Garnier and Jogues on their new mission to the Tobacco Nation; secondly, the pious labors of the Ursulines at Quebec and of the Hospital nuns at Sillery; and thirdly, the condition of the church at Three Rivers. The country of the Tobacco Nation is reported to lie twelve or fifteen leagues westward from the Hurons, and the unwonted peace which then prevailed between the two tribes probably encouraged the Jesuits to include a district so closely neighboring within their field. Lalemant makes no secret of their failure to score any success further than the baptism of some dying fugitives belonging to the Neutral Nation, who had been driven from their own region by famine. For the rest, "this mission has been the richest of all, since the crosses and the sufferings have been most abundant therein." At Quebec the Jesuits were now reinforced by the Ursulines, who were the more welcome in that they could not become competitors. Unflagging zeal in the work is always affirmed of both orders. For instance, of the Ursulines, "their monastery contains more joy in its little enclosure than the palaces of the Cæsars in their great extent." The hospital was an endowment of the Duchesse d'Aiguillon. In it the savages were purged, bled, and nursed. Sometimes they were given medicine to carry home with them. Altogether about 150 patients had been treated in the year besides those who received simple alms. Chapter VII. of Le Jeune's Relation for 1641 is devoted to "the Residence of la Conception at the Three Rivers." Three Rivers was the gathering-place of all the Indian races who traded with the French, and the fathers stationed there, Jacques Buteux and Jean de Quen, seem to have been discouraged by the spectacle of their meetings and of their influence upon each other. This section of the narrative is largely anecdotal, and gives one reason to think that the Jesuits missed a chance in not directing their attention more closely to such a point of focus.

—Mr. Robert Gregg Bury's edition of the 'Philebus' (Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan) is a very respectable but somewhat colorless performance. The text is soberly eclectic, based mainly on Hermann-Wohlrab. The grammatical notes generally supply the needed help over rough places, and a fair measure of illustration of Platonic idiom and usage. The philosophic introduction consists chiefly of a mechanical analysis and tabulation of the leading ideas and technical terms of the dialogue—Pleasure, Science, Being, the Mixed, the Unmixed, etc. Mr. Bury faithfully reports on the recent literature of the subject, attributing, as is natural, much importance to the neo-Platonic mysticism of his Cambridge teachers. The method he has learned from them of combining and equating philosophic terms and categories like rigid counters is incompatible with any real insight into Plato's thought. It may be edifying, but it certainly is not Platonic philology, to say that the soul of the universe "is the Divine will in which Love and Reason meet together." In the endeavor to extract from the text what "is not explicitly conveyed therein," Mr. Bury sometimes resorts to strange arguments. He cites 24 A to prove that the ἄπειρον is a kind of multiety, and 26 D for the identification of the πέρας with τὸ ἕν. But the unity of πέρας in 26 D, as Mr. Bury must know, is precisely on a par with that of the ἄπειρον—it is simply the unity of any generic idea in relation to the multiplicity of its sub-species.

—The text of the 'Republic' of Plato is, for all practical purposes, fixed, and Mr. James Adam's convenient little critical edition (Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan) can in the nature of things offer little that is new and nothing of serious significance. Mr. Adam's canons for the constitution of the text are: (1) to follow A wherever possible; (2) when A is deserted, to state the reading of A and the source of the reading adopted; (3) in default of A to rely chiefly on Π, Ξ and q, and v, and where Π or Ξ and q alone or with others give the right reading, to ignore the minor manuscripts. The emendations admitted, with the exception of the four or five classical and universally adopted instances, affect at the most grammatical concinnity or the turn of phrase. Of such emendations the editor himself contributes some thirty-five turning on the insertion or the omission of an article or preposition, or the pruning away of what he chooses to regard as a redundancy, or the correction of what the manuals of rhetoric might treat as an inaccuracy of expression. A typical example is found in 598 C, where Plato, after enumerating the painter, the cobbler, and the carpenter, goes on to speak of the man who is unacquainted with *these arts* (τεχνῶν). Mr. Adam corrects *arts* to artisans—τεχν(ιτ)ῶν. The instructor in daily themes would undoubtedly approve.

—The educational head of Prussia, the Cultus Minister, Dr. Bosse, in an address to the Parliament, recently made what is probably the first official utterance of the Prussian Government on the question of girls' gymnasia and the higher education of women in general. A petition from Breslau, asking for permission to establish, in connection with a famous school of that place, a

complete girls' college that would lead up to an examination admitting to the universities exactly on a plane with the present *Abiturienten-Examen*, was refused the sanction and approval of the Cultus Ministry, the vote being unanimous in all three sections of that department. This led to an appeal in Parliament, in response to which Dr. Bosse replied, in substance, that the Ministry was disposed to meet the actual needs of the sex for enlarged fields of employment, and that girls were now given an opportunity to attend university lectures with the consent of the professor and the Rector. All the portals of science are open to women. An exceedingly small minority of them desire to pass the examination admitting to the universities, and this has been permitted them, but not in regular course *(als Extraner)*. In the department of mathematics one lady has taken the degree of doctor; and if there are women who have the physical and intellectual and moral strength to accomplish all that is necessary to secure a medical degree, the Ministry will put no obstacle in their way. In Breslau, however, it is the purpose to coax *(hereinlocken)* twelve-year-old children into taking a college course, and this project must be opposed. At such an age neither the girls themselves nor their parents are in a position to decide whether the former are capable of entering one of the professions. Such an innovation would undermine our whole present system of educating girls. During the year 1895-'96 there were only eight girls in all Prussia who tried to pass the gymnasium examinations; in 1896-'97 only six, of whom two failed; and in the spring of the present year only five. And not even all of these twenty-three were from Prussia, and all had been prepared privately. The great majority of young girls expect to marry, and the Government must deal with the rule and not with the exception. This shows that Prussia in exceptional cases will admit women to university lectures, but will do nothing to prepare them for entrance. The graduates of the three Mädchengymnasien in Germany, at Carlsruhe, Berlin, and Leipzig, must take their chances with the rest.

CHILD'S BALLADS.

The English and Scottish Popular Ballads. Edited by Francis James Child. Part X. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1898.

In these days of advertisement and syndicates, of visits to the author's study, of photographs, of private chat for public use, when even the harmless necessary scholar is forced to an interview and must talk discreetly of the stir in Sanskrit, friends of a man like the late Prof. Child might well choose *Cordelia's* part of loving silence. Certainly one would rather say nothing about him and about his work than run the risk of falling into that brazen clash of superlatives with which persons eminent in any degree must now be hailed by an appreciative public. Shall one write of the great teacher? What is a great teacher? "Provided a decent sum of money," asked a trustee who took counsel with the flesh and blood of a certain citizen, "how is this decrepit college to be built up?" "Cut out your dead wood," answered the citizen, who loved his metaphor, "and call live men to the chairs—men who are talked about, big men in big colleges—so that they will leave a luminous trail as they go from the old place to the new." It is an easy formula; and the reporter, along with that mob of honest folk who shape their judgment by what newspapers say, has made it valid almost to the exclusion of other standards. Your great man, even your great teacher, is the man with a luminous trail; convergent luminous trails make a great institution. Now, however his old students may feel in regard to the teaching of Mr. Child—his relentless accuracy combined with literary tact; the might of learning masked behind the grace of letters, along with a kindliness and a humor without bounds; his precept and example to the learner that, whatever Paracelsus says about the dilemma, in literature at least one may both know and love—they are nevertheless sadly put to it when this test of a luminous trail comes canting in, and they boggle outright at the thought of what a reporter would have said. The reporter and his public like their great men as revealed in a sonorous commonplace; and if there was anything from which Mr. Child was utterly removed, it was the sonorous commonplace. "Burke," said the popular lecturer, when note-books were well adjusted, "Burke was a master-mind. . . ." "The reason why one comes to like Chaucer better than Spenser," said Mr. Child, in his cheery, conversational way, to a certain class many years ago, "is that Chaucer always has his feet on the ground, while Spenser—ah, well, you know, Spenser is one of our greatest poets . . ." "What did he say?" gasped the man who made a point of accurate notes.

Will it do, then, to tell the reporter that Prof. Child was a great scholar? Although the public has reluctantly abandoned that fond old test of speaking fluently nineteen languages, reading forty-three with ease, and possessing an intimate acquaintance with many savage dialects, men still feel that some divinity of the sort, something cryptic, ought to hedge the scholar. There was nothing of this about Mr. Child. His great collection of ballads, for example, is shamelessly plain; the greater part of it can be read and enjoyed by the layman. How is one to bring home, not to the scholar, who knows its worth, but to an ordinary reader, the great significance of this book for our American scholarship? Indeed, could one compass it, there were no better task, regarded simply as service to the state, than such a straightforward account of what Mr. Child really was, and what he did, both for academic ideals and for human knowledge, as should put the reporter and his public upon a revision of their standards of greatness. Accounts of Mr. Child have been written by competent hands, but have hardly reached the reporter. Meanwhile, and for the present purpose, it is enough to consider these 'Ballads'—the most important contribution that he has given to learning—and to find some basis for the assertion, made on both sides of the sea, that the work belongs to that extremely rare class known as permanent.

As a comparatively young man, Prof. Child had already done some of this permanent work in his 'Observations on the Language of Chaucer,' and he did it with quite inadequate materials. He had a rare and accurate judgment of proportion, so that he neither set himself impossible tasks, nor yet was deceived by the false appearance of impossibility. It is worthy of note that, in his early work, the edition of Spenser, the studies in Chaucer and Gower, he showed remarkable skill of insight and combination, so as to win wide results from very narrow material; while later, in the collection and comparison of ballads, when confronted with almost boundless material, he developed quite as valuable an art in his powers of selection and control.

The publication of the 'Ballads' was begun in 1882—for the collection of 1857-59 must count as an altogether separate work, not as an earlier edition—and now comes to an end with the tenth part, completing the fifth volume. New title-pages are provided for the earlier volumes, and there is an excellent portrait of Mr. Child from Kruell's graver. This final part contains, besides a few pages of additions and corrections for particular ballads, a glossary to the whole collection, a list of sources of the various texts, an index of published airs (with an appendix of unpublished tunes), an index of ballad-titles, an index of books of ballads, an "index of matters and literature," typographical corrections, and a bibliography. With the exception of this bibliography, mainly the work of Miss Ireland, all save the general introduction, of which "a few pages of manuscript—the last thing written by his pen—almost illegible, were found among his papers," and the bibliography, begun under his own direction and carried out upon his own plan, was prepared for the press by Prof. Child himself; and the entire part has been printed under the care of his scholar, friend, and successor, Prof. G. L. Kittredge, who gives a brief but wholly satisfactory biographical sketch, but adds nothing beyond such corrections and notes as had been welcomed and published at every stage of the collection. Mr. Child—happier in all this than his friend the illustrious Grundtvig, whose great collection of Danish ballads furnished the plan for the present work—has done all that he promised in his announcement sixteen years ago, and has done it, moreover, in spite of conditions of health which would have put many a man out of the struggle. Including additions and corrections, but excluding indexes, the work as a whole comprises 2,376 pages, in double columns, of text and comment. In 1894, as Prof. Kittredge points out, the editor could "report that the 305 numbers of his collection comprised the whole extant mass of this traditional material, with the possible exception of a single ballad." Had he done nothing more than this, simply gathering from far and near every scrap of genuine traditional poetry of English or Scottish origin, Mr. Child would have taken high rank among those rare scholars whose powers of research, added to critical tact and discernment, have enabled them to save precious literature from destruction. The bagmen of letters run busily about, now with cheap, new, showy goods, now with sound old stuffs; but there is an Indiaman come bravely to port, with wares far-fetched by daring and skill, wares that are made no more and must be bought for a great price.

Yet this is the smaller part of the work. It is well known that Mr. Child's comparative and historical researches go beyond those of any other scholar in the field. In the compass of a few pages will often be found erudition to furnish forth an armada of ordinary monographs. See, for example, the discussion of Bugge's theory of "Lady Isabel and

the Elf-Knight," and the elaborate, final settlement of Robin Hood's claims upon history and myth. Nothing eludes Mr. Child; no source of information is too remote or too difficult, no chaff too forbidding for him to find the grains of wheat; yet there is no wailing, as of Carlyle, over the "dust-heaps," no ostentation of effort. Moreover, even the most careless reader must be attracted by the delightful way in which the editor imparts the results of his labor. A touch here and there of literary allusion; modern instances, whenever the subject can be redeemed from mere antiquarian interest; the personal note, as in that outburst against sentimental and mawkish pity for tramps, "those terrors of our rural districts"; and everywhere the saving gift of humor. What Dryden is reported to have said, in an often quoted phrase, about the poems of Chaucer, may well serve as grace for the student who sits down to these introductions to the various ballads: "Here is God's plenty." Moreover, when Mr. Child, writing of a well-known ceremonial test in which maids and lighted candles play the chief part, just drops that line about an "exsufflicate and blown surmise," and goes swiftly on his scientific way; when, gravely summarizing an extravagant theory, he gives as comment the opinion of his favorite poet that "glosing is a full glorious thing"; when he speaks of the "great moral effort" made under trying circumstances by a certain knight; when he casts about for a phrase to express his notion of a broadside version (F) of "The Broomfield Hill," and, with a felicity beyond praise, decides that it has a "pungent buckishness," that while "A smells of the broom, F suggests the groom"—whenever, in brief, these touches of humor fall upon his graver work, it is well to know that the allusion, the quip are spontaneous. And how clear, how strong is his style! If only the young lions of research could learn the lesson that one's tale of good philology need not be noted for one's bad and barren English in the telling of it! If Mr. Child perfected his method of work in Germany, and brought away that tradition of thoroughness which has made German philology so rich in permanent results, he was enough the man of letters to love and cultivate those graces which one is wont to associate with the best scholarship of England, and he was enough himself neither to affect a school nor to give his students the impression that any parochial restrictions fettered his range in the world of learning. In his study of traditional poetry he lost not a jot of the life and movement of these ballads; he kept always in view whatever they had of charm and humor and pathos; but he never swerved a hair's breadth from the dignity and severity of research.

It is as useless to point out the excellence of details as it is to move heaven and earth in the search for a possible error or omission. But it may be noted that this book should now serve as a basis for studies in custom, superstition, turn of thought or of phrase; and that the reckoning can be regarded as final, so far as English and Scottish ballads are concerned. The collecting of them is a closed account. Moreover, conjectural emendations are in order—for Mr. Child was properly chary of such suggestion—and the preparation of a single, normal text out of the varying versions of a given ballad.

It was the third part of his task that Mr. Child, as we have seen, did not live to accomplish. The collection of individual ballads, the history and comparison are there; but there is no general introduction* in which this master of method sums up the texts, the origins, the conditions, the limitations, the migrations, the stylistic and metrical characteristics of the ballad in general. In regard to this task he felt a certain dread, and expressed it with his usual frankness.† Wont with unerring skill to trace the single ballad and to follow every hint of its relationship to other ballads, to other groups, he went so far as to doubt his own power to draw general conclusions and to discuss the more or less vague questions which arise when one faces the ballad as a fact in general literature. Yet this introduction, had he been spared to write it, would have made an epoch in ballad criticism. He knew, as no one else could know, the snares that lie in wait for the student of traditional literature; if ever the vanity of dogmatizing comes to test, it is here; and he had no mind, in Brunetière's phrase, to "éterniser les problèmes," to hunt rather for the sake of the exercise than for the sake of the game. Had he merely trodden the perilous ways and cleared the overgrown path, what light would have pierced at least a part of that darkness! What, for example, if he had but written an account of the migration of ballads, if he had essayed a permanent classification, if he had given in detail his notion of the tests and conditions which set off the narrative ballad of tradition, not only from the folk-song, not only from the imitated ballad, but from the whole mass of popular poetry! What, too, if he could have given some general hints about the particular skill with which he sunders false pathos from true, the flush of health in a traditional ballad from the rouge of imitation! With his unerring tact, what could he not have done for the drawing of that perilous line which should mark off the vulgar broadside from a broadside which is true ballad at the heart! How straight he goes to the mark in his judgment of that "infectious" ballad, "Bewick and Graham"; and how the dignity and pathos of it rise from the shabby lendings of the broadside version:

"Father, could ye not drunk your wine at home,
And letten me and my brother be?"‡

This unrivalled knowledge of the ballad itself, this intimacy with it—"Do I like 'Stephen'?" he echoed once the question of the reviewer; "I go singing it all over the house!"—one can now find only in *obiter dicta*. Had the introduction been written as an outgrowth of the labors involved in collecting and comparing, it would have put the science of ballad criticism upon a foundation solid and sure.

The death of Prof. Child came home to his old scholars with a force in every way unusual. He had in him that generosity of manliness, that pathetic resolve not only to see the best in every one, but still to see this best round unspeakable corners of mistake and failure. He would still praise wherever honest praise was in any degree possible. He would neither give nor take conventional wares. "Your classmate ——," he was once told, "asked to be remembered to you." "Did —— say that? Give him my love," came the composed reply. Were all the acts of kindness, done at the cost of his own precious time, which Mr. Child bestowed upon comparative strangers, upon scholars, or indeed upon any bairn of knowledge whom he could help to put on the right way—were these all to be set up for a record, what a monument of disinterested affection would be there, both for the cause of learning and for the welfare of his fellows! Applied to him, the famous saying sounds as little extravagant as it did when it came from the lips of Lessing, a man in some respects of kindred breed with Mr. Child, a kindly man, full of good loves and hates, a keen, wise, tolerant, sympathetic man, who cried out when he heard of the death of Winckelmann: "There goes the second man within a year or two of whom I can say that to prolong his life I would willingly have given something of my own." That has an unreal ring in these days; but it was not unreal as the utterance of Lessing, and it could be said in honesty by some of the old students of Prof. Child.

*The prospectus of 1882 says that "a general introduction will be prefixed to the first volume."

†The summary of facts about the ballad which he drew up for 'Johnson's Cyclopædia' must not be regarded as indicating the character of the projected introduction.

‡For Mr. Child's criticism of rejection and of appreciation the reader might consult respectively the discussion of Version D in "Captain Car" and the praise of stanzas 9, 10, in the shorter version of "Sir Patrick Spens." A study of Mr. Child's critical treatment of style and matter in the ballad would be a welcome piece of work.

ENGLISH CATHEDRALS.

Bell's Cathedral Series. Edited by Gleeson White and Edward F. Strange. Volumes I.-VI. Canterbury, Chester, Salisbury, Rochester, Oxford, and Exeter. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan.

This series of handbooks, which is intended to include twenty-four separate volumes at least, is marked by the peculiarity of being filled with photographic illustrations, some from drawings, but the greater number from the buildings themselves, many of which are of the full size of the page. These illustrations are especially numerous for the details of the buildings, as is, perhaps, best. The visitor to Canterbury or Exeter would hardly fail to buy two or three photographs of the exterior of the cathedral, whereas the details of the interior and even the projecting angles and the less important recesses of the outside would be not so easy for him to find among the photographs in the shops. The half-tone pictures are of varying merit; many of them as good as could reasonably be asked. The illustrations in line are not as numerous as they might have been, but what are given are appropriate and are of assistance to the text. The volume on Salisbury is less richly illustrated than some, containing a greater number of reproductions of prints and the like and fewer photographs of detail. Of Oxford, on the other hand, a cathedral much less known than is fitting, both half-tones and line cuts are freely given, and this volume is one of the most interesting in the matter of illustration. The plans are confined to general ground-plans, one to each volume, except as a restored or conjectural ancient plan is added, and there are no large-scale plans of parts of a church so arranged as to explain more fully the photographic pictures. On the other hand, plans of recent excavations and consequent discoveries have been introduced, as noticeably in the volume on Oxford.

It is not, however, only for the student on the spot that these books are prepared; they appeal with at least equal force to the reader in a distant land. In fact, it is rather the mark of the series that buildings are

described and their history given at length than that they are commented on as by a wise guide accompanying the student through the building. There is no reason to doubt that in this the interest of the greater number of buyers and readers has been consulted. Few are they who spend time enough in and about a cathedral to use aright a volume of 120 pages bearing upon it, and those few are apt to require the historical facts, the dates and the approximate dates rather than guidance in the examination of the buildings. Care has been taken to make the different books nearly uniform in treatment, and this even to the extent of keeping the division into four parts, often marked by a similar division into four chapters, viz.: the history of the building, the exterior of the building itself, its interior, and the history of the see. This, however, does not prevent considerable diversity in the character and quality of the writing.

The volume devoted to Canterbury, by Mr. Hartley Withers, has but little to say about the architecture. Even the chapter descriptive of the exterior and the precincts and that concerning the interior of the cathedral contain much more history than they do analysis or description of the building or of any of its parts. The architectural information in this volume is furnished mainly by the very good series of plans. These are three in number; the plan of the present church, cloisters, chapter-house, library, etc., with numerous references, being accompanied by a very well-imagined restoration of the plan as it was in 1174, and one of the Saxon cathedral, as conjectured by Prof. Willis. By an odd mistake the second plan is lettered 1774, and no erratum notice appears. This volume is well adapted to give the patient and studious visitor to the cathedral precincts a living interest in the foundation and its immense influence in the development of the English people.

The handbook on Salisbury is anonymous. Somewhat more attention is paid in it to the details of the architecture. The difficulty already referred to, of deciding between the claims of visitors and of students at a distance, is here got over by yielding everything to the latter class. Details are described as for one who has not seen them, and are hardly pointed out or alluded to as if in explanation to one who is looking at them. The plan of this cathedral is given on as large a scale as one page allows, and is, perhaps, sufficient, but there is no plan of the close, nor is even the whole cloister given.

The book devoted to Oxford and prepared by the Rev. Percy Dearmer is far more minute in its examination of the building. The unusual character of this smallest of English cathedrals in its double capacity of college chapel and cathedral church, and its unusual plan and situation, short and square and crowded in between the cloisters of the academic buildings, have, in a sense, called for this fuller treatment. It is, however, in the highest degree fortunate that the writer was prepared for the unusual task set him. The absent student may obtain from this little book a really excellent idea of the cathedral and its architectural peculiarities, the changes it has undergone, and its relative importance as a piece of English mediæval architecture; and the visitor to Oxford may follow it, page after page, in his examination of the most interesting little church. The quotations from other writers are peculiar; for while the handbooks on Canterbury and Salisbury contain most useless records of what writers of the last century, wholly ignorant of Gothic art, or mere gossiping travellers have had to say, the principal quotations in Mr. Dearmer's book on Oxford are taken from Mr. Park Harrison, a very competent and most earnest and indefatigable archæologist.

The volume on Rochester, by Mr. G. H. Palmer, is noticeably intelligent in its treatment of that curious edifice, so unattractive and even mean in its first impression on the beholder, and containing so much really curious architecture. The interior of the Norman nave rightly excites the interest of the author, and we can trace in the pages of his chapter on the history of the cathedral his guarded approval of the restorations which have in late years made the west front less insignificant; restorations which were perfectly justified in view of the very late date and very corrupt style in which its character had been fixed.

The book on Exeter, by Percy Addleshaw, adds to the regular list of chapters as given above an additional chapter on the tombs in the choir. There is not as much said about their artistic character as the reader might hope for, but this is to be taken as evidence that, in the present volume, at least, the needs of the visitor have been thought the most pressing. The architectural account of the cathedral is more close and more in the way of description than the same part in some of the other handbooks. There is added a separate chapter on the curious guildhall of Exeter town and on the ruins of Rougemont Castle.

Chester, by Charles Hiatt, is the work of a man of judgment, accustomed to weigh carefully the relative value of architectural styles, details of decoration, and the various elements of architectural beauty. The relations of the small and unpretending cathedral to the singularly picturesque town rich in mediæval and Elizabethan architecture, which, though restored almost out of recognition, is picturesque and interesting still, are all perfectly well maintained and insisted on in the text. An additional chapter is devoted to the conventual buildings, and there is a brief account of the former Cathedral of St. John.

The history of the cathedral which in each volume is contained in the first chapter is invariably a narrative of the progress and social development of one little piece of old England. The narrow boundaries of such a realm make possible the treatment which these diocesan records have received. The fact that each chronicler had a great and even an exaggerated notion of the importance to the world of his little piece of history makes that piece of history, as told by him, more entertaining and more useful, nor can we sympathize with that student of history who dislikes these annals of the little affairs of one ecclesiastical establishment and its small town. The history of the diocese, especially so called, which forms the final chapter of each volume, is rather a record of the bishops and their special character and achievements than a general chronicle.

Unforeseen Tendencies of Democracy. By Edwin L. Godkin. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1898.

As its title indicates, this volume is principally devoted to the examination of such tendencies in modern democracies as are not recognized in what Mr. Bagehot would have called the "literary" theory of popular government. This examination, however, is so thorough as to constitute a sketch or outline of the science of politics. It does not comprehend politics as an art, or body of precepts, and the attitude of the author throughout is that of a political philosopher who aims chiefly to record the results of experience. Nothing would have been easier than to point morals and prescribe regimens, but the scientific attitude is consistently maintained, with the result, as we have said, of bringing out the fundamental principles of modern politics.

One of the most important of these principles is that democracies of large size do not demand rulers of ability, at least of statesmanlike ability. The "bosses" to whom these democracies commit their destinies have doubtless much ability of a certain kind. They are undeniably skilful organizers of party forces; they know how to secure the fidelity of a host of petty managers, who can control delegates and manipulate conventions. But they do not even pretend to have any conception of the larger ends of government, or any acquaintance with the lessons of history. They are content if they are able to control appointments to office, and to dictate such legislative measures as are desired by the interests with which they are identified; and the masses are apparently content with such leadership. To use Mr. Godkin's words:

> "It must be admitted, even by its warmest admirers, that democracy is not very teachable by philosophers and jurists. . . . Every democracy, too, is weighted by the fact that its new agents are rarely men familiar with public affairs, or with human trials in matters of government. Those of its advisers who are familiar with such things are apt to be hostile or distrustful, and are therefore not listened to with confidence or attention."

While the management of the incapable rulers of democracy is bad and corrupt, the author concedes that the rapid increase of wealth and the sudden development of urban civilization have given democracy problems to solve which the most famous oligarchies never encountered. It would be pessimistic to maintain that democracy cannot solve these problems in time, but the mistake of optimists consists in not allowing time enough; in "thinking that there are short cuts to political happiness." Men must learn by experience, and it is at least conceivable that, after a sufficiently prolonged experience, the common people may recognize the advantages of committing public affairs to statesmen, in which event democracy may succeed as well as any other form of government. At present these advantages are not understood, and the chapter on "The Decline of Legislatures" illustrates very instructively the results of this ignorance. On the other hand, the progress of civil-service reform indicates that the people are not indisposed to correct abuses when the manner of doing so is made plain to them.

The first paper is devoted to a review of the democracies of the past in contrast with our own polity, which traces its ancestry back to Greece and Rome. It would seem from this chapter that the rise of democracy is an inevitable result of the diffusion of intelligence. So soon as the masses of the people are able to take an interest in the conduct of government, they will insist on

having a part in it, and the existence of a cheap press is incompatible with the prestige required by aristocracy. As Mr. Bagehot said, the English people were a "deferential" people, and thus the ruling class kept its power; but this country is not now a deferential country. The consequences of this different attitude of our people are worked out in the chapter on "The Growth and Expression of Public Opinion." Attention is called to the necessity of defining how public opinion is to be ascertained, which is only through the ballot or through the newspaper. The ballot, taken only at long intervals and under conditions which obscure the political issues—too numerous to be generally comprehended—is an extremely clumsy and imperfect test of public opinion. A hundred voters may cast the same ballot, but they may have a hundred different reasons for doing so. On the other hand, the day is past when editors anxiously sought to express the political views of their readers, and when many readers took their political creed from one editor. The editors now seek to please advertisers, and readers take many papers, getting but a flabby faith out of them. In fact, most readers are so incapable of or so averse to sustained attention as to be incompetent to form a really intelligent opinion on a question of public policy. But of course neither readers nor editors are apt to acknowledge their imbecility, and the follies of government are the natural result of uneducated public opinion.

The chapters on "The Nominating System" and "American Municipal Government" contain much that is lacking in our systematic treatises of politics. The primary meeting, or caucus, has come to assume "the air of a scheme or device on which the republic rests." Yet it is a novelty, and not necessarily a part of the democratic scheme of government. No one seems to have foreseen or predicted this development of the nominating system, to which we are now so accustomed that we cannot imagine how it could be dispensed with. The abuses which have arisen from it are set forth with much particularity by Mr. Godkin. There is at present no sign of their decrease; but no improvement in government is to be looked for until they are abated. In fact, if they continue, they will change the structure of our government. These abuses have become most flagrant in the large cities, the rulers of which have been selected with reference to their standing in the Federal parties, not to their qualifications as municipal administrators. Here, however, there are signs of growing political intelligence. The number of citizens who ignored party ties and voted for Mr. Low at the last election in New York city was, in view of all the circumstances, encouragingly large. When a generation of voters has been trained to the conception that the administration of cities has nothing to do with the policy of the Federal Government, such movements as that in favor of Mr. Low may end the power of the politicians. But as it is necessary to overthrow them also in the State Legislatures, the struggle will be a fierce one. The plunder of a rich city will not be relinquished merely because the inhabitants of the city demand it. The struggle, however, is sure to come, and those who wish to prepare for it will find in these essays such information as to its conditions as will enable them to fight not as men beating the air.

The Poems of Shakespeare. Edited, with an Introduction and Notes, by George Wyndham. T. Y. Crowell & Co.

In his edition of Shakspere's poems, Mr. Wyndham has, for aught we can see, produced a book which all students of Shakspere must possess, and in which readers for pleasure will take great satisfaction. Not that the editor's work is faultless. On the contrary, being in several respects very ill-equipped for his task, he often disappoints or exasperates, according as, with visible labor, he either fails to illuminate an obscure place or darkens a line which was clear before he touched it. Yet, despite much unevenness and superficiality, he offers so much that is good, and comports himself in so mannerly a fashion, that one finds it impossible not to approve in the main, however one many condemn in detail. Probably, Mr. Wyndham himself would be the last to claim for his editorial work finality, if such a thing is conceivable, or even an approach to finality. It is enough for him, and will be enough for his readers, that he has made an edition of Shakspere's poems superior in some ways to any that has yet appeared. The total amount of his original contributions may not be large, when all that is wrong, or even all that appears perverse, has been eliminated from the total mass of the notes. Yet something remains—enough, we think, to insure the book an indulgent reception from candid scholars.

Mr. Wyndham's introduction is elaborate, extending to almost a hundred and fifty pages, and it is certainly good reading. Its main purpose, we take it, is to make good the distinction between a poem itself and the actual experience or observation of the poet out of which the poem grew or upon which it was founded. He insists strongly on the axiom that the study of a poem and the study of a poet's autobiography are distinct things; that the poem is valuable not because of the personal experience which it contains, but rather by virtue of the imaginative quality "superadded by the poet." There is nothing new in all this, nor is Mr. Wyndham very clear in his treatment of the subject or entirely consistent in applying his own principles. Yet the discussion is surely worth while. It is exemplary to hear an appreciative and eloquent critic, well acquainted with the details of the investigation, proclaim vigorously that, whatever one may find in Shakspere's sonnets, the least valuable product that can be extracted from them is the autobiographical element. We could even wish that Mr. Wyndham had gone a step farther—that, in fact, he had proceeded from his disinclination to look at the sonnets merely as historical documents, to a more complete scepticism as to their trustworthiness in precisely that regard. That the step would not have been a long one we must admit, unless we forget that the author of these poems was the greatest of dramatists. And the biographical constructors have had their own way for so long that it is highly important for some protestant to make his voice heard (even if it be a *vox clamantis*). How slight, after all, is the evidential foundation in comparison with the structure which it is made to bear! Mr. Wyndham, we fancy, was very near taking the position which we have just described, if he had not been overborne by the authority of his predecessors. This will account for a certain indecision and incompleteness in his views. Yet he has done good service in prompting us to remember that the subjects of Shakspere's sonnets are, in essence, love, beauty, death, immortality, and the like, rather than dark ladies and debauched lords.

Apart from these more serious considerations, the introduction is undeniably entertaining. The sketch of Shakspere's life, of his social and literary environment, and of the manners of his time, is lively and interesting. The author has read widely and attentively, and he has a distinct cleverness in setting forth such things. To be sure, we cannot always vouch for his accuracy. His account of the "war of the theatres," for example, would hardly satisfy a critical historian of Elizabethan Literature. Still, if one can overlook details and read the introduction simply for general impressions, there is much to commend. It would be hard to find a piece of modern essay writing in which certain aspects of the Elizabethan age are so felicitously set forth. To find faults in it would be easy—too easy to be worth doing—and the faults when found would not essentially interfere with one's appreciation of its peculiar merits. Rambling, incomplete, "precious," naïve, inaccurate, out of proportion, are all epithets that a harsh critic might use and justify; but none of them would, after all, touch the point. The introduction embodies certain ideas which need just now to be emphasized in the criticism of Shakspere's poetry as opposed to that of his dramas. And it embodies these ideas in a form which will, as we think, inevitably give them a considerable currency.

Of Mr. Wyndham's notes it is impossible to speak adequately in our brief compass. He has taken great pains with them and has done his best. The scholar will find in them not only, as we have indicated, a few observations of importance, but also a vast amount of useless and mistaken comment, and a deal of amusing pedantry. Much of this pedantry is of that diverting kind which one always expects when a literary critic, untrained in the niceties of a technical scholarship, undertakes to play the dryasdust. The many quotations from Minsheu's well-known dictionary and the long extracts from Guillim's 'Heraldry,' as well as the pitiless discussions on the significance of capital letters, may serve to illustrate our meaning. The technical scholar, however much of a pedant, could never have shown so much pedantry on these points as is exhibited by Mr. Wyndham, whose general tendencies are not pedantic at all. We have made many notes of his errors and absurdities, but these we cheerfully withhold. Some of them, to be sure, are grotesque enough, and some are hardly excusable even in a dilettante. But it is fairer both to the author and to our readers not to insist upon such matters in the case of a book which, despite some glaring faults, everybody who cares for Shakspere will welcome to his shelves.

The Story of the British Army. By Lieut.-Colonel C. Cooper King, F.G.S., with plans and illustrations. London: Methuen & Co. 8vo, pp. 423.

Col. King's book will be a convenient manual for the same purposes for which regimental histories are useful, but on a broader

scale. It enables one to trace each regiment in the whole British army, in all its service. This is done by noting the designation of all regiments engaged in the campaigns and battles of which an outline is given. Supplementary tables give alphabetical lists of campaigns and battles since 1658, lists of regiments with former numbers and present titles, with order of precedence, their badges, mottoes, and nicknames. The text gives also the history of the changes in armor and weapons from the Norman Conquest downward, with the progress in battle tactics which necessarily accompanied the use of long-range weapons like the bow and cloth-yard shaft, and still more the musket and the rifle.

All this material is connected with an outline history of campaigns and battles in the four quarters of the globe, with appreciative estimates of the great soldiers who have become illustrious as leaders of the British hosts. Although the story must be brief to come within the compass of a single volume, it is judiciously expanded in the more important parts, especially when rapid change in arms or in tactics is going on, or when the strategy of a Marlborough or a Wellington is to be analyzed. The author has had a clear idea of his plan, which has been to fill a place in military literature really open to him; and while limiting himself to a brief treatment of history proper, he has had a keen eye to the favorite anecdotes or exploits of the regiments, so as not to lose the flavor of individuality in the larger treatment.

Colonel King has also shown independence of judgment in his estimates of men, which one is not apt to look for in connection with soldiers' *esprit de corps* when telling the deeds of the leaders of former generations. His handling of Wellington is a good example of this:

> "That the 'Iron Duke' had been uniformly, and on the whole extraordinarily, successful, is evident. That he never saw the greatest leaders until he met Napoleon at Waterloo, is equally so. It was for long, and is to some extent still, rank heresy to even criticise his actions. But whatever confidence he may have gained by his imperturbable coolness, he gained no man's regard. The rank and file trusted and believed in him to some extent; but there was not one soldier who would have died with his name on his lips, as many did for his far greater antagonist, Napoleon" (p. 244).

The Duke is credited with patience, perseverance, and sagacity, but not with great strategic insight. That he misconceived the campaign of Waterloo and was out-manœuvred by Napoleon is frankly admitted. In social life he neglected his old comrades, and "the circle in which he chiefly moved was that of fashionable ladies and gentlemen." If recognition of a brilliant feat of arms by a subordinate was likely to suggest criticism of his own management, he would ignore it in his reports, though it were as splendid as that of Norman Ramsay's battery at Fuentes de Oñoro, which Napier gives such a picture of. It reads strangely, too, when we are told that Wellington "was barely on speaking terms" with Picton at Quatre Bras—Picton, who was the hero of that fight, and who concealed the wound he got there only to fall dead when cheering on Kempt's brigade at Waterloo.

The author's literary work is curiously careless. He says of pre-historic men, that "families segregated together and became tribes" (p. 2). "They had at that time, like cavalry always have" (p. 21) is a locution to be avoided in this country, though we find it in Darwin, and General Gordon used it in his letters from Khartum. A funny ellipsis is that on p. 99: "He was no doubt a 'go-between' the Pretender in France and the few left faithful to him in the north." Other slips are the following: "There was little doubt in his mind but that no serious attack would be made" (p. 215); "Hardly had Wellington returned to England than the corps were disembodied" (p. 233); "No really free nation ever has or ever will accept the fetters" (p. 315); "Semi-civilized man with arms in his hand . . . are not content with looking at them" (p. 320). One rather enjoys the free-and-easy contempt for parts of speech and idioms.

The Bargain Theory of Wages. By John Davidson. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1898.

The general aim of this treatise is to trace the modifications undergone by the theory of wages under the influence of a broader philanthropy. While it is not altogether true that wages are increased because people think that they ought to be, there is no doubt that the theory of wages may be affected by a livelier interest in the welfare of laborers. As Prof. Davidson shows, the earlier theory of wages was as applicable to the remuneration of slaves as to that of freemen; it was the result of a calculation of what was required, one year with another, to maintain in efficiency a certain number of laboring animals. Hence, Prof. Davidson describes it as a "subsistence theory." With the increased command of nature which marks this century, the remuneration of laborers came to be much more than mere subsistence. The subsistence theory became merely a theory of particular wages, while general wages were explained by the "wages-fund" doctrine. This doctrine Prof. Davidson describes as a theory of the demand for labor—the supply being regarded as fixed, and the laborer merely as the recipient of wages. In his view the theory "stands or falls according to the answer to the question whether the wages-fund is predeterminate and fixed." Into the merits of this vexed question we need not go; but Prof. Davidson states the arguments fairly enough.

What is termed the "Productivity of Labor Theory" was developed as a criticism of the doctrine of the wages-fund. One school has maintained that high wages are the result of efficient labor; the other, that high wages are the cause of efficient labor. According to the latter school it is only necessary to increase the reward of labor in order to increase the general wealth; the former believes in improving the laborer, in the expectation that he will become a greater wealth-producer. Here, too, Prof. Davidson brings out the implications of these theories with satisfactory clearness, and indeed sets them forth with a good deal of originality of statement. He apparently, however, attributes the prosperity following the adoption of free trade in England to the Factory acts; a not uncommon assumption, which lacks proof. The present condition of cotton manufacture in New England indicates that factory regulation does not insure prosperity. In stating what he calls the "Bargain Theory," Prof. Davidson admits that competition is one of the most important factors in determining wages, but lays stress on others, particularly the increase of knowledge among laborers which enables them to make better bargains. He is of the opinion that the practice of paying laborers employed by Government higher rates than they can obtain from private employers is likely to create a sentiment which will assist the laborer; but why the creation of a favored class supported at the expense of the people should have this result is not made clear. While some of Prof. Davidson's arguments are not convincing, his book is suggestive and deserves the attention of economists.

Speculum Perfectionis seu S. Francisci Assisiensis Legenda antiquissima, auctore Fratre Leone, nunc primum edidit Paul Sabatier. Paris: Fischbacher. 1898.

When the Bollandists were collecting materials for the life of St. Francis of Assisi in the *Acta Sanctorum*, they invited communications from all members of the great Franciscan order. They were rewarded with innumerable dissertations which proved to be of the least possible value, for those furnished by the Observantine branch of the order consisted almost exclusively of arguments concerning the Portiuncula indulgence, while the discussions of the Conventuals bore with similar unanimity on the tradition which represents St. Francis as still standing upright in his tomb under the great church of Assisi. The children of the humble *poverello* apparently had zeal only for that which made for their profit or glorification. It is not a little singular that it was reserved in our day for a Protestant pastor, M. Paul Sabatier, to revive public interest in the spiritual beauty and loveliness which distinguish St. Francis above all his comrades in the Menology, rendering his career the most perfect concrete expression of the teachings of Christ. It is some years since M. Sabatier's 'Vie de François d'Assise' deservedly attracted widespread attention by the earnestness and eloquence with which the author set forth the results of a profound study of all the accessible original sources of his theme. Since then he has devoted himself to further researches on the subject, and he now presents us, for the first time in print, with the 'Speculum Perfectionis,' an account of the saint by his devoted companion, confessor, and secretary, Brother Leo. An introduction of over two hundred pages, an appendix of special studies, and voluminous foot-notes show that all possible sources of information have been laboriously exhausted in the endeavor to throw light on the numerous intricate questions involved.

These questions have been in debate from the thirteenth to the nineteenth century. Although the Order was founded on poverty, charity, and love, it speedily became torn with dissensions of the most virulent character between those who represented the aspirations of the founder as expressed in the Rule, and those who saw in the organization a means of attaining ease and wealth and power. After internal struggles lasting for nearly two centuries, the Order divided into two branches—the Observantines and the Conventuals—hating each other with a bitterness almost incredible, and maintaining their rivalry to the present day. Until the schism was established and recognized, the worldly faction, for the most part, had control of the organization, and it desired to suppress the writings of the immediate disciples of the founder, whose accounts of his unworldliness accentuated the wide depar-

ture that had already occurred from his precepts and example. The general chapter, held in 1266, accordingly ordered these early writings to be suppressed, and commissioned St. Bonaventura to compile a Life of St. Francis which should be accepted as official. Much valuable material thus was irretrievably destroyed, and what remains was preserved in secret and with difficulty. Portions of it have seen the light at various times, especially of late years, including a considerable part of the 'Speculum Perfectionis,' in a disjointed and fragmentary condition. M. Sabatier has therefore made a real contribution to the history of one of the most remarkable spiritual movements of the Middle Ages by identifying and printing the 'Speculum' for the first time in a complete shape, and accompanying it with ample elucidations. To all students of the period the volume is indispensable.

Norman's Universal Cambist. By John Henry Norman. London: Effingham Wilson. 1897.

This is a strange book by a strange writer. It has been said that the only really happy man is he who owns a hobby and spends all his time in riding it, and if this be so, Mr. Norman should be one of the happiest of human beings. Some years ago he professed to have discovered what he called the "unit-of-weight system" of calculating international exchanges, and, ever since, he has been publishing books containing masses of confused and undigested facts and figures which are supposed to be connected with this system. The reader may fail to see the connection, but he cannot fail to be impressed by Mr. Norman's statement that in writing such books he is "simply unveiling that which has been hidden from the mass of mankind." As additional excuses for his literary fecundity, he claims a "lengthened interest" in seamen, sailors, and travellers, and a desire that children should learn the system as easily as they learn geography. We have never come across seamen, sailors, or travellers who could, by any stretch of imagination, be considered likely to profit by such literature; and as for children, they might as well attempt the integral calculus or the poems of Bacchylides.

A few years since we had occasion to criticise a previous book of Mr. Norman's, in which he endeavored, in his incoherent manner, to display the manifold virtues of this "unit-of-weight system" and the method of quoting exchanges based thereon. We informed him that the method had been actually tried in the New York market in 1883, and had been given up, after a week's experience, "because it did not commend itself to those most largely interested in the matter." Mr. Norman reprints our remarks in italics, evidently believing that there must have been a wicked conspiracy on the part of the dealers in exchange to upset his dearly beloved theory. But in this he is entirely mistaken. On the contrary, there was at that time an influential movement in favor of quoting sterling exchange by a discount or premium on the bullion par, and a strong desire on the part of bankers that the change should succeed, and it was abandoned only because it was found inconvenient in practice. In the present book Mr. Norman admits that there are difficulties in his method, and in one passage (which must have been written during a period of temporary and unusual depression) he even goes so far as to say that "it is doubtful if there will be any immediate alteration in the world's present mode of working and quoting the exchanges." The present mode has been in existence for many generations, is perfectly intelligible to those whose business it is to understand it, and is made practically convenient by elaborate exchange tables. Mr. Norman's theory is, in a certain sense, more scientific, but its practical value depends upon changes in the customs of commercial nations which are not likely to be made.

Dynamic Idealism: An Elementary Course in the Metaphysics of Psychology. By Alfred H. Lloyd. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1898. 16mo, pp. 248.

Practical Idealism. By William De Witt Hyde. Macmillan Co. 1897. 8vo, pp. 335.

It is pretty confident to preach such brand-new theory as Mr. Lloyd's, unpassed upon by any jury, as an "elementary course." Far be it from us to pronounce this or that general attitude in philosophy unsound, for nothing is established in that science as yet. The author of this little book at least makes his own position perfectly clear, and develops it with no feeble thought and with an unusual power of compact expression. Whoever succeeds in doing that, in the present unsettled state of opinion, renders a service to philosophy. Though the book shows many marks of digested study of other philosophers, the author does not attain to mastery of his idea. It masters him; it is his element; he fails to comprehend that other minds do not share in it. This fundamental idea is nothing new or rare. Outside the garden where philosophers converse, it is the common opinion. Namely, it is, that Doing is higher than either Being or Knowing, and necessarily includes them both. So axiomatic does this seem to Mr. Lloyd that he is capable of such assertions as this: "Science is never only for science's sake. Men have often appeared to think that science as a body of knowledge was its own end, but obviously to think so long is quite impossible." Now, as a matter of historical fact, real scientific men, in every age when science has been animated by a vital spark, have one and all pursued science for its own sake. Of a piece with that, is Mr. Lloyd's claiming the support of Aristotle, whose ἐνέργεια ψυχῆς is a development of Being, and not a mere Doing, and who might probably have said: "Doing is never for doing's sake. Obviously to think that it is so for long is quite impossible. Doing for doing's sake is what we call pastime; it cannot form the staple of life." Do not let us be understood as arguing the question; we only point out how immersed the author is in his own mental element.

This leading idea, taken in itself, is nothing but the usual Philistine apotheosis of brute force. It naturally allies itself with dualism, since an action is essentially an accident of two individual things. And accordingly we find that all philosophers who have adopted it have been given to abrupt distinctions between pairs of opposites—such as right and wrong—to the neglect of any gradation from one extreme to another. Yet the elaboration of the idea has by no means always been so homogeneous as to include a belief in the duality of body and soul. On the contrary, no philosophy ever appeared more satisfactory to the class of minds who are attracted to this idea, or was more thoroughly believed in by matter-of-fact respectability, than Stoicism, which moulded this principle into a system of the most wooden materialism. Stoicism, we can hardly doubt, has been secretly entertained by millions throughout the Christian era—at any rate, down to the introduction of ether and chloroform. Their conduct is not otherwise explicable.

But to-day we live in an age whose prevalent spirit is intensely idealistic, even verging upon the mystical; and in a forest it is impossible to look far over the general level of the tree-tops. And so, in this book, we find the deification of force clothing itself in a "Dynamic Idealism." It is a strange phrase, a wondrous seething snow. It accurately names an emulsion of philosophical opinions that one would not have believed could ever be worked up into so homogeneous, substantial, and inviting a mayonnaise as Mr. Lloyd has managed to compound. The philosophy in its entelechy is as far as possible from deserving the disparaging epithets we apply to its first principle. Not only will it not be affectioned by the philosophically unregenerate, but it may be doubted whether even the élite will be able to accommodate themselves to it.

New systems of idealism nowadays get patented in such swift succession that novelty's self has long ago worn out its novelty. But this little book, it must be confessed, has something of the interest of a novel; for the reader's curiosity becomes whetted to learn by what surprise Mr. Lloyd will bring about a marriage between Dynamism and Idealism. In the first place, in order to detach Action from its inherent bruteness and impart to it an intellectual character, he defines it as relation—not relation such as our minds confer at will, but relation in the very real fact itself. Undoubtedly an action is a pairing *in re* of two things. It must also be admitted that nothing has an intellectual character except relations. Some readers may suggest that those relations which are intellectual are not mere pairings, but rather mediations—that is to say, gatherings of threes, or, in Aristotle's language, syllogisms. Mr. Lloyd, however, does not notice this objection, and our purpose is only to sketch the contents of the book, not to criticise it. But, having thus described action as relation *in re*, or real pairedness, and having identified this pairedness with the mind, Mr. Lloyd seems to be as far from monism as ever; for are not the things paired one thing, and is not the pairing of them an accident over and above their matter? To avoid this result, Mr. Lloyd, as a second step, denies the separate existence of the correlates paired. According to him, nothing really exists but pure pairedness (his word is *relationship*) without any pairs of objects to be paired. That this doctrine must be classed as idealism is beyond dispute. Its upshot resembles Hegelianism. Here, then, is dynamic idealism. For all details we must recommend the reading of the volume, only copying the brief summary which the author prints over against his title-page: "Relationship among things is the criterion neither of a life nor of a mind that exists apart from the substance of the universe. It is, however, the criterion of substance itself, and as the central truth about things it bears this witness: *The universe itself lives; the universe itself thinks.*"

Calculated for the meridian of Chautauqua,

Mr. Hyde's 'Practical Idealism' is a manual of wholesome sentiments forcibly put. "Its practical aim precludes the discussion of ultimate metaphysical problems." That is to say, it is not scientific. At the same time, it was requisite to strengthen the heart of the semi-student by making him feel that he is studying philosophy. The author says that "philosophy is . . . tempted to forsake her mission as . . . guide to noble living, for the . . . technical craft," etc. In short, readers are taught to believe that Aristotle's great conquest for speculative science, in separating it sharply from questions of conscience and the like, was a great mistake and ought forthwith to be surrendered. Precisely that defines the efforts of the philosophical reactionists of to-day. As far as science is concerned, every shot they fire will fall harmless to the ground. But what their effect may prove to be upon the life and morals of their adherents, will depend upon the wholesomeness of calling that scientific which is not scientific. Were "practical idealism" plainly to confess itself to be no more than good wholesome feeling, sanctioned by the experiences of millennia, its practical aspects might be far more satisfactory than any scientific, and therefore merely provisional, hypothesis could be.

To mingle the two—philosophy and practical wisdom—is to invite vagueness and confusion, such as we here see, where the conflicting logical principles of Mill, Jevons, Sigwart, Bradlee, are jumbled together, where calling pure sensation a "continuum" is said to mean precisely the same thing as calling it a "confusion," and where the reasoning of Socrates in the 'Gorgias' is held up to admiration. Some of his criticisms of psychologists and logicians will give more aid and comfort to those who wish to separate speculation and conduct than the author seems to be aware. We believe that, in the long run, it will be found dangerous to teach Chautauquans that they are to "guide their conduct" by what may recommend itself to them as philosophy.

From Tonkin to India, by the Sources of the Irawadi, January, '95-January, '96. By Prince Henri d'Orléans. Translated by H. Bent. Illustrated. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1898. Map. Pp. xii, 467. Large 8vo.

Recent events have given a timely interest to this attractive book. The region of which it treats is one of the three provinces which France, in her latest demands upon the Chinese Government, claims should be regarded as exclusively under her influence. But not only are English interests in Yunnan more important than those of the French, England has done vastly more to develop commercial intercourse between Burma, India, and Yunnan than France has between Tonkin and this province. The Burma railway, for instance, has nearly reached the frontier, while France still only contemplates building one. As the possession of Yunnan is therefore not unlikely to prove a bone of contention between the two nations in the not distant future, Prince Henry's account of a part of the disputed region, its resources, and the character of its inhabitants has a distinct value apart from its geographical and scientific interest, which indeed is not slight, for out of the two thousand miles which he travelled, fifteen hundred were through entirely new country.

His main object was to complete the exploration of the Mekong by tracing its course from the northern boundary of Laos to the Tibetan frontier. In this he was only partially successful, for though he ascended the right bank for nearly six hundred miles, it was at such a distance from the river that its precise course is still uncertain. He found it to be a mountain torrent on a grand scale, and impracticable for navigation. The country was divided by numerous high ridges, each with its stream, making progress excessively difficult. "We changed valleys every day, and were continually ascending and descending" by mere mountain paths, and crossing the streams by fords or perilous bamboo bridges or cables. The inhabitants were few in number, consisting of small mutually hostile tribes and speaking a strange variety of tongues. On one occasion, as his little party were seated around the campfire, he found that they "were trying mutually to converse in nine different languages," Chinese, Tibetan, Mosso, Lissu, Lutse, Thai, Singpho, Mishmi, and Hindu. He had little opportunity for exploration, so that beyond the general features of the country traversed and a few facts in regard to the people, he adds little to our knowledge of it. In its present condition, however, it is evidently worthless as a market for French or English goods, while of mineral wealth there are few indications.

On reaching the Tibetan boundary, Prince Henry turned westward, and made his way with great difficulty into Assam, the first European to do so by the most direct route, since the Indian Government prohibits English exploration in this region, for fear of political complications. The country was far wilder even than that of the Mekong valley. Seventeen distinct ranges of mountains were crossed in a distance of about 100 miles as the crow flies, one of the passes being 11,500 feet high. Roads, in the true sense, there were none. The party scrambled along declivities on hands and feet, climbing rocks by notched trunks of trees, crossing torrents by means of cane bridges "on which one hangs in a kind of hoop and propels one's self along with feet and hands." To these difficulties were added such scarcity of food that, for the last few weeks, it was a literal "flying from death" by starvation. Under these circumstances our author's remark is abundantly justified, that for the present this highroad from China to India "has small chance of becoming an artery of commerce."

The features of the country throughout nearly the whole journey were so similar—"always the same wooded mountains, with their deep valleys, at the bottom of which flow large torrents of deep blue water"—that there is naturally little variety in Prince Henry's narrative. The people seemed to differ only in their tribal names and languages. They exhibited the same generally repulsive characteristics, with the exception of such as had been under the influence of the French missionaries. The success of the expedition was due wholly to the aid given by native Christians, and especially by the interpreter Joseph, who knew no French, but conversed fluently in Latin. Little reference is made to the geographical results of the expedition, which were of some importance, mainly in the final settlement of the once vexed question of the sources of the Irawadi. The interest of the Prince was shown chiefly in collecting facts in regard to the language and literature of the people. He brought back a number of manuscripts as well as specimens of their folklore. In one of the stories, Brer Rabbit victimizes the fox and the bear by his cunning. In appendices are given vocabularies of thirty languages or dialects, copies of several manuscripts, together with lists of the natural-history collections and the geographical and route observations of the Prince's companion, Lieut. Roux.

The translation is fairly well done, though there are occasional marks of carelessness—for instance, in this sentence on page 267: "I believe a cataclysm would not shake him out of a casualty greater even than an American's." The illustrations, especially those of the natives and their houses, are generally well chosen and interesting. Of Prince Henry himself we may say that in this journey he encountered successfully dangers and obstacles of no ordinary kind, and that he showed much pluck and cheerful endurance of great hardships. He was also a good leader, patient with and careful of his followers. In a word, he has some of the essential qualities which go to make an explorer of the highest rank.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, Sarah L., and Gilbert, C. B. Reader for Seventh Grades. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Baker, Adella L. Famous Authors of America. Syracuse, N. Y.: G. A. Mosher. 50c.
Banister, Prof. H. C. Interludes. Seven Lectures. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Burchell, S. H. In the Days of King James. London: Gay & Bird.
Cambridge, Ada. Mater Familias. Appletons. $1.
Chetwode, R. D. John of Strathbourne. A Romance of the Days of Francis I. Appletons. $1.
Cust, R. N. Linguistic and Oriental Essays. 2 vols. London: Luzac & Co.
Dall, C. C. The Stone Giant. P. T. Neely. 50c.
Dana, Prof. J. D. Revised Text-Book of Geology. American Book Co.
Dodge, C. C., and Tuttle, H. A. Latin Prose Composition. American Book Co. 75c.
Essays, Mock-Essays, and Character Sketches. London: Wiliam Rice; New York: Whittaker.
Farrer, Lord. Studies in Currency. 1898. Macmillan. $4.
Goodrich, A. L. Topics on Greek History. For Use in Secondary Schools. Macmillan. 60c.
Graffigny, H. de. Industrial Electricity. London: Whittaker; New York: Macmillan. 75c.
Haddon, A. C. The Study of Man. London: Bliss, Sands & Co.; New York: Putnams. $2.
Harris, Mary D. Life in an Old English Town. [Social England Series.] London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Jacobs, Prof. H. E. Martin Luther. [Heroes of the Reformation.] Putnams. $1.50.
Julien, F. Un Peu de Tout. Oral and Conversational Method. W. R. Jenkins. 75c.
Kaufman, Emma, and O'Hagan, Anne. Cuba at a Glance. R. H. Russell.
Luzac's Oriental List. Vol. VIII. London: Luzac & Co.
Meekins, L. R. Some of Our People. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins Co. $1.
Montagu, Rear-Admiral V. A. A Middy's Recollections, 1853-1860. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Murray, D. A. An Elementary Course in the Integral Calculus. American Book Co. $2.
Noble, Prof. Charles. Studies in American Literature. Macmillan. $1.
Oman, Charles. A History of the Art of War. The Middle Ages. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Putnams. $4.
Pemberton, Max. Kronstadt: A Novel. Appletons. $1.50.
Pennington, Jeanne G. "Don't Worry" Nuggets. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Plummer, Mary W. Hints to Small Libraries. 2d ed. Truslove & Comba.
Rasius, C. E. Rechte und Pflichten der Kritik. Leipzig: Wilhelm Engelmann.
Rice, Emily J. Course of Study in History and Literature. Chicago: A. Flanagan. 75c.
Rice, Wallace, and Eastman, Barrett. Under the Stars, and Other Songs of the Sea. Chicago: Way & Williams.
Riley, J. W. Green Fields and Running Brooks. [Homestead Edition.] Scribners.
Sanderson, J. G. Cornell Stories. Scribners. $1.
Scidmore, Eliza R. Guide-Book to Alaska and the Northwest Coast. New edition, with a Chapter on the Klondike. Appletons.
Sorel, Albert. The Eastern Question in the Eighteenth Century. London: Methuen & Co.
Stories by Foreign Authors. German. Spanish. Scribners. Each 75c.
The Mason School Music Course. Book One. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Tout, Prof. T. F. The Empire and the Papacy. 918-1273. Period II. Macmillan.
Trumbull, Annie E. A Cape Cod Week. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Van Dyke, J. C. Nature for its Own Sake. Scribners. $1.50.
Vivaria, Kassandra. Via Lucis. A Novel. G. H. Richmond & Son. $1.50.
Walthew, G. W. The Philosophy of Government. Putnams. $1.25.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 23, 1898.

The Week.

Under ordinary circumstances the fact that the committee on banking had reported a bill reforming the currency would excite universal interest; but more dramatic events now absorb popular attention. Nevertheless since 140 members of the House of Representatives have recorded themselves in advance in favor of the action of the committee, we can feel that a positive step towards reform has been taken. The bill reported is not an ideal measure, but it has the cardinal virtue of providing for the elimination of the notes of the Government from circulation. The place of this paper money will be taken by gold and silver coin, which will be legal tender, and banknotes, which will not. The bill has been carefully framed so as to prevent any contraction of the currency. The expansion of the bank issues balances the withdrawal of Government paper, and as this paper disappears the stock of gold held by the banks must increase. This throws a considerable burden on the banks; but if they assume it, which they will be strongly moved to do, the burden is removed from the Government. Under normal conditions we might have anticipated that a measure of this kind would in a few years put an end to our currency troubles, but the cost of the war may be so great as to disarrange all calculations. As it is, the need of such a measure is the more urgent, for it will be a great safeguard against the inflation measures which are sure to be proposed. The power to issue short-time notes just conferred on the Treasury is a gain worth almost as much as the cost of the war hitherto, and if McCleary's bill becomes law the credit of the Government will be put on a firm foundation.

The bankruptcy bill has been so long before Congress that, like the French spoliation claims or the Bering Sea awards, the public has forgotten the points at issue. Not to mince matters, we may say that the quarrel has really been between the representatives of the "debtor class" and those of the "money-power." The States have no power to absolve any man from the payment of debts due to non-residents. They may, unless prevented by the action of Congress, arrange for the distribution of a debtor's assets among his creditors; but after that is done the debtor remains liable for any deficiency, and property acquired by him thereafter belongs to his creditors until they are paid. By the Constitution, Congress is empowered to enact bankruptcy laws which actually cancel all debts. On surrendering his property the debtor is discharged from all his liabilities, and whatever property comes into his possession thereafter is free from the claims of his creditors. It is evident that a law of this kind may be grossly abused, and there were many scandalous cases under the old law. Having obtained their discharge as bankrupts, men frequently started in business afresh with capital which they had fraudulently withheld from their creditors, while the creditors were impoverished and ruined. Conservative business men in Congress therefore insisted that debtors should not be granted their discharge in bankruptcy on their own application if they had been guilty of any fraud or had preferred any creditors; while the friends of the debtor class struggled to prevent creditors from having their debtors thrown into bankruptcy. The conferees of the two houses of Congress finally agreed on a definition of insolvency which enabled them to adjust their other differences. At common law a man is insolvent when he cannot pay his debts at the time when he promised to pay them, but by this statute insolvency results only when the debtor's property is ascertained to be less than his liabilities.

From the summaries given by the press of the provisions in the new revenue bill for the taxation of legacies and successions, and, indeed, from the wording of these provisions, it might be supposed that property passing from husband to wife or from wife to husband was exempt. The discussion in the Senate, however, made it clear that the transfer must be direct in order to claim exemption. A bequest in trust for a wife or a husband would be taxable, and apparently at the highest rates, from 5 to 15 per cent., according to the size of the estate. It should be understood, also, that the amount of the legacy is immaterial. A legacy of $100 is taxed, provided the personal estate from which it comes exceeds $10,000. Nor should it be forgotten that, under the decisions of the courts of New York, the personal property of a non-resident found within this State after his death is taxable here, even if it is taxed by the State in which he was domiciled, so that in such cases three inheritance taxes would be collected from the same estate. According to the reasoning of the courts, it would seem that Government bonds are not exempt from this tax when imposed by the States, and the act does not appear to exempt them from taxation by the general Government. This results from the doctrine that a tax of this kind is not a tax upon property, but on the right to acquire property from a deceased person —a right which is declared to be not a natural right, but one conferred by Government, and subject, therefore, to its regulation. On this ground Senator Spooner expressed very grave doubts as to the power of the general Government to impose the tax, since the right of inheritance is conferred not by it, but by the State governments. The character of the discussion in the Senate was not such as to throw much light on this point, the only argument advanced in support of the tax being that as rich men did not pay taxes on their personal property while they lived, some one else ought to when they died. Legacies to religious or charitable corporations are, as a correspondent well shows on another page, subject to taxation at the highest rate.

A very surprising feature of the new revenue bill is the doubling of the tax on beer. Scarcely anybody expected that Congress would ever adopt so simple, practicable, and just a way of raising over $30,000,000 additional a year as was afforded by making the tax on malt liquors $2 a barrel instead of $1. The reason for this general incredulity was the fact that the brewers have always had such a tremendous "pull" at the national capital that neither party seemed to dare to oppose their demands. Apparently, the brewers were as much surprised as anybody else at this display of courage on the part of Senators and Representatives. The thirteenth annual convention of the United States Brewers' Association opened at Atlantic City last week, and the report of the publication committee contained the significant recommendation that "it is about time to reëstablish systematically and maintain the personal relations which have in former years existed between the brewers and their representatives in Congress, and to see to it that an industry now paying $34,000,000, and soon to pay $68,000,000 into the Federal Treasury, be not left to the mercy, the caprice, the whim or notion of irresponsible servants of the people."

It appears, from the statistics presented at this convention, that the brewing industry has not been so prosperous as usual of late. The President reported that "depression of trade was very marked for the year ending June 30, 1897, showing itself in a decrease of the consumption of malt liquors." The total output for all the breweries of the country during that year was 34,423,094 barrels, which the Prohibitionists will hardly regard as a small total, but it was 1,402,999 barrels short of the production

for the previous twelve months, and that, too, in spite of an average reduction in price of $1 per barrel during the latter period. The extra tax of $1 per barrel is to be added to the existing selling price, and this policy was commended by the President as a wise measure of resistance to the tendency towards making cheap and consequently inferior beer, which tendency, if continued, "would be the strongest argument that prohibition agitators could use against the use of beers." The brewers have outgrown the old "home market" theory, and pride themselves upon the fact that "American beers have won favor in many foreign lands, and perhaps the best proof of the preference given to our product lies in the fact that in countries where brewing is just being introduced, as in Japan, for instance, the American system is invariably adopted." In order to improve their opportunities abroad, they will seek a refund of the $2 tax on every barrel exported, as well as of the duties paid on all imported materials, including bottles, corks, and tinfoil; but, "owing to the many important matters which claim the attention of the Federal Congress, an appeal to the lawmaking power does not appear advisable at the present time."

Is it desirable to initiate a policy of annexing distant islands by "flagrant executive usurpation"? It would be well to have some pretty distinct expressions of opinion on that question, even if it consumes much time. We are supposed to be committed to the "Monroe Doctrine," according to which European Powers are not to meddle with American affairs, nor we with those of another hemisphere. Is it not true, as Senator Morrill said on Monday, that

> "the formal annexation of Hawaii, under a one-man power, under a republic in name, or whatever form of governmental experiment we may choose or be compelled to prescribe, will advertise the final wreckage of the 'Monroe Doctrine,' so long held dear by the American people. We cannot afford to denounce and forbid all acquisitions of territory in the western hemisphere by European governments, even at the peril of war, and forthwith embark in this enterprise ourselves. If we would have our yet unstained doctrine respected by others, we must scrupulously practise what we preach."

It is no reply to these grave words to say that "we scorn to consider the consequences of annexation."

There is evidence that somebody is taking great pains to see that no Republican platform this year shall lack one plank. The Illinois convention of the party had no views to express upon the question of annexing Hawaii, and the Kansas convention was silent regarding the wisdom of retaining any Spanish territory which may come into our possession, as the Pennsylvania convention had been a little earlier. But all three conventions had something to say on the subject of the Nicaragua Canal, and there is a significant resemblance between the different resolutions. Quay's convention declared that "the present war has demonstrated beyond question the imperative necessity of this canal for purposes of national defence, and for the development of our foreign and domestic commerce, and we call on Congress to push this work as speedily as possible." The Illinois Republicans resolved that "we are in favor of the early construction of the Nicaragua Canal, and its control by the United States Government, as the present war has demonstrated its great necessity." The Kansas convention put it in this way: "We believe that the necessities of war have supplemented the arguments of peace, and that the Nicaragua Canal should be built as speedily as possible." How did it happen that platform-makers in three States, who do not seem to have been especially alert regarding other issues which engage the public thought, should have been so much impressed with the importance of the Nicaragua Canal? Could the Hon. Warner Miller throw any light upon this interesting phenomenon?

A second Governor in the South is going to appoint negro officers to command negro troops. The first was the executive of North Carolina, and his action was not surprising, because he owed his election largely to the negro vote, having been chosen as the result of a fusion between the Republicans and Populists. But Gov. Tyler of Virginia is a Southern Democrat of the straitest sect, and it is a notable event when such a man gives commissions to black men. Two battalions of colored troops in Virginia, having been recruited up to the required numbers, will be turned over to the United States Government as at present organized. Gov. Tyler holds that the colored companies, being organized under the same laws as the white companies, and their officers having passed all examinations creditably, are entitled to the same privilege accorded to the white companies—that of having officers of their own selection. The Richmond *Dispatch* says that, after earnest thought over the question, Gov. Tyler "is thoroughly convinced that to pursue any other course than the one he has marked out for himself would be a violation of his oath of office, wherein he is pledged to make no discrimination on account of race or color." The *Dispatch* dissents from the view that this course is required by either sound public policy or the laws of the land, but it readily accords to the Governor sincerity of motive and conscientious desire to do his duty as he understands it, and adds that "this is a case where no one can suspect him of bending his opinion to gain popularity." Now that this question is settled, the Richmond editor expresses the hope that the President "will see to it, as he has said that he would, that the negro troops are kept separate and apart from the white troops as much as possible."

The violent fluctuations in the price of wheat caused by Mr. Leiter's speculations did not occasion similar variations in the retail price of flour, and probably affected the price of bread even less. Bakers and dealers in flour expected the excessive price of wheat to be temporary, and in most cases found it unnecessary to raise their prices to anything like a corresponding extent. Probably the mass of the people in this country who obtain their bread from bakers were unaware that they were paying more for it. This is, principally owing to the fact that bread is here sold at a certain price per loaf, the weight of the loaf not being precisely determined. In England the weight of the loaf remains unchanged, while the price varies. It would perhaps be repugnant to our prejudices to buy bread by weight, since lightness is itself a desideratum; but the English custom has its advantages for statistical purposes. From a recent report of the dealings of 74 of the most important coöperative societies, it seems that between April 5 and May 10 of this year the average price of the quartern loaf rose from 5.81 to 6.70 pence. In 1893 the price was 4.79, and it fell in 1896 about a half-penny. In September, 1897, it had risen nearly 1½ pence, and since then has gone up a penny more. The returns are surprisingly uniform in the different parts of the country, and follow the variations in what may be called the normal price of wheat rather than its fluctuations in speculative markets. Probably the weight of our bakers' loaves, which have not varied in price, would show corresponding fluctuations if we could register them.

Judge Garretson's decision in the case of the Brooklyn Bridge Commissioners who were removed from office by Mayor Van Wyck, while not final, is likely to be a great shock to the learned Whalen, who told the Mayor that he had the power to remove the Commissioners and put good Tammany men in their places, whereupon the Mayor, whose faith in Whalen is beautiful to look upon, tipped them out without ceremony, and appointed as their successors some Tammanyites who took possession of the places, also without ceremony. Now Judge Garretson decides that the Mayor had not the power to do this, that consequently the Commissioners have not been removed, and that consequently the Tammanyites have no claim upon the places, and cannot either exercise the duties of Commissioners or draw salaries as such. This will prevent the Comp-

troller from paying them salaries, for he must do so at his personal risk. The question will be carried to the Appellate Division, and thence to the Court of Appeals for final decision, and in the meantime the work of the Commission will be at a standstill. There is an expenditure of $7,000,000 involved, and, pending final decision, Tammany fingers must be kept out of this. In case the Court of Appeals sustains Judge Garretson, the Aqueduct Commissioners and the Shore-Road Commissioners, whom the Mayor removed also on Whalen's "opinion," will be reinstated. It is a distinct flaw in the powers of Whalen that he is not actually what he claims to be and what the Mayor thinks he is—a court of last resort. So long as he can be overruled by the courts, his "place" affords a very contracted field for his talents.

Spain's plight in the Philippines is a sufficient commentary on the nature of her rule there. At the very moment when she is pressed by a foreign foe, her subjects rise against her, her native troops revolt and shoot their Spanish officers, and the whole Spanish power in the islands crumbles before a single American soldier arrives. What frightful misrule and mismanagement all this argues. England has no braver or more loyal soldiers than her Sikhs and Ghurkas and Sudanese. She has known how to consolidate her colonial power through conciliating and educating the natives, while Spain is but reaping in rebellion and massacre what she has sown in neglect and oppression. Our own Philippine problem is in some respects greatly simplified, in others made much more awkward, by the successes of the insurgents. Military occupation of Manila will apparently be easy enough, if, indeed, the city do not surrender before our troops appear. But what are we going to do about the natives? What are we going to say to the independent republic which Aguinaldo may have all set up by the time Gen. Merritt gets there? Shall we not be bound to recognize it as the free choice of the people, and order our soldiers to salute it with one rousing volley and then sail for home? Our unselfish zeal for republican institutions is evidently taken in sublime good faith by Aguinaldo. He has sent special invitations to the Americans to be present when his declaration of independence is read. After the insurgents have driven out the Spaniards, will they have to turn their guns against American tyrants?

The Paris *Temps*, which certainly has title to speak as a friend of Spain, inflicts upon her faithful wounds in its issue of June 11. After reviewing the course of events since war was declared, showing how Cervera's admired tactics have ended by putting his squadron out of the account as truly as if it had been sunk, and how the military situation of Spain grows worse from day to day, it tells the Spanish Government that it must abandon its preposterous illusions about "the fatal issue of this unequal combat." It is time, says the *Temps*, for Spain to face realities, grievous though they be. "It is time for some one to have the courage to utter the necessary word and to say that peace must be made, and that the longer it is deferred the more cruel will be the sacrifices required." Such a counsel of despair, echoed as it is in so many parts of Europe, even in those most friendly to Spain, must have a tendency to hasten the awakening of the Spanish Government and people to the inevitable.

According to the London *Statist* the returns of the Bank of Spain, beginning with April 2, have been as follows (in millions):

	Gold.	Silver.	Total reserve.	Circulation.	Excess over ⅓ of notes.
April 2...	240,778	267,865	508,643	1,276,862	83,022
May 7...	245,838	146,513	392,351	1,307,308	*43,418
May 21..	245,838	115,122	360,960	1,309,881	*75,667
May 28..	245,838	108,344	354,182	1,305,167	*80,874

*Deficit.

It will be observed that since May 7 the amount of gold has remained a fixed sum, 245,838,000 pesetas (about $49,000,000). The silver reserve has fallen since April 2 from 267,865,000 to 108,344,000—a decline of over 159,000,000 pesetas. This means that the holders of the notes have been presenting them and drawing silver, lest the Bank should suspend cash payments altogether. Notwithstanding this fact, the Bank's circulation has increased by 28,000,000 pesetas, and its legal reserve now shows a deficit of 80,874,000 pesetas. The 28,000,000 of increased circulation, plus the amount presented by the public for redemption in silver, making a total of 187,000,000 pesetas ($37,400,000), has probably been advanced to the Government on the security of the new national bonds. The fact that the gold in the Bank was a fixed quantity during the whole month of May suggests that it may not have been in the Bank's vaults at all, but may have been in the vaults of some foreign bank or banks for the purpose of meeting the coupons of the Spanish fours held abroad, one of which falls due on the 1st of July. If so, that fact will appear in the first statement of the Bank after the end of the present month.

From the results of the German elections thus far, the Emperor will derive little satisfaction. The Socialist vote has increased, so that it is now reported as above 2,000,000, and the chances are that the Socialist strength of 44 seats in the last Reichstag will be considerably increased in the new one. The Centrists, or Clerical party, have also gained in votes and in representation, but that will give neither pleasure nor strength to the Government. The Clerical position was defiantly stated by the Clerical leader Dr. Lieber, in an election speech. He said:

> "We are often called the Government party. We are not the Government party, but we have become the governing party. This was due to our own abilities, to the unskilfulness of our opponents, and to a decisive change in the views of the Imperial Government, which determined to carry on the affairs of the country with the aid of any political party which from time to time might suit its purpose."

With a haughty party like that controlling more than one-third of the Reichstag, and with the Social-Democrats gaining strength at every election, it is no wonder that Emperor William is disgusted with universal suffrage, and is reported to be reviving a plan to restrict it.

It is pleasant to hear of reform in China, and if the term has not precisely the same meaning as with us, we should not be surprised, for China is unlike the rest of the world. The nucleus of the new movement is said to be "a formidable organization of progressive Chinese"; the movement itself is partly progressive and partly retrogressive. The progressive part looks to the introduction into China of patriotism, which is admitted, "in view of the fact that our territory is daily sliced away," to be much needed. For this purpose patriotic clubs are forming everywhere, at which the literati make addresses on texts "relating to the preservation of the state, the religion, the people, and the race." The organization is said to be "copied bodily from the method of the missionaries in spreading Christianity," but this statement refers to the machinery of its propaganda, not to the doctrine preached, which is in substance a demand for "freedom for the persecution of foreigners"; it being felt by the more thoughtful Chinese that, without this liberty, patriotism to the Mongolian masses is not likely to be altogether intelligible. The dual character of the movement, however, creates a difficulty with the official class, who are in favor of patriotism, but cannot encourage the persecution of foreigners by the reformers without getting into very serious trouble with the "slicing" Powers. Accordingly, the Governor of Hunan, in reply to a patriotic demonstration from the literati, has been obliged to announce that he cannot countenance riots "bringing on the seizure of Chinese territory," and that if the candidates for examinations persist in rioting, he will bring them back to a sense of "scholarly decorum and civilized conduct" by petitioning the throne for leave to "close the examination halls." This in China is a terrible threat, and consequently there is some doubt as to the result; if the advanced Chinese have their way and succeed in establishing patriotism in China, they will, as the hustler said of culture in Chicago, "make the old thing hum."

WAR PROSPECTS.

Secretary Long is reported to have said on Sunday that the present week would probably be the most important of the war. This does not necessarily mean that the Administration expects to hear of the fall of Santiago this week, or that Admiral Cervera's ships will be captured or destroyed before next Sunday. But our troops will have been landed, their plan of operation made plain, the situation at Santiago clearly developed, and the steady closing in of our superior force upon the doomed city will have begun by land and sea. It seems reasonable to hope, therefore, that, though Santiago may not be taken and Cervera beaten in six days' time, both those results will be demonstrably within our reach.

Both those results are, in fact, already regarded by European military authorities as foregone. Even the Spanish Minister of Marine, if we may credit a guarded remark of his, considers Cervera's position hopeless. But there seems to be a certain perversity or obtuseness in the view of the London *Times*, cabled on Monday, that "no direct military object will be gained by the capture of Santiago." What it means is, no doubt, that Santiago is an isolated position, and that it might fall without seriously affecting the Spanish military strength in Cuba. But, on the other hand, it is precisely this fact which constitutes the importance of the Santiago expedition. Granting that our army is not yet ready to move in force against Blanco, what greater piece of luck could there have been for us than to have a body of 10,000 or 15,000 Spanish troops cut off from communications or reinforcements in Santiago, and a trapped squadron in the harbor? It was one of the happy accidents of war, of which skilled commanders know how to take advantage, and our war board saw and seized the opportunity with commendable promptness. Spain may still assert that it is naught, but if 15,000 of her soldiers are put out of the reckoning, if her flag is swept from West Indian waters, and is left unable ever to return thither, how can it fail to be anything but a great disaster to her, or to prove to us a "direct military object" of the highest importance?

As we are fighting not for the sake of slaughter, but to secure peace as speedily as possible, every hint or sign of Spain's being willing to make terms must be regarded as having a direct bearing on the war. Quite the most significant of such signs is the manifesto of the Barcelona merchants, reproduced in the Madrid press. This set forth the certain ruin which the war was bringing upon Spain, and appealed to the Government to agree to "amputation" (that is, surrender of Cuba) in order to save the patient's life. Now Barcelona and Catalonia in general have been the stoutest defenders of the policy of retaining Cuba at all hazards. They have, perhaps, a greater direct interest than any other section of Spain. Catalonia is a hive of industry, and her manufacturers have made fortunes out of the Cuban trade. Even the three years' war to retain the island has not seriously impaired their prosperity, as supplies and equipment for the army have kept the factories going. But now the Barcelona merchants see the inevitable end of all, and cry out for the Government to save what may yet be saved out of the wreck.

Another influence apart from direct fighting which makes for peace is the final disappearance of the illusion that Spain has anything to hope from foreign intervention. This illusion she has hugged from the beginning, and latterly has seen all sorts of bubble hopes floating before her eyes in the shape of German interference with our projects in the Philippines. But the last of these has now burst, and again the Spanish press is bitterly remarking that it is evident Spain must depend upon her own resources. That the Spanish Government should ever have hoped for any other issue of her diplomatic negotiations is only another proof of the fatal inability of Spain's public men to get into touch with the practical forces that control the world. Fine sentiment and flowers of rhetoric do not make international alliances. From the first it has been clear that no nation on earth would willingly meddle in our quarrel with Spain, and her rhetorical and visionary diplomats have found out, through painful disappointments, what they should have known from the beginning.

Any other nation, in Spain's place, would sue for peace. But Spain is unlike any other nation. Any other nation would not have gone to war as she did. Her Government as well as her people seem to be actuated by motives quite unaccountable to ordinary rulers and mortals. Napier, in his history of the Peninsular War, recounts the vexations of Wellington in contact with the peculiarities of his Spanish allies. Of one Spanish general he says that his action, on one occasion, would have been treason in a man of another race, but in a Spaniard it was only a vagary of the kind to be expected. Here is the difficulty in all reasoning about Spain's being bound to ask for peace before long. Those who know Spaniards best are the slowest to predict what they will do, in any given circumstances, except that it will be something whimsical and absurd. Thus, while justified in hoping that the financial and military and political embarrassments of Spain, all thickening upon her, may lead her to surrender without fighting to the bitter end, our Government will not be justified in omitting any preparation or effort that would be necessary if it were certain that Spain would fight to the bitter end.

A "DARK SUPERSTITION."

Hawaiian annexation, for which the House voted so strongly on Wednesday week, is now admitted by both its friends and foes to be but a letting out of the waters. If we take Hawaii, we take the Philippines. Once hoisted over those, our flag is then to fly over the Caroline Islands, and, of course, the very name of the Ladrones (*robber* islands) will impel us to take them next. That may content us for a time as far as the Pacific is concerned, but in the Atlantic, as Mr. Dolliver frankly avowed in the debate, we are to seize and keep Porto Rico and Cuba, and it will be strange indeed if that badly governed and inviting island lying between the two, San Domingo and Hayti, does not follow them under our flag, as a writer in the *Contemporary* asserts that it will. Such, then, are the present modest limits of what is variously called the "imperial policy," "commercial expansion," and "colonial aggrandizement."

This momentous change of policy we are urged to enter upon largely by arguments drawn from the experience of England. Great Britain has colonies, is an empire, is rich and powerful; ergo, if we would be rich and powerful, we, too, must have colonial possessions. There are many ways of replying to this reasoning. Perhaps as good a way as any is to cite what Englishmen themselves have said of the colonies as the source of England's power. A private letter of Disraeli's has lately come to light in which he spoke of the colonies as a millstone about England's neck. Lord Salisbury only a few weeks ago warned the Lords that the strength of England was already dangerously taxed by her foreign dependencies. Mr. Chenery, long editor of the London *Times*, declared of the colonies: "They are not feeders, but suckers." So much for Conservatives—the Imperialists of Imperialists. What John Bright thought of the colonies, and particularly of "imperial federation," may be put in a phrase of his own. He said in 1884 that the ideas then afloat on the subject were "equally visionary and valueless." But the great Liberal statesman remains to be quoted. Mr. Gladstone said in 1894, as reported by the Hon. Lionel Tollemache:

> "I have always maintained that we are bound by ties of honor and conscience to our colonies. But the idea that the colonies add to the strength of the mother country, appears to me to be as *dark a superstition* as any that existed in the Middle Ages."

A superstition may be defined as a belief based on no evidence, or in the face of evidence to the contrary. Such, we submit, is the belief of which profession is made by our annexing Congressmen. All their arguments, so far as they are

not mere delirious shouting, come down to this: We must take Hawaii and all the other islands on which we can lay our hands in peace or in war, for the sake of increasing our trade and increasing our power. That annexation will do both, the gentlemen advocating it assert. Like one of Mr. Cable's impetuous Creoles, they swear it, they are sure of it—in fact, they think so. But even if 209 members of the House believe a thing, it is not necessarily so; and if they believe it without reason, in the teeth of reason, they are the victims of as dark a superstition as any they mean to annex along with Mauna Loa.

It is rather a weariful business to go over the facts about England's colonial trade. But take a single instance which may win attention: British merchants control the trade of the Philippines. They have won this with the islands under Spanish sovereignty. It would thus appear that England can increase her trade with other countries' colonies. She does not need to own or govern an island in order to trade with it. And is she in the slightest degree anxious about the possibility of the United States taking away the Philippines from Spain? Emperor William is reported to be concerned about the peril to German interests in Manila, but nobody hears of Great Britain lifting a finger. She knows that her merchants will keep the Philippine trade as they got it, no matter who owns the islands, by attending strictly to business and having goods to sell which the natives want. Any merchant of any nationality can do this in any of her colonies, and that is all she asks—a fair field and no favor. As for our sudden discovery that we need colonies in order to get foreign trade, it is a little late. We have already got the trade. Without a single island to our name, our exports, even of manufactured goods, have been increasing enormously from year to year. At the very moment that the Secretary of State congratulates Congress on our having the markets of the world at our mercy, Congress is arguing away for dear life that we must have colonies or we shall never sell a dollar's worth abroad. That is superstition, but it is not dark; it is so transparent that even a Voodoo could see through it.

The argument from resulting military strength is equally baseless. Capt. Mahan has written that it would be a "deplorable mistake" to suppose that the annexation of Hawaii would add to our power unless we increased the navy. We believe, however, that he has since said he does not wish these words of his to be cited against annexation, and that he regrets having left them lying around unguarded. Still, he makes no concealment of his belief that the navy must be enormously enlarged if we are to get the strategic benefit of off-lying islands. But it needs no book or theorist or authority to show how the thing works. Spain is giving the world a complete illustration of the rôle of colonies in war. What have her keys of the Pacific and her naval bases in the Atlantic done for her? They have been the exclusive theatre of war. The Peninsula is safe, Spanish cities and coasts have so far been as unmolested as our own; it is in her colonies that Spain has suffered blow after blow until she is reeling on the verge of ruin.

There is a cant of patriotism, a cant of military and naval theory of the pompous order, in a great deal of the talk of annexation, from which we must free our minds. Common sense about colonies, said John Bright, is "worth far more than feeble sentiment." But as Lord Russell once said of a public man who had changed his opinions rather suddenly, there is something worse than the cant of patriotism, and that is the *recant* of patriotism. That is the great peril to which we are exposed in going forward in the path of conquest—the peril that we shall have to eat all our fine words in favor of freedom and self-government. "The American people," cried Mr. Dolliver, "will take care of the Philippine Islands, of Porto Rico, and of Cuba, and these people will find in us sympathy and anxiety for their welfare." There is the great recantation of American patriotism. In lieu of self-governing communities of free people, we are to extend government over 10,000,000 of those whom we must "take care of," and their views and wishes we do not for a moment propose to consult. And we are to do it with a silly trust in our own luck, with a cool waving away of consequences, and with a reckless disregard of experience which, together make up, as Mr. Gladstone said, as dark a superstition as any that existed in the Middle Ages.

THE NEXT CENSUS.

The bill passed by the Senate providing for the next census, as we have pointed out, practically forbids the appointment of clerks and other subordinate officers through the civil-service rules. It is a "non-partisan" bill, which, of course, means that partisan considerations, and not proved competency, shall govern the selection of enumerators. The plan of "pass" examinations within the bureau has been already tested, and has proved, as it was meant to prove, utterly useless in obtaining competent service, and entirely "practical" in enabling politicians to get places for their nominees. If the coming census is to be managed on this system as the last one was, its results will be equally worthless, and the waste of the public money will be even more shameful. At a time when the resources of the country are already strained, and when no one ventures to set a limit to the cost of the war, it would seem that there should be enough members of the House of Representatives animated by genuine patriotism to effect the amendment of this bill.

Mr. Carroll Wright, who is as familiar as any one in the country with statistical work, and who succeeded Mr. Porter as superintendent of the last census, has estimated that $2,000,000 and more than a year's time would have been saved if the census force had been brought into the classified service. He added: "I do not hesitate to say that one-third of the amount expended under my own administration was absolutely wasted, and wasted principally on account of the fact that the office was not under civil-service rules."

Even Mr. Porter, who advised President Harrison to have appointments made without competitive examinations, was sickened at the results of the policy which he had recommended. He now states that the work of examining and appointing nearly 3,000 clerks literally took up all his time. "Why," he guilelessly asks, "transform the Census Office at its busiest season into an examination department for clerks, and the director of a vast scientific investigation into a dispenser of political patronage? It is simply unjust to such an official. Having passed through the ordeal once, I am satisfied that the other way is more practical and in the end will be better for all concerned."

The severity of this ordeal has been disclosed by the researches of the National Civil-Service Reform League, whose chairman has examined some of Superintendent Porter's books of account. That functionary kept what has been called a "live-stock register," in which accounts were kept with individual Congressmen, debiting them with their respective appointees; the expense of keeping these books being, of course, a public charge. One of these books is a ledger of 400 pages. At the head of every page is the name of the Congressman obtaining the appointments, the names, grades, and salaries of the appointees following. When Congressmen lost their places, their accounts were closed, and their appointees held their places by a precarious tenure. Of course there were honest Congressmen who did not participate in this degrading business; but the effect of their abstention could only be to increase the patronage of the unscrupulous. Yet the most severe defeat ever sustained by the party in power occurred at the close of the year when this distribution of the spoils took place.

The character of these political appointees was not high. Washington contains thousands of people who have been turned out of office frequently for scandalous immorality. It would not be going too far to say that many such people got places in the Census Bureau because of moral delinquencies. Under the competitive system it is, at all events, impossible for applicants to get office by

reason of such qualifications. The results of this system are well known to every one who has made a critical examination of the census report. As Mr. Wells remarked, the falsifications of fact which it contained not only destroyed its value as a record of existing conditions, but, by introducing an untrustworthy term in the series, rendered it impossible to make scientific comparisons between preceding censuses and those which are to follow. Even the mere enumeration of inhabitants was vitiated by this corrupting influence. Supervisors were chosen because recommended by politicians, and they, in turn, chose enumerators on the same principle. Their information, in violation of law, was communicated to party managers. In New York city that eminent statistician Mr. Charles H. Murray was made supervisor, and at once issued a circular calling on the district Republican organizations to submit the names of those whom they desired to be appointed as enumerators. As Gen. Walker said, if appointments were made on such a basis as that, "the census could not have been otherwise than bad." It was bad. A recount by the police of New York showed a population 200,000 greater than that reported by the federal officers, but no recount was allowed by the Government. The chairman of the Civil-Service Reform League inspected both reports and made a personal investigation, which proved that large numbers of names were omitted by the census officers, and similar errors were exposed in other parts of the country.

Since it is proved by experience that the distribution of this patronage does not help to keep Congressmen in office, that it interferes with the proper administration of the Census Bureau, and renders its returns untrustworthy and inaccurate, a strong appeal can be made by the friends of civil-service reform in the House of Representatives. The last census cost about $11,000,000, and by the time they were published many of its returns were obsolete. It would be better to have no census at all than to have a repetition of that of 1890; but at all events the cost ought to be reduced to the lowest possible figure.

A SCIENCE OF GOVERNMENT.

The proceedings which were in progress in this city for some days before Judge MacLean in the Supreme Court should be incorporated in a textbook for use in schools of political science. What is nominally going on is a suit for libel by Senator John Raines against the *Press*, but what is actually taking place is a more or less complete revelation of the system of government which Thomas C. Platt and his agents have been administering in this State for the last few years. In order to get a full comprehension of the value of the disclosures it is necessary to recall their original provocation.

In April, 1895, Lemuel Ely Quigg, a favorite and much-trusted agent of Mr. Platt, was the editor of the *Press*. The Legislature was then in session, with a Republican majority in both houses. Without warning, Quigg published in his newspaper a leading article in which he assailed with great violence the characters of the three most eminent Platt Senators, Raines, Robertson, and Coggeshall, and the most eminent Platt lobbyist, Louis F. Payn. He charged that the Senators were corrupt and mercenary, that a boodle fund of $45,000 had been raised for their benefit, they being men who had to be "taken care of," and that Payn was the agent who was in charge of the fund. Quigg spoke of the four men as "high and mighty boodlers, who ought to have stripes put on them and a good heavy ball of cast iron attached to their legs." It was only natural that such language as this by one Platt agent of his fellow-agents should attract much attention. If anybody could be called an expert on these men, Quigg was that man. He had carried on the Platt Government side by side with them for a considerable period, and was, if we may use the slang of the ball-field, "on to all their curves." They realized the seriousness of the situation by demanding a legislative inquiry, which was held under their own direction, and resulted in a verdict of not proven. Then Senator Raines sued the *Press* for $50,000 damages to his reputation, and the jury were unable to agree whether it was damaged at all.

The origin of the trouble among these operators of the Platt Government was a bill increasing the salaries of firemen. Quigg had had aspirations for the nomination for Mayor of New York city in 1894, and had besought the support of the firemen through an association which they have, telling them that if they would give him their votes he would see to it that their salaries were raised by the next Legislature. This gives us a valuable glimpse of what modern government is. It exists primarily as a basis for rewards in return for personal service. Quigg was trying to use his hold as a Platt agent upon the State Government to make the people of the State pay the cost of electing him to the mayoralty of New York city. He failed of a nomination, but he seems to have got himself under obligations to the firemen, for during the next ensuing session of the Legislature he advocated the passage of a bill increasing their salaries. To this bill Payn had an amendment added, which increased the salaries of the officers of the Fire Department as well as those of the men, and Quigg's charge was that Payn and the three Senators were "holding up" the bill until a boodle fund of $45,000 could be raised as the price of its passage. There has been little testimony adduced to show the existence of this fund, but it has been established and admitted by Payn that a year later he did receive two checks of $5,000 each in return for his services in the passage of another beneficiary firemen's bill—$5,000 while it was pending and $5,000 after its passage. The firemen spoke of this money as "dough," and of Payn's services as "handling things at Albany." This gives us another glimpse of modern government in operation for the personal benefit of its agents.

While the bill of 1895 was hanging in the Senate committee, awaiting the results of Payn's "handling," Mr. Platt, the head of the Government, was requested by Quigg to go to Payn and "call him off." Quigg testifies that he made this request because he knew that Mr. Platt possessed the necessary power. Payn testifies that Mr. Platt did "call him off," and that he came off at once by withdrawing the amendment. In order to call him off, Mr. Platt summoned him to No. 49 Broadway, the usual seat of our Government when he is in this city, and made his request. Payn also testifies that Quigg thanked him for coming off, but that he said to him: "You need not thank me, Mr. Quigg. I did not do it for you. I done it because Mr. Platt asked it as a personal favor to him." He testified also that Quigg at the same time requested him to come off on another bill, because he (Quigg) "had a great personal interest in the matter, as the people interested have contributed a large amount of money toward my election." It will be seen that here again Quigg was acting upon one of the basic principles of Platt Government—seeking to make the State pay his election expenses. (He had, through the aid of Mr. Platt, been sent to Congress.) But Payn refused this request, illustrating, in turn, another basic principle of the Platt Government, that nobody except the boss can "call off" an agent against the agent's will.

These are the main points which were brought out in the testimony in the case. They show that the agents in the Government have a thorough knowledge of one another, and make no concealment among themselves of the methods by which they carry on their work. They show also that the system is an absolute despotism, an agent being not only required but willing to "come off" and give up "dough" to any amount, whether it be $10,000 or $45,000, at the request of the boss. They show further that one agent need not yield to another unless the boss says that he must. Payn gave in his testimony one valuable instance in support of this principle which we have quoted, and another remains to be cited. He testified that in the convention in which Mr. Black was nominated for Governor, Quigg approached him (Payn) as the nomi-

nation was made, and, with pale face, said:

"Marshal Payn, may I speak to you a moment? I ask you now, in this hour of your great pride, to pardon me for the great wrong I did you when I was on the New York *Press* by that article. It has cost me many sleepless nights, and I have worried over it more than anything I ever did. I now, in this hour of your great triumph, ask your pardon.'

When we say that Payn declined to respond at all to this pathetic appeal, and that Quigg swears he never made it, we need add nothing to show how thoroughly independent of each other, under this despotic system of government, the subordinate agents are. One agent may say of another that he is a thief and a scoundrel who should be in a penitentiary, and may, when he discovers that this was a serious error in judgment because of the great power which the accused agent has subsequently attained in the Government, apologize and try to restore harmonious relations; but it will all be in vain unless the boss shall say that harmony must be restored. Why did not the boss say this in regard to the libel suit? Why did he let the most intimate and sacred things about his agents and his Government be thus laid before a harsh and unsympathetic public? There must be "dough" in it somewhere for somebody.

MANILA.

LONDON, June 7, 1898.

A city belonging to a by-gone age: such is the traveller's first impression of Manila on approaching the port across the wide, land-locked harbor bay. Mellowed by time to a rich, velvety russet and green are the tints of its bastioned and battlemented walls, surmounted by ancient bronze cannon and girt by a wide moat over which drawbridges, guarded by portcullised gateways, are thrown on its eastern, western, and southern sides. The northern walls are washed by the river Pasig, at the mouth of which, and on its left bank, the walled city is built. Mediæval, too, is the aspect within. The dwelling-houses present, on the ground floor, but porte-cochères and grated windows to the narrow, stony, and often grass-grown streets, and the verandahed upper floors are rigidly closed until sunset against the tropical heat and glare. Commercial and official activity are confined to a few of the main thoroughfares. The rest stretch, straight, silent, and gloomy, shadowed by great churches, austere nunneries, and the vast monasteries of the numerous friars established here for over three centuries. Occasionally, these silent streets are enlivened by a pompous procession with glittering images, waving banners, flaming tapers, brazen crosses, swinging censers, black-robed penitents, and a military band. And every evening, as the sunset hour approaches, a large portal here and there opens, and through it files forth a stream of friars, black, white, and brown—the Franciscans, not bareheaded as in the West, but wearing wide-brimmed, brown straw hats, which assort oddly with their hempen girdles and sandalled feet—who, passing through the western gate, take their silent daily stroll on the promenade between the walls and the shore of the bay.

In striking contrast to the silence and solemnity of the old walled city is the animation on the river at its feet, and in the streets of the great business suburb of Binondo opposite. The large ocean steamers and battle-ships are anchored out in the bay, but smaller vessels lie anchored three and four rows deep alongside the busy wharves, while the gondolas of this Venice of the far East, long, elegant *bancas*, with arched awnings of matting, dart about conveying European and native employees and Chinese touts to and from the shipping. Great rafts of cocoanuts from the fruitful shores of the Lake of Bai, in which the Pasig has its source, float down in mid-stream; heavy *cascos*, or native barges, laden with commodities for the interior, are being poled up stream by a couple of agile natives, who run backwards and forwards on a narrow platform constructed along the sides. Crossing the Puente de España, we find ourselves in the Escolta, a street lined with shops of French millinery, jewelry, and fancy goods; English emporiums; shops of German chemists—houses of call and gossip clubs for Europeans, where the sale of aerated waters far exceeds that of drugs—and of Chinese linen-drapers, where one may, in Pidgin-Spanish, bargain for every yard of goods with a bland, smiling, cork-screw-nailed Celestial. Vehicles of all kinds pass to and fro in a perpetual stream; and here, as in the other streets of this busy mercantile quarter, the sidewalks are thronged with pedestrians—market-women bearing wide, flat baskets of fruit and vegetables on their heads; Chinese coolies, and native grass-cutters, in scanty costume, running swiftly along, with their burdens slung at each end of a bamboo lath; dandified native *porteros* in white shirts and trousers, patent-leather boots, and white straw "sailor" hats, going leisurely on messages for their European employers; and smart *Guardias Civiles*, the native policemen, in white helmets, and blue-cotton uniforms faced with red and decorated with red cordings much betagged and belooped.

But even more interesting than the main thoroughfares of Binondo, with its various Eastern types and scenes, are the native and semi-native quarters, called respectively Tondo, Santa Cruz, San Miguel, San Sebastian, and, on the left bank of the river, Pace and St. Anna. Tondo, it may be here remarked, was the name borne by the city at the time of its settlement by a colony of Mohammedan Malays, dispossessed by the Spaniards. Here the roadways are lined with picturesque brown huts constructed of bamboo and the leaves of the nipa palm, raised on piles some five or six feet from the ground, with here and there a house of wood painted in gay stripes of green or blue and white, and raised on a stone foundation, their high-pitched roofs covered, like those of the *bahays*, or huts, with a thick thatch of nipa, impervious to the sun's rays. Each dwelling is detached, and almost invariably framed in clumps of feathery bamboo, giant-leaved plantain, or tall cocoa- or areca-nut palms. Here and there by the roadside are *tiendas* constructed of matting and bamboo, in which are exposed for sale (together with vegetables and fruit) cigars, cocoanuts, lengths of sugar-cane, green corn, rice-balls, *buyu* (leaf-enveloped betel-nuts prepared with lime for chewing), and other native delicacies, the stall-keeper squatting on her heels in a shady corner, complacently chewing this, to a Tagal who has once acquired the habit, necessity of existence. The women passing to and fro are clad in brightly striped or checked red and yellow cotton skirts, with a piece of dark blue stuff drawn, apron-wise, tightly round them and tucked in at the waist; a short white jacket of thin calico with bell-shaped sleeves, cut low at the neck; and a white kerchief folded corner-wise on the shoulders, and, out of doors, on the head; their long black hair hanging negligently down to their knees or even to their heels, and their small feet either bare or thrust into *chinelas*—colored slippers consisting merely of a sole and accommodation for three or four toes. Some are carrying home the family linen, washed in the nearest creek, in a flat basket poised on their heads; others carry on their hips brown babies to whose ready lips they frequently put the cheroot indulged in equally by Tagal women and men. For, in these green islands of the Eastern Seas, that "equality of the sexes" so ardently desired by a small section of the womanhood of the West would appear to be indigenous; and industries are also pretty equally divided between men and women. In some respects, indeed, native legislation, especially on the subjects of married women's property, is greatly to the disadvantage of the husband.

The suburbs on this side of the river are intersected with a perfect network of the tidal creeks to which Manila owes its perhaps too complimentary appellation above quoted; and to afford passage to the high Chinese-looking *cascos*, the bridges over these creeks are so highly arched that our ponies have to be whipped up for the run necessary to bring them to the top of the ascent. Descending on the other side, a charming scene meets the eye, for to-day is the festival of San Miguel, the patron saint of the parish of which the creek just crossed forms the boundary, and the inhabitants have made the usual preparations for doing honor to this important anniversary. Triumphal arches span the roadway at intervals, festoons of Chinese lanterns swing between the trees, and rows of tiny glass lamps, filled with cocoanut oil (*vasos de luz*) stand on all the window-ledges. The whole parish is astir with excitement, and every one is in gala dress. Brightly hued silk *sayas* and *camisas* of lace-trimmed cambric or *piña* gauze, with kerchiefs to match, set off the dusky charms of the native belles, into whose smoothly coiled black tresses, secured with gold-mounted pins and combs, the stiff little red dahlia, so beloved of Tagal women, is often coquettishly tucked. The men wear over their white cotton trousers a shirt-like blouse of brightly striped native gauze (*jusi*), of hempen cloth (*abaca*), or of white cambric, much embroidered, pleated, and frilled. On their heads are either the mushroom-shaped native *salacots* embellished round the edge with a pattern in silver, or common white straw hats; and under the left arm of the majority may be seen the almost inseparable companion of the Tagal, his favorite game-cock.

But here comes a group of strange figures robed in black, with great garlands of feathery leaves on their heads and tapers in their hands, wending their way churchwards to join the procession which will, after nightfall, emerge, with all the group of bejewelled images, stoled priests, uniformed

officialdom, and military bands, to make the tour of the parish, welcomed by the admiring multitude with a lavish expenditure of illumination and the discharge of innumerable rockets. For the Tagal is pious to a degree, as he understands piety; but, his ideas being essentially concrete, religion, for him, consists in the worship of its tangible symbols with which the churches of his country are so plentifully supplied, and in pilgrimages to its miracle-working shrines such as those of the "Virgin of Antipolo" (Nuestra Señora del Buen Viage y de la Paz) and the "Holy Child of Cebu."

As to the character of the Tagal natives generally, opinions differ widely. According to one of their priests, "they are big children, who must be treated as little ones," and a British consul has recorded his opinion that they "are eminently an estimable, pre-eminently an amiable race" (Palgrave, 'Ulysses.') Indolent they doubtless are, and could hardly but be under a tropical sun and on a soil so fertile that a small amount of labor suffices to procure the necessaries of life. Themselves possessing a considerable degree of physical courage, they admire bravery in others and willingly follow into danger an intrepid leader. Those, however, who have known and studied them longest find it most difficult to sketch their moral portrait, such contradictory characteristics do they present both individually and collectively. Under the eye of a firm and just master, the Tagal is the most tractable of beings and the most useful, being able to turn his hand to anything. He is essentially a fatalist, bears misfortune without emotion and disaster without complaint; is sober to a degree, holding drunkenness in horror and regarding anger as akin to madness. In his person and dwelling he is a pattern of cleanliness to Orientals generally; and among his own people he is social, genial, and hospitable, respectful to the elders of his family, generous to poor relatives, and kind to his children. Of his wife he is exceedingly jealous, though indifferent to her prenuptial indiscretions, and, as a consequence, careless of the honor of his daughters. His one unmistakable vice is gambling, which takes various forms, the one most ruinous to him being cock-fighting, a licensed sport throughout the Philippines.

The Spanish Government has always encouraged marriages between Europeans and native women, and three centuries of such intermarriages, together with those of Chinamen and native women, have produced a large proportion of half-breeds representing every degree of admixture, the Chinese mestizos alone being estimated at one-sixth of the domesticated native population. The Spanish mestizos, together with the Hijos del Pais ("Sons of the Country"), as the Creoles term themselves, constitute an influential body, the majority of whom are established as traders in Manila and the provinces. Owing to their European descent, more or less remote, these half-breeds and Creoles possess considerable business capacity, and many of them have been fairly well educated in the seminaries attached to the more important conventual establishments. Though classes are not very distinctly divided in this Eastern capital, the position of these half-breeds is naturally somewhat equivocal, and as a class they are continually struggling to place themselves on a level with the Peninsular Spaniards, who refuse to them their daughters in marriage. This equivocal position of the Creoles and Spanish mestizos has had its natural result on their character. They are, generally speaking, morose, captious, evasive, and vacillating, fond of intrigue, and ever ready to foster grievances against the Government. The natives, pure and simple, are incapable of organization on any considerable scale, and no revolt confined entirely to them would have any chance of success. But the combined discontent of natives, mestizos, and Creoles has, for some time past, proved itself able to give considerable embarrassment to an unpopular Government.

No stricter line exists between quarters than between races and classes; and in near neighborhood with native *bahays*, we find the almost palatial abodes of wealthy mestizos, Spaniards, and foreigners, surrounded by gardens filled with luxuriant tropical vegetation, many having a frontage to the river as well as to the wide tree-bordered highway. The exterior of these mansions presents a somewhat peculiar appearance, the whole of the upper story, which contains the dwelling-rooms, being enclosed with continuous windows, glazed—if the expression is permissible—with small panes made of oyster shells, ground down to the requisite thinness, which admit the light without the glare of the tropical sun. These *conchas*, as they are called, running in grooves on a thick beam some two feet from the floor, are, as the sunset hour approaches, drawn back and pushed into very small space, leaving the wide veranda they screen open to the soft evening breezes blowing off the river. From below, the ylang-ylang, dama de noche, and so-called jasmin, send up their mingled fragrance, the banana palms blunt their giant leaves against the *conchas;* while masses of the gorgeous double hybiscus, the yellow alamanda, and the delicately tendrilled passion-flower, with climbing plants innumerable, conceal the railings and dividing walls. Each dwelling has its bath-house and boat pier; and, looking up stream as far as the eye can reach, are, dotted here and there along the banks, low wooden cabins or nipa huts built on piles, their high-pitched roofs picturesquely grouped with areca and cocoanut palms and feathery bamboos. Some of these are *tiendas*, which serve as houses of call and restaurants for the numerous passengers on this great natural highway into the interior. Here boatmen and fishermen, squatting on their heels, or reclining under the shady pent-houses, rest during the noontide heats, in turn eating, drinking, smoking, gaming, and chattering. Small bamboo enclosures at the water's edge serve as duck-ponds, and here and there, on the pebbly river-reaches, women and children may, at low tide, be seen picking up shell-fish with their toes, which, from long practice, and also, probably, from heredity, they are able to use as deftly as fingers. Indeed, I never saw a Tagal, male or female, stoop down to pick up with the fingers any object that the toes could possibly grasp. Girls wade bare-legged into the stream to fill their globular earthen pots, or long narrow pitchers, made from a section of bamboo, with a handle of the same, balancing the former on the head, and bearing the latter on the shoulder as they walk with erect if not graceful gait along the raised field-paths to their homes. Great water-buffaloes, with wide-spreading horns, released from the plough or cart, come singly or in groups for their evening bath in the river, attended, if at all, by a small urchin, who, standing upright on the broad back of this familiar companion, guides him merely by a string attached to a split rattan passed through his nostrils. As the huge animal disappears under the water, according to his habits, his rider also plunges into the stream, being almost as amphibious. For Tagal children swim, as they smoke, before they are able to walk; and on Sunday mornings after mass whole families may be seen disporting themselves along the banks, swimming, diving, and splashing each other, with chatter and laughter indescribable.

Ascending the river, one lovely vista after another unfolds itself until we emerge into the wide fresh-water lake of Bai, girdled by a hundred miles or more of varied, ever fertile shore-line, with the lofty cloud-capped peaks of the giant Majajai beyond. With a little enterprise we may penetrate to the cane fields of the Laguna district, where, hid among the hills and coffee groves of Batangas, lies the deep blue, cliff-encircled lake of Taal, with its fairy-like volcano-islet from whose summit a pennon of smoke and fire ever rises and spreads. Across rushing rivers, by sounding waterfalls, till through the dark woods of Tayabas, and over the mid-chain of Luzon, with its giant tree ferns and flowering forest trees innumerable, we emerge on the shores of the boundless Pacific.

But to return again to Manila. After a siesta, tea, and a welcome bath, the sound of carriage wheels and ponies' hoofs on the stone-paved *saguan* below announces that the hour has come for the afternoon drive, and we are presently again crossing the Puente de España, on our way to the Calzada—the wide grass-bordered boulevard which encircles the old walled city on three sides, now crowded with vehicles all proceeding in the same direction. The day's work is just over in the great cigar factory outside the southern walls, and thousands of *cigareras*, women and girls, meet us as they wend their way homewards to the various suburbs. Some are smoking cheroots, others chewing betel, while with bare arms they recoil their luxuriant tresses. Quiet, clean, and orderly, this evening procession of the Manila variety of the genus "factory hand" forms, with its brightly hued and vividly contrasting coloring, one of the prettiest sights of the city. Presently our dusky but faithful Prudencio reins in his ponies on the grassy expanse at the mouth of the river, bounded by the mole, the sea, and the walls, where all the rank and fashion, native and foreign, of the city is gathered or gathering. The wheeled traffic of Manila is enormous, it being computed that as many as 6,000 vehicles pass through the Escolta on a feast day. Here are stylish landaus and victorias, filled with mantillaed Spanish beauties and bejewelled mestizas; the *jeunesse dorée* of the city in elegant *calesas* and *carromattas*, or hooded gigs, driven hansom-fashion from behind, containing two or three native belles in costumes more costly in their elaborate *piña* embroidery and jewelled accessories than those of the most stylish European ladies present.

Monuments are not numerous at Manila, and here stands one that must not be overlooked. It is a much-dilapidated brick erection, bearing a tablet which extols, for the benefit of the natives, the heroic and patriotic deeds of Don Simon de Anda y Salazar, who, according to the Spanish version of this historical event, expelled in 1763 the invading British, and thus covered himself with

inextinguishable glory! This version of the evacuation of the Philippines and Cuba by the British at the conclusion of the Seven Years' War in exchange for Canada, Florida, Louisiana, several West Indian islands, and the Mediterranean island of Minorca is repeated in all seriousness by a French author (Montano, 'Voyage aux Philippines,' p. 36).

But the sun is already sinking behind the great mountain-mass of Mariveles on the western side of the great bay, throwing its deep blue, serrated summit into clear relief against the gold and crimson clouds. Presently the sunset gun booms from the fortress, the Angelus chimes from the many church towers within, and every hat is reverently raised. The carriage lamps are now twinkling in hundreds; the Governor-General's chariot, with its four ponies and postilions, sets off at a trot; and the long procession is again in motion. Darker grow the skies, and the four brilliant stars which compose the wonderful "Southern Cross" hang above the horizon like glowing lamps. And, as we recross the bridge, from every craft on the broad river gleam lights from stem, stern, and masthead, mirrored and multiplied in the eddying current below.

CHUQUET'S YOUTH OF NAPOLEON.

PARIS, June 2, 1898.

M. Arthur Chuquet gives us a sequel to his first volume on the youth of Napoleon, which had for its subtitle "Brienne." The second has for subtitle "The Revolution" (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.). It deals with Napoleon's life during the first part of the French Revolution, and has been composed not only from documents in the National Archives and the Archives of the Ministry of War, but also from many printed documents. M. Chuquet has used chiefly the 'Napoléon Inconnu' of Frédéric Masson, which he speaks of as "that essential, capital work, which contains extracts from Napoleon's reading, his letters to Joseph in 1790, the entire text of the 'Lyons Discourse,' the authentic text of the 'Letters on Corsica.'" The Abbé Letteron, President of the Society of Historical and Natural Sciences of Corsica, who has printed many documents concerning Napoleon, and many other students, in France and in Italy, have furnished M. Chuquet with interesting details. Few historians have the faculty of creating order out of the chaos of documents, and, valuable as are the works of M. Chuquet, it cannot be denied that they cannot be read without fatigue.

The development of the mind of the young officer when, having left the military school, he entered a regiment, has an evident interest. M. Chuquet shows him giving himself with ardor, during the tedious hours of garrison life, to study and reading. "At Valence he devoured the books of the librarian Aurel and borrowed books from M. de Josselin. At Auxonne, while his comrades complained of that ugly place of residence, where were no distractions and they did not know what to do with themselves, he shut himself up in his room and gave all his free hours to reading." Napoleon had a sort of thirst for every kind of reading. Rollin, Mably, the Memoirs of Tott (which he cited afterwards at St. Helena), the history of England by John Barrow were read among the first. He delighted in the collection of 'L'Espion Anglais,' a work now forgotten, in which he found many particulars on the state of France, the disorder of her finances, the defects of her administration, the pretensions of the Parlements, the chaos of the provincial assemblies. 'The English Spy' was half serious and half anecdotic; it made Napoleon acquainted with the gossip of Paris and with the doctrines of the economists; it spoke of Turgot, of Malesherbes, of Necker and Madame Necker, of Voltaire's last triumph in Paris, of Rousseau's death at Ermenonville, of the admirals and generals who had taken part in the American war, of Franklin's mission. Napoleon made extracts from all the most interesting parts of his readings; and M. Masson has well shown the importance of some of these extracts. He chose in every book the most important and essential portion; he discussed the campaigns of Hannibal, the movements of Alexander in Asia; he criticised Rollin, Herodotus, Xenophon, Pausanias, Strabo; he took a lively interest in the government and finances of all countries, ancient and modern.

His literary tastes were formed also in that period from 1785 to 1791. He disliked comedy, and took no pleasure even in Molière; he wanted something serious on the stage, in accordance with his grave Corsican character. Tragedy was to him the school of great characters and of heroes. Even at St. Helena he reread with pleasure the 'General Principles' of Domairon, a writer now unknown, who, as professor, had taught him that tragedy, by representing an action at once heroic and terrible, spoke to the highest and noblest instincts of man. Napoleon knew by heart a number of verses from Corneille, Racine, Voltaire, and liked to declaim them. Corneille was his favorite, and "Cinna" the piece which he preferred. In 1791 he was still sentimental, and admired the fine scene of the clemency of Augustus; he wept over it, and said that "the tears of sentiment are the voluptuousness of the soul." Later, under the Consulate, he said that clemency was a petty virtue when not inspired by policy, and that Augustus's action was but the ruse of a tyrant.

The sentimentalism of Napoleon's early youth was well shown in his intense admiration for the famous 'Paul and Virginia' of Bernardin de St. Pierre. He remained faithful to the end to poor Virginia, and at St. Helena he read passages from it aloud to his officers, "in recollection of his former years." Under the Consulate, he gave to Bernardin de St. Pierre a pension of 2,400 francs; but much as he admired 'Paul and Virginia,' he would take no notice of the 'Studies of Nature,' by the same author, full of scientific errors. When Bernardin complained to him of the scientists, who would not even discuss with him, "Do you know," said Napoleon to him, "the differential calculus? Go and learn it first."

It was not enough for Napoleon to read, he would write also, and he tried his hand in many ways. He wrote a short novel, entitled 'The Count of Essex,' and 'The Prophetic Mask,' an episode in the history of the Arabs. His head was turned at one time, during his sentimental period, by Rousseau's 'Confessions' and 'Nouvelle Héloïse.' At a later period he was disgusted with Rousseau, and called him a tiresome idealizer; he once said to Stanislas de Girardin, "Time will show if it would not have been better for the tranquillity of the world that neither Rousseau nor I had ever existed." But during the revolutionary years which followed 1785 Rousseau was his idol; he adopted the ideas and even the phraseology of the 'Discourse on Inequality.'

Raynal, author of the 'Philosophical History of the Two Indias,' furnished him with many ideas, and taught him to love liberty, to detest the great conquerors, to sympathize with the American colonies struggling for their independence. Napoleon's Catholic faith had been shaken even at the school of Brienne; Rousseau and Raynal turned him completely to the philosophical school. Curiously enough, he was chiefly struck by the possible opposition of Christianity and the State; he wrote some remarks on the subject after reading the 'Contrat Social':

"Is not," he asked, "the spirit of Christianity contrary to the spirit of all government? Can a religion which knows no country, since its kingdom is not of this world, attach hearts to the fatherland? . . . Is its clergy not an independent body? Do not its ministers try to become rich and powerful, so as to dominate the other classes? . . . Has not Christianity been the cause of many wars? It was, it is true, persecuted by the Cæsars; but could paganism wait till the Christians had *manifested?* Was it not divined that they would never content themselves with a metaphysical empire, that they aimed to destroy the established government as well as the established religion, that they meant some day to have the real power?"

These lines date from the month of May, 1786, and form one of the most interesting essays of the young lieutenant. We can see already in them the feelings of the future Cæsar, of the powerful Emperor who kept a Pope captive at Fontainebleau, and who treated the French bishops as mere functionaries. On this fundamental point of the relations of Church and State, the ideas or rather the instincts of Napoleon never changed; he was a pure Italian, and considered religion as one of the means of government. He vindicated the rights of the State, and considered that the ministers of religion were subjects like all others, that they could not be legislators nor masters in their country, but were bound to obey the orders of the sovereign. In this respect he was a real Cæsar of paganism.

In 1786, in one of his visits to Corsica, Napoleon, who had ceased very early to be a believer, wrote a parallel between Jesus Christ and Apollonius of Tyana. His dissertation, which was deemed very remarkable by Lucien, has disappeared. He gave the manuscript to Fréron, who did not give it back to him. One day, under the Consulate, Lucien reminded Napoleon of it. "Don't mention it," said he. "I should become embroiled with Rome. My concordat would be looked upon as the work of Beelzebub."

The Lieutenant Bonaparte long remained a true Corsican, and espoused all the passions of his native island and of his clan. He seemed for a while a stranger to any other feeling, and was far more Corsican than French. France before 1789 appeared to him the foreign enemy. The divisions of the island and of their factions have lost all their interest for the present generation; Corsica has become a French department like the others, and the memory of Napoleon has not a little contributed to sink the Corsican nationality in the great French unity. M. Chuquet analyzes with fatiguing minuteness events and feelings now so completely forgotten; he might have remember-

ed the words of Paoli, which he cites: "Lasciamo questa disputa ai otiosi." The "Letters on Corsica," written by Napoleon, partly at Auxonne and partly in Corsica, were a mere sketch of the history of Corsica. "I was quite right," said Napoleon afterwards, "in not having them printed."

There is not much new matter in the long chapter which M. Chuquet writes on Bastia, on the Bonaparte family, and the part which its members took in the beginning of the Revolution. M. Masson has fairly exhausted this subject. When Napoleon entered the artillery, he had to leave Auxonne and his friends of the regiment de La Fère. M. Chuquet takes the trouble to give us the history of all these friends, though it seems to us quite unnecessary. He is as careful to find out all that concerns the new comrades of the regiment of artillery at Valence, where Napoleon was in garrison. His volume, in some parts, reads too much like the 'Annual of the Army,' to be found in all the French cafés frequented by officers. A few days after the arrival of Napoleon at Valence Louis XVI. fled to Varennes and was brought back to Paris as a prisoner. The new Constitution obliged all officers to take an oath of fidelity to the King and to the Constitution; the oath was to be written and signed. Napoleon took it, like those of his comrades who did not emigrate; but he was already in favor of a republican government, and at that time he saw no further necessity for a sovereign.

There were two clubs at Valence; Napoleon joined the club of the "Friends of the Constitution." He made speeches in it, and showed much "civism," to use a word of the time. In the midst of the general excitement, however, he continued his studies in all directions, and the Academy of Lyons having offered a prize to the best author of a memoir on the subject, "What truths and sentiments is it best to inculcate in men for their happiness?" Napoleon took his pen and wrote a memoir on the subject. It is hardly necessary to analyze, as M. Chuquet has done, this emphatic "Discours de Lyons"; it did not get the prize, and did not deserve it. The memoir is made up entirely of reminiscences of Rousseau, of Raynal, and others.

In the last chapter of this new volume we return to Ajaccio, and we are treated to the history of the troubles of the island during Napoleon's furlough. At the rate at which M. Chuquet is going on, it is impossible to say how many volumes he will have to write before he kills Napoleon at St. Helena. Much as we may commend the exactitude and the zeal of this writer, we could wish him more imbued with the spirit of the true historian who knows how to get rid of the scaffolding of his edifice.

Correspondence.

THE FEDERAL INHERITANCE TAX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When you prepare for the readers of the *Nation* your promised remarks on the new United States tax on inheritance, you will scarcely fail to note the curious fact that of all the forms, rates, and percentages which that tax has been prepared to assume in the numerous cases provided for, the heaviest and most punitory are made to fall on bequests to charitable and educational corporations. As I understand it, the tax is 5 per cent. on all legacies to corporations, increasing to 10 per cent. when the amount is large. When to that is added the usual State tax on collateral inheritance, they will together confiscate 15 per cent., or about one-sixth, of all bequests to charitable uses, which universally take the corporate form.

Was this robbery of the poor, the blind, the halt, and unfortunate intentional, or merely ignorant, indifferent, and reckless?

There may be in Congress some cross-roads "statesmen" who really detest industry, saving, and all other honest methods of accumulating competence. But do any of them wish to punish those who are willing, at the expense of their own families, to bequeath of their savings to the purely altruistic purposes of charity and education? And yet thousands of schools, colleges, museums, asylums, and homes for the afflicted have been established and are supported on just such bequests.

We in Pennsylvania have not recently been led to expect much from our own Senators that is charitable, wise, or good. But where were the representatives of New England and the great States of the middle West, when this punishment was decreed against charity and education without one voice raised in their behalf? The public of our country contributes hundreds of millions in taxation with its own consent, every year, to support those noble objects. Do our national legislators deem it impolitic, or criminal, and punishable with confiscation, for individual testators to aid by contributing from their own means? But since not a voice was raised, or an amendment introduced, in favor of charity or learning, it is hard to see how the world can arrive at any other conclusion.

At all events, until this act be modified, we stand marked and branded by our own national Legislature as the only civilized people among mankind bent on stifling all testamentary generosity to charitable institutions by punishment and confiscation. We are made falsely to appear as preferring to maintain our government by tearing away private alms from the mouths of the poor, rather than by the willing and mutual contributions of the free and strong. How long will the better disposed of our legislators suffer this shameful stigma to endure? I. J. W.

Philadelphia, June 17, 1898.

OUR ARCHIPELAGIC FELLOW-CITIZENS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Referring to the suggestion in your issue of June 16—that in whatever subjection the United States may hold motley populations of Pacific islands, we must expect that their children will be citizens of this country, that no State can exclude them from its limits, and that Congress itself will be obliged to welcome them to citizenship—it is interesting to notice the act of Congress of May 11, 1880, 21 Stat. L. 131, prohibiting Indians from going to Texas.

It is, of course, true that the position of the Indians is peculiar, but the position of the Philippine Islands is also out of the common, and the position of Texas, being specially designated as a reservation for others than Indians, is clearly exceptional. In case we cannot exclude Asiatic citizens of new territory, would it not be still possible to extend this reservation system; or, if we cannot save the whole country, cannot we save Texas?—Yours truly,

E. Parmalee Prentice.

Chicago, June 18 1898.

INSTINCT AND REASON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I wish to draw the attention of such of your readers as are interested in the discussion of the nature of instinct, to a curious example of it, as distinct from reason, which I have lately witnessed.

Entering the parlor of a friend the other day, my attention was instantly attracted to a Florida mocking-bird. He was flying about in an eager manner, with something like a long black straw in his bill. My friend entering, I asked: "What is your bird doing?" "Building a nest," she answered. "Has he a mate?" "No, he has never had one," she replied, "nor has he ever seen a nest. That black straw is a shaving of whalebone which lasts him better than anything else." At this moment the bird flew into a corner of the cage, and, stooping, dropped the whalebone, waited a moment as if for some response, and then flew away to repeat the manœuvre.

"Does he not want something soft?" I asked. "I sometimes give him yarn or wool; he tears it all up, works it all over, and then carries it to that corner. He evidently thinks it his duty to provide material, but he does not undertake to use it." "And what will he do next?" I asked. "He will, after a day or two, brood over that corner, sitting close and spreading his wings out as broadly as possible. He does this two or three times a day." "And after that?" "Later the paternal instinct seems to be aroused in a different way. He goes to his food cup, takes some food in his mouth, and drops it into his corner. He repeats this several times, as if he were feeding his young. I do not know how many young birds he ought to expect, but I should like to know, to see if he counts right!"

I have sometimes known a male canary to build a nest in the spring, carrying the process nearer to completion, but I have never heard of an instance like this, and think it may interest others than myself.

Caroline H. Dall.

14 Harris St., Newburyport, Mass., June 18, 1898.

CARLYLE BIBLIOGRAPHY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Can any of your readers inform me if they have ever seen a copy of Carlyle's 'Heroes and Hero-Worship' published by an American firm in 1841, or an English edition published between 1841 and 1846? If I could only learn of the existence of such editions, or be assured that they do *not* exist, the knowledge would be most useful in settling a point in the bibliography of Carlyle.

Does any one know of any library, public or private, rich in Carlyleana?

Archibald MacMechan.

Dalhousie College, Halifax, N. S., June 13, 1898.

Notes.

The second volume in Oman's 'History of the Art of War,' dealing with the Middle Ages from the fourth to the fourteenth century; 'The Sphere of Science: A Study of the Nature and Method of Scientific Investigations,' by Prof. Frank Sargent Hoffman of Union College; and 'Christianity and Anti-Christianity in their Final Conflict,' by

Samuel J. Andrews, D.D., are in the press of G. P. Putnam's Sons.

M. F. Mansfield, New York, will publish immediately 'Gladstone the Man,' by David Williamson, with numerous illustrations.

The next publication of the Marion Press, Jamaica, New York, will consist of two poems of sea-fights with Spain, "Drake's Drum," by Henry Newbolt, and Tennyson's "The Revenge, a Ballad of the Fleet." The edition is limited to 120 copies on hand-made paper.

On July 1 Henry Holt & Co. will issue 'Rupert of Hentzau,' by Anthony Hope, a sequel to his 'Prisoner of Zenda,' together with a new uniform edition of the latter; both having full-page illustrations by Charles Dana Gibson.

A new copyright edition of 'The Story of John G. Paton,' with the original illustrations, will shortly be brought out by A. C. Armstrong & Son and the American Tract Society conjointly.

Ellwood Roberts, Norristown, Pa., has ready for delivery 'Old Richland Families,' a genealogical record relating to Bucks County in that State.

Now that the completion of the Dictionary of the Brothers Grimm is, comparatively speaking, near at hand, the son of one of the brothers urges the necessity of a new German dictionary which should have its birthplace not at Berlin but at Weimar, in the halls of the Goethe-Schiller-Archiv, and whose makers should proceed, not like Jacob and Wilhelm Grimm, from Gothic, Old, and Middle High German forms, but from the language of the present time. The first task of this new dictionary would be to give permanence to the language of Goethe, since a large proportion of it was inaccessible to the Grimm brothers, "the insufficiency of whose German Dictionary, begun fifty years ago, is universally felt." In the article from which we quote ("Die Zukunft des Weimarischen Goethe-Schiller-Archivs," in the June *Rundschau*), Herman Grimm indulges in prognostications and hopes with regard to that institution which deserve notice as coming from one who commenced his Goethe studies about the same time that his uncle and father published the first instalments of their Dictionary.

M. Casimir Stryienski is preparing for publication the continuation of the 'Mémoires' of the Comtesse Potocka. This volume will contain an account of travel in Italy during 1826 and 1827, in the course of which the Comtesse Potocka fell in with various members of the Bonaparte family, then in exile. M. Stryienski has also sent to the *Nouvelle Revue* an article on Balzac and Stendhal, which contains two unpublished fragments of the 'Chartreuse de Parme.'

It is not exactly his Memoirs which M. François Coppée is now engaged in writing, but rather (as M. Émile Berr explains in the *Revue Bleue* of May 28) some souvenirs of childhood and youth, which he will make as impersonal as is possible. His aim is to tell the story of Paris as he remembers it during the last fifty years—not its history, but its life as it impressed him in his boyhood and in his later years. It will be a study of the *petite bourgeoisie*—the household life which he shared, and in which his mind and soul accomplished their development. The work is scarcely begun, and the first volume of it will not be finished before the 1st of August. The *Revue Hebdomadaire* will publish it, and to how many volumes it will run M. F. Coppée himself has no clear notion. He will let his pen go, following the thread of his memories, with no settled intention beyond that of coming to an end at the fatal date of 1870.

M. Eugène Montfort has printed in pamphlet form the somewhat interesting exposition of "Naturisme" which he delivered as a lecture at the congress of Brussels three or four months ago. Naturism, it may be explained to those who do not follow with eager watchfulness the rise and progress of the "young" French schools in literature, is a new literary gospel adapted for the use of youth, which was first put forward—possibly invented—about three years ago by M. Saint-Georges de Bouhélier. Its chief mission seems to be to react against the well-worn dogma of "art for art." The Naturists wish to use Art for certain humane and social ends. They also have much to say about the mystic depths in the soul of man, and it is this hidden *vie secrète* which it is the mission of the poet to comprehend and adorn. Certain great poets, they think, have known this secret, and they lament the attitude of many of the "young" towards such writers as Lamartine. It will be seen that these young gentlemen are looking back rather than forward, but reaction is perhaps, at least for the moment, the most clearly defined movement in French literary evolution.

The Bulletin of the Boston Public Library for June contains the last part of the useful list of works on Social Reform. This instalment includes the various schemes, as anarchism, communism, coöperation, etc., and the functions of the State in ownership, education, and charity. There is an author-index of about 1,200 names, and a subject-index.

There has just issued from the Government Printing-Office at Washington a descriptive list entitled, 'Alaska and the Northwest Part of North America, 1588-1898: Maps in the Library of Congress,' by the superintendent of maps and charts, P. Lee Phillips. The list consists of 101 pages, of which the first 15 antedate the present century. There is one entry for the 16th, and one (1648-1869) for the 17th century.

The origin of the Great Barrier Reef of Australia has long been a subject of discussion among naturalists, who have generally held, with Darwin, that a barrier reef can be formed only on a region of subsidence. Dr. Alexander Agassiz, in a paper published in the Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy at Harvard College (Vol. 28, No. 4), gives his reasons for dissenting from this view. He holds that the present condition of the reef can be explained by the mere action of erosion and denudation. The required depression unquestionably exists, but it dates back to the Cretaceous period, and there is nothing to warrant the claim that the coral growth began at that time. Dr. Agassiz's paper, illustrated by forty-two plates and charts, contains a general sketch of the physical geography of this region, and a careful description of the different localities which were explored. It concludes with an examination of the theories of other writers, especially Jukes and Saville-Kent.

A notice, with portrait, of the late James Joseph Sylvester, Savilian Professor of Geometry in the University of Oxford, and formerly Professor of Mathematics in Johns Hopkins University, appears in the Proceedings of the Royal Society of London for May 9. In the writer's opinion, Sylvester was one of the greatest mathematicians of all time, though it may be doubted whether he will take a place among those who "occupy absolutely the front rank." His greatest achievement was probably his paper, entitled "Algebraical Researches," printed in the Philosophical Transactions for 1864; but his published works do not properly represent his genius and greatness. He was so oppressed with floods of ideas that he was unable suitably to organize his researches. His personal character was one of singular beauty, and its salient points were simplicity and honesty.

"Evidence of the antiquity of man furnished by ossiferous caverns in glaciated districts" is the subject of the anniversary address of Dr. Henry Hicks, retiring President of the Geological Society of London, published in the May number of its *Quarterly Journal*. The author shows conclusively that the palæolithic implements found in association with the remains of extinct mammalia of the pre-glacial or glacial period are those of man living at the same period. The same number contains an illustrated paper by Mr. E. J. Garwood and Dr. J. W. Gregory on the "Glacial Geology of Spitsbergen," in which are demonstrated the upward flow of glacial ice and the transportation of materials from lower to higher levels.

A movement, strongly akin to a revival of historic Gallicanism, has in recent months been developed in certain sections of the Roman Catholic Church in France, and has begun the publication of a Paris organ, *Le Chrétien Français*. The agitation is for independence of thought and the establishment of evangelical principles in the Church of France. A score or more of priests have severed their connection with the dominant church, and have declared allegiance to the new movement. Father Abbé Bourrier, formerly a high ecclesiastic, is editor of the journal. Its motto is declared to be: "Nothing but the Gospel; but also, the Gospel entire."

A great stir is reported among the *bouquinistes* of the Rive Gauche in Paris and their faithful customers. The extension of the Orléans railway line to the Quai d'Orsay has displaced for a time the bookstalls established along the parapets. The booksellers of the Quai d'Orsay are the first to go; they betake themselves to the Quai de la Terrasse, and will not come back again, it is said, for two years. Those of the Quais Conti, Voltaire, and Malaquais are exiled only for some months. They are going across the river, and will set themselves up temporarily on the right bank of the Seine. About a hundred and fifty booksellers in all are scattered, but their annoyance, it may be supposed, will be far less than that of the much greater number of the quiet frequenters of the bookstalls, whose daily visits to their favorite haunts will be sadly disarranged.

In accordance with a recent decision of the Minister of Education, the degree of M.D. will hereafter be conferred by Prussian universities only upon candidates who have passed the medical state examination prescribed by the laws of the Empire. The academical honor will, therefore, be tantamount to a practitioner's license. This is as it ought to be, but it has not been so heretofore. In fact, under present conditions, a doctor of medicine of one of the foremost universities might render himself

liable to prosecution by putting his title on the street-door of the wall of his house (thereby misleading the public), while there would be no objection to his attaching the *Dr. Med.* to his name on the door-plate of his private room or the entrance to his flat. Exceptions under the new regulations will be made in favor of foreigners and of students from the German States who do not intend to become practitioners, but who, in addition to their *Fachstudium* in the philosophical faculty (*e. g.*, zoölogy, or experimental psychology), pursue medical studies sufficient to meet the requirements for the degree of doctor of medicine.

To fill the vacancy caused at Harvard by the approaching "sabbatical year" of Prof. Ashley, Dr. William Cunningham of Trinity College, Cambridge, England, has been engaged for his countryman's second half-year. Dr. Cunningham is not unknown to our readers as a writer on English economic history, being the author of the substantial two-volume treatise on 'The Growth of English Industry and Commerce' and of many other works. In 1891, he was chairman of the Economic Section of the British Association, and he has recently held for a time the Tooke professorship of Economic Science at King's College, London.

On Monday, June 13, commemorative exercises were held in honor of the late Prof. Herbert Tuttle, at Cornell University. Prof. Tuttle's reputation rests mainly upon his unfinished but excellent History of Prussia, which has been universally recognized as the best work in the English language upon its subject He held the chair of modern European history at Cornell, and died upon the morning of commencement day in 1894. The proceedings on Monday consisted in the presentation to the European history seminary-room in the University Library of an excellent portrait of the late professor, painted by his widow, Mrs. Mary McArthur Tuttle, who is an artist of great skill and acknowledged repute. Most of Prof. Tuttle's former colleagues were present on the occasion, and speeches were delivered by President Schurman, Prof. George Lincoln Burr, Prof. Moses Coit Tyler, and Prof. H. Morse Stephens. Mrs. Tuttle has, in addition, given to Cornell University the original manuscripts of her husband's historical works.

From the Cape to Cairo is the aim of an African expedition which has just left England under the leadership of Major Gibbons. The party, which consists of nine Englishmen, carries with it two aluminium boats, and a barge in which a large part of the journey of 12,000 miles is to be made. The proposed route is to ascend the Zambesi from its mouth to the limit of navigation, and from thence across the watershed into the basin of the Congo, to the Lakes Tanganyika and Victoria, and then down the Nile. The most difficult, if not the most dangerous, part of the undertaking will be the transportation of the boats over the mountainous region between the two lakes. Major Gibbons expects to be gone eighteen months, hoping to reach Khartum by August of next year.

The eleventh International Congress of Orientalists in Paris decided to hold their next convention in the Eternal City. The committee of arrangements, of which Prof. Angelo de Gubernatis is chairman, has issued, in French, a preliminary announcement of the coming Congress, which will sit, not in September, as has hitherto been the custom, but early in October, and the document issued gives excellent reasons for this change, one of the chief being sanitary. The King of Italy has consented to be patron of the Congress, and the Ministry of Public Instruction has promised its coöperation. The sessions will take place in the University buildings.

—The senior class of Smith College chose this year for the customary Shakspere dramatics "Much Ado About Nothing," an undertaking less ambitious than last year's "Merchant of Venice." One who witnessed both performances writes: "The scenic opportunities were, of course, unequal, and the needful cutting of 'Much Ado About Nothing' robbed it of much of its rather slender proportion of high poetic diction. The trained delivery called for was of a different order, therefore, from that exacted by the 'Merchant,' but was still the point on which the stress of criticism must fall. Distinctness and calculated measure were essential to give full weight to quip and repartee and innuendo in which 'Much Ado' abounds, and it must be said in general that the deficiency was more noticeable than last year. Whereas, too, the men's parts in the 'Merchant' were decidedly more successful than the women's, the reverse was true in 'Much Ado.' Both *Beatrice* and *Hero* were very attractively and on the whole competently played; the male characters fared indifferently or badly. *Dogberry* and the watch were somewhat overdone. The marriage scene was, perhaps, most effective. Altogether, the play gave genuine pleasure, and the audience was justly entitled to manifest its approval, but this was constantly ill-timed, and it is to be hoped that the next class will have the courage to prescribe on its programme entire abstinence from applause till after the close of a scene or an act. To interrupt the action with it is unpardonable."

—The Rev. R. G. MacBeth's 'Making of the Canadian West' (Toronto: William Briggs) may be regarded as a sequel to his 'Selkirk Settlers in Real Life.' In the former work he described the attempt of Lord Selkirk to relieve the Scotch Highlands of their poorer inhabitants by establishing a colony on the Red River. In 1814 his first band was dispatched, only to endure the united attacks of climate and the North-west Fur Company. In the end, however, the remnant of its numbers gained a foothold, and their descendants have proved to be a stronger stock in Manitoba than the squatters of French origin. Mr. MacBeth's present subject is the history of Manitoba and the Territories between Confederation and the School Act of 1890. His second title reminds us that he has been an eye-witness of what he relates, and it may be also stated that his father before him was an opponent of Riel at Fort Garry in the days of Scott's murder. Riel, with the movement for which he stands, is the central figure of this sketch, for the most interesting part of the action turns about troubles arising from the purchase of Hudson's Bay land by the Dominion of Canada. In the spring of 1869 Sir George Cartier and William Macdougall, representing the new federation, arranged with the Hudson's Bay Company to purchase £300,000 worth of its grant, on which at the time about ten thousand Scotchmen and *bois-brûlés* were settled. At this juncture differences of race temperament began to show themselves. The Scotch felt sure that they would receive eventual justice from Canada, while the French half-breeds—"more fiery and easily excited, more turbulent of spirit and warlike in disposition, accustomed to passages at arms with any who would cross their path, and withal, as a class, less well informed on current events than their white brethren—were not satisfied with the course that seemed to them to place their rights in jeopardy." Mr. MacBeth's account of the two risings which were due to misunderstanding between the French and the Government is conceived in a spirit of justice, and he is at less pains to champion the cause which he upheld than most of his compatriots in Manitoba would be.

—Prof. F. A. Aulard, whose knowledge of the history of the French Revolution is unsurpassed, both in depth and in minuteness, publishes in the *Revue Bleue* of May 14 a brief and luminous article entitled, "Le Tutoiement pendant la Révolution." It is known by most people that the use of "thee" and "thou" obtained largely at this epoch, and it is also known by many that this use was ephemeral. M. Aulard gives us the whole history from its rise to its disappearance. It did not spring, as might be natural to think, from any instinct of low envy or insolence, but was the deliberate attempt of a little body of doctrinaires to establish democratic equality. Just as the first movement toward a republic in France was made by a few men of letters who had hard work to persuade the workingmen that it could be possible to get along without a king, so the democratic reform of manners was imagined and popularized by a few cultivated people of the upper class. The first person to advocate the *tutoiement* appears to have been a woman of noble birth, daughter of the Chevalier Guynement de Kéralio, and wife of François Robert, who was an advocate of Liège, an ardent Revolutionist, and who, later, represented the Department of Paris in the National Convention. Mme. Robert was somewhat more advanced in her views than Mme. Roland, and no love was wasted between these ladies, who differed not only in politics but also socially. Besides her salon, Mme. Robert founded a newspaper, the *Mercure National*, of which she was editor-in-chief, assisted by her father and her husband. It was she who, under a pseudonym, published in the *Mercure* of December 14, 1790, an article entitled "Sur l'influence des mots et le pouvoir de l'usage," in which the *tutoiement* was first proposed. Already the words *citoyen* and *citoyenne* had begun to replace monsieur and madame, and the *tutoiement* was really not much more than a logical carrying out of this.

—Whether the new mode came into use at once, M. Aulard is unable to say, but by the 10th of August, 1792, it was usually employed by the popular societies in their debates. In 1793 it had become in Paris a badge of advanced democratic opinions, and later in the year, on October 31 (10th Brumaire, An II.), a numerous deputation was sent from the societies to the Convention to demand a decree establishing its use. The decree was refused, but the petition was inserted in the *Bulletin* with an invitation to all citizens to use only such language as should convey the steadfast principles of equality. On the 21st Brumaire a second attempt, also fruitless, was made to obtain

a decree. This was really needless, for the Committee of Public Safety had already adopted the usage. "Thee" and "thou" triumphed, but its reign was short. After the democratic check of Thermidor, "vous" came back again, and by Prairial of the year III. (May, 1795) the *tutoiement* had almost entirely passed out of use, at least among private persons. The Committee of Public Safety kept it up in its correspondence, and the Conventionals used it among themselves for awhile, but after the Convention it had generally disappeared. M. Aulard writes of it with respect and with regret. It was, he thinks, one of the forms of the noble idea of brotherhood on which the true Fathers of the Revolution wished to build their state, and, ephemeral as it was, marks a notable moment in French social evolution and deserves something quite different from the disdain of history.

—Dr. Albrecht Wirth has been before the public for some time as an extensive traveller through the wilds of Central Africa, and also through Siberia and Eastern Asia, with the outlying archipelagos. His latest work in German relates the history of Formosa, and bears the title, 'Geschichte Formosa's bis Anfang 1898' (Bonn: Carl Georgi). Wirth saw the island twice, and gathered valuable information. In writing the above publication he intended at first an historical sketch only; but since historiography in our time needs help and illustration from many other sciences, especially natural, the volume has swelled into a small cyclopædia of the island. Formosa is situated in the China Sea, opposite the Fo-Kien province, and extends northward for 220 miles from north latitude 22 degrees. The spine or crest of the island lies in its central part, and reaches an average altitude of four thousand feet. Its great length and inconsiderable breadth give to the island a form closely resembling that of a huge banana. Its cordillera is of volcanic origin, and the plutonic fires are not extinct, but slumbering, their activity being evidenced by hot springs, sulphurous emissions, and frequent earthquakes. The event which submerged the lands once connecting Formosa with the Chinese main took place in recent geologic periods, and the depth of the ocean between the two is even now not great. The eastern slope of Formosa is abrupt; the western and northwestern parts form plains and lowlands, which are infested by fevers and other distempers for several months in the year, the only healthful part being the southern extremity. A considerable number of different races inhabit the country, five or six of them having settled there long before the advent of the European. There are Mongols, Melanesians and Polynesians, Malays, and Negrito tribes, the dwarf nations of the interior belonging to this last class. The ethnic distinctions between all these groups, together with their history, are minutely described by the author, and evidently constitute the main object of his interesting book. There are populations in the centre of the mountains which have never been studied or seen by travellers, and all sorts of horrid stories circulate among the Formosans concerning them. Among the whites the Dutch colonists played an important part in the seventeenth century; then followed an invasion of Chinese, who settled there in large numbers, and engrafted themselves so deeply that to oust them will be well-nigh impossible. The insular kingdom of Japan has, through its late war with China, obtained hold of Formosa, and is colonizing it now under many difficulties which are graphically and humorously portrayed by Wirth at the end of his 'Geschichte.'

WARD'S WISEMAN.

The Life and Times of Cardinal Wiseman. By Wilfrid Ward, author of 'William George Ward and the Oxford Movement,' 'William George Ward and the Catholic Revival,' 'Witnesses to the Unseen,' etc. 2 volumes. With portraits. Longmans, Green & Co.

In his two books upon his father's Anglican and Roman career, as well as in other writings, Mr. Wilfrid Ward has shown a mind so subtle and ingenious, and so much skill as a biographer, that our expectations with regard to his Life of Cardinal Wiseman were naturally great. If they have not been seriously disappointed, they have not been fully met. The book is large, but it is made so more by the copiousness of Mr. Ward's extracts from letters and other documents than by the abundance of his own matter, which suffers from its failure to absorb the essence of the material in hand, and lacks the color which such absorption would have given. As compared with the books on William George Ward, we feel the lack of personal engagement with the theme, and at some critical junctures fancy that we detect a disposition to shuffle off the mortal tiresomeness of the whole business with as little pains as possible to make it understood.

Nicholas Wiseman was born in Seville, August 2, 1802, and died in London February 15, 1865. His father was a Spanish merchant, belonging to an English Catholic family; his mother was of Irish extraction, but her name (Xaviera Strange) is eloquent of some Spanish mixture in her blood. An early playfellow was the celebrated Blanco White, of whom Wiseman wrote in 1830 that "he was, without exception, the most pious, the most amiable, and the most clever young man he ever knew, when he took orders." In 1810 Wiseman went to Ushaw College, near Durham, England, and remained there eight years. He was always considered stupid and dull by his companions, and made few friends, and he speaks of his college years as desolate; but they were studious, with much voluntary reading, and his place at the conclusion of his studies was at the top of his class. For six years, from his seventeenth to his twenty-third, he was a student in the English College in Rome, an establishment revived in 1818, after ten years of hibernation. We have some interesting reminiscences of his student life; one of the Abbate Cancelliari, whose works, Niebuhr said, contained "everything that was superfluous," and who wrote on such exciting topics as "Head Physicians of the Popes" and "Men of Great Memories who have Lost their Memories." The event of this period was the burning of the splendid old basilica of St. Paul's. That Wiseman assisted, in the French manner, at the conflagration, added much zest to his participation in the consecration of the present church, which is an elaborate copy of the former one, in 1854. The death of Pius VII. and the coronation of Leo XII. were other incidents that touched the imagination of a youth extremely sensitive to whatever was spectacular or dramatic. His student years did much to make him that "résumé of Rome" which he was described as being in his maturer years.

Great was his happiness, he tells us, when he was "freed from the yoke of a repressive discipline and left to follow the bent of his own inclinations." He became a dreamy wanderer through the by-ways of the ancient city, soaking his heart in its antiquities and their associations. In 1827 he was made Vice-Rector of the English College, but his talent was far less for administration than for study. His 'Horæ Syriacæ' was the precocious but deceitful promise of a life of scholarly activity. His studies won him such friends as Niebuhr and Bunsen, and commendation as distinguished as it was sincere. On the other hand, his laborious defence of that most gross corruption of the Greek text of the New Testament, "the text of the three Heavenly witnesses," suggests a doubt of his possessing that absolute critical sincerity without which all scholarship is vain. Simultaneously with his Syriac and related studies he had "subtle thoughts and venomous suggestions of a fiendlike infidelity which [he] durst not confide to any one." His doubts were not superficial, but affected the fundamental truths of Christianity. But "thoughts against faith must be treated like temptations against any other virtue," and he so treated them—put them away with a strong hand. For twelve years, from 1828 to 1840, he was the Rector of the English College, and the earlier of these years, till 1835, coincided with those of his sceptical anxiety. It was probably some rumor of this that led to Browning's picture of him as Bishop Blougram—a picture which Mr. Ward resents, though it was a palpable hit in various particulars. In conversation he had not always Blougram's volubility. He could sometimes be as "silent in several languages" as at others copious in English or Italian. The latter of these had a bad effect upon the former, making it less correct and forcible, and stitching on it many a purple patch.

The brief pontificate of Pius VIII. was followed by the fifteen years of Gregory XVI., years of reactionary sympathies and reliance upon Austrian arms to keep Italy well under foot. But it was evident, says Mr. Ward, that the temporal sovereignty was in a bad way, and that things would have to be worse before they could be better. "We all foresee," said Cardinal Consalvi's secretary, "what it must result in. But mark! When the old lion shall be restricted to his narrow cage, he will yet shake his bars so as to make Europe tremble." Mr. Ward, in order to make this prophecy more impressive, prints it in italics, and he seems to think it has already been fulfilled. And certainly it does not appear that the present Pope's contention (which is also Mr. Ward's in his Epilogue to these volumes) that without the temporal power his spiritual power is vain, gets any justification from the course of his experience.

An interesting episode is that of the visit of Hurrell Froude and Newman to Wiseman in 1833, familiar to all readers acquainted with the history of the Oxford Movement. "We got introduced to him," writes Froude, "to find out whether they would take us on any terms to which we could twist our consciences." From this year and from this visit dated the rise of Wiseman's hope of great gains in England for the Roman Church. He wrote in 1847 that, from the day of that visit, never for an instant did

he waver in his conviction that a new era had commenced in England. "To this grand object I devoted myself. . . . The favorite studies of former years were abandoned for the pursuit of this aim alone." But no such sudden change is evident in the course of the narrative of the years immediately following 1833. Certain lectures 'On the Connexion between Science and Revealed Religion' were possibly an attempt to silence his own ugly doubts, and we can easily imagine with what bland sophistication he argued the thesis that "the very sciences whence objections have been drawn against religion, have themselves in their progress entirely removed them." But hardly as against the same religion against which they were made.

Mr. Ward's sixth chapter is one of the most interesting and valuable in his book, but it is essentially episodical. Its subject is "The English 'Papists.'" It is a warm appreciation of their fortunes, their struggles, their disabilities, and their widening liberties, from the time of Henry VIII. until Wiseman's visit to England in 1835. It does not tell the whole story, but so much of it as we should expect from an ardent Romanist, who is well aware that Mary Tudor's policy was a colossal blunder as well as a stupendous crime. To a considerable extent the story is involved in that development of religious toleration which has been so honorable to both Roman Catholics and Protestants in their later history. Newman, however, contended for religious persecution as a reserved right of the Church, the exercise of which she may resume at any time when she can do it to advantage.

The Anglican hankerings for Rome did not satisfy the zeal which Wiseman had for her when, in 1835, his doubts asleep or strangled, he conceived the idea of going to England and starting there a Roman Catholic College and Review. Why not a movement there comparable to that stirring in France, where Lamennais and Lacordaire were doing great things, and in Germany, where Döllinger and Görres and Möhler were engaged in a brilliant intellectual reformation of Roman Catholic dogma? The English Catholics appeared to him to have just emerged from long imprisonment and not to have recovered the use of their limbs. To some of them he seemed too genial in his asceticism, and an Irish servant not only refused to cook him a chop on Friday, but gave warning, being determined not to countenance such impiety even if it had medical prescription. Newman welcomed his preaching as a triumph over the Protestant principles of English churchmen, and rejoiced in it as such. The *Dublin Review* was started, and a Catholic Institute was established. O'Connell was a partner in the *Review*, on condition that he should be a silent one so far as his more radical political opinions were concerned. Returning to Rome in 1836, Wiseman remained there until 1840, when he finally established himself on English ground. Visits from Macaulay and Gladstone assured him of an abatement of prejudice against Rome, wider than Oxford's "seclusions ivy-hushed." Gladstone naïvely fancied Wiseman sympathetic with his view that the Oxford Movement would abate the tendency to Rome, when, in fact, Wiseman's confidence was absolute that Rome was its ultimate goal. In the long run it has done more to Romanize Anglicanism than to make perverts to Rome, so that Gladstone mistook the future less than he did Wiseman's sentiments.

In his endeavors to help himself from all parties—the old Catholics, the Newmanites, and the Liberals of the *Edinburgh Review*, and their kind, all mutually opposed—Wiseman was obliged to carry water on both shoulders, and, at the same time, on his head. Mr. Ward is nowhere more subtle and amusing than in his discussion of the situation in which Wiseman found himself. How to combine the principles of authority with scientific progress was the problem that clamored for a solution. We have in Mr. Ward's exposition a *modus vivendi* which will be attractive just in proportion as those to whom it is presented are not simple and straightforward. The expression of the Church's dogma must be accommodated, we are told, to the changing thoughts of each new period. Probably we have here a key that will unlock the mystery of Romanism for an indefinite future. Even the dogma of the Pope's infallibility will possibly be so restated as to disarm the criticism of the most scientific, while at the same time the claim of *semper ubique et ab omnibus* will be made for it with an unsmiling face.

In July, 1839, Wiseman published an article in the *Dublin Review* upon St. Augustine and the Donatists, by which, as we read in the 'Apologia,' Newman's theory of the *via media* was completely pulverized. Newman wrote to a friend at the time, "It has given me a stomach-ache"; and thenceforward his view of the Roman Church was different from what it had ever been before. His 'Tract No. 90' gives a title to one of Mr. Ward's chapters, but little is added to what was already known of that famous document. Wiseman recalled the time when Hurrell Froude had called Romanists "wretched Tridentines," while now Newman was insisting that the Thirty-nine Articles were conformable with the decrees of Trent, and that popular Romanism was not. Let Rome reform, argued Newman, and it would be the duty of the English Church to fall into her arms. Wiseman was far too sanguine then (1841) and after Newman's submission (1845) of such a consummation. He did not even think it necessary for Rome to reform herself. Newman's submission has a touch of absurdity here that it has had in no previous narration. A young Unitarian minister presenting himself for installation in a pair of light trousers, Dr. Bellows said: "I know nothing of the young man, but I expect the worst." But when Wiseman sent a friend to report upon Newman's condition on his Anglican "deathbed," as Newman called it, and the friend returned and reported Newman as receiving him in a pair of light trousers, Wiseman expected the best he could desire, and the submission was not long delayed. The light trousers meant that Newman no longer considered himself an Anglican priest. Here is an item for some future editor of Carlyle's "Philosophy of Clothes." In the joy of the great culmination and the spectacle of ten quondam Anglicans in his college chapel at Oscott, Wiseman had a vision of the Anglicans passing collectively into the communion of the ancient church. Meantime, the old Catholics were suspicious of the new converts, and the converts regarded the old Catholics as hopelessly ignorant and inert, and declared Wiseman to be solitary in his appreciation of the great opportunity.

The accession of Pius IX. and his short-lived liberal programme found Wiseman in cordial agreement with Mazzini that the Pope's proper rôle was that of a great liberal secular pontiff. Evidently the doings of Pius in 1848 did not furnish Mr. Ward with a congenial topic, and he has not touched them in any helpful manner. For two years before 1849 Wiseman was acting Vicar Apostolic of London, and in that year he succeeded to the office in his own right. In 1850 he was made a Cardinal, and left England "for ever" in great sorrow, but his sorrow would have been more genuine if it had not been qualified by hopes of his returning in some grander style than he had yet enjoyed. The fulfilment of these hopes awaited him on his arrival in Rome, where he was at once informed of the restoration of the Roman hierarchy in England and his appointment at its head as Cardinal Archbishop. The Pope issued a bull announcing the new departure, and Wiseman followed it with a letter "from out the Flaminian Gate of Rome," and shortly after set out on a kind of progress to his new dominion, making much delay to receive the congratulations of distinguished fellow-servants of the Church. There was a rude awakening from his happy dream when he discovered that his letter and the papal bull had roused in England a great storm of righteous indignation. Papal aggression was the only talk, and an ecclesiastical-titles bill was passed, to become at once a dead-letter. Mr. Ward treats the whole business as a piece of frantic folly, but all the foolishness was not on one side. The terms of both the bull and the letter were ineffably silly, conceived in terms of intolerable ecclesiastical bombast, and the manner of their reception was convincing that the Pope and his agent had reckoned without their host to an absurd degree in supposing that Protestant England was ready to "begin anew its course of regularly adjusted action round the centre of unity, the source of jurisdiction, of light, and of vigor," as the Cardinal Archbishop expressed his conception of the new order of affairs.

Roman Catholics object to being called Roman Catholics, but Wiseman was a *Roman* Catholic or nothing. Hence many a difference with the old English Catholics, who tended to the earlier Gallican insistence upon national rights and privileges. Hence, fundamentally, that painful difference with his coadjutor Errington which Mr. Purcell celebrated so remorselessly in his Life of Cardinal Manning. Mr. Ward's account of the matter is as much *ex parte* as Mr. Purcell's, and it slurs documents in Mr. Purcell's book which must be reckoned with. Mr. Purcell at least succeeded in making an interesting story of the quarrel, and Mr. Ward has made of it the dullest reading in his book. Wiseman seems to have been morally hypnotized by Manning, so subject to his will was he even while rebelling against it. Of all Roman Catholics, Manning was the most Roman. Manning and Errington pulled at the moribund Wiseman like wild horses, and his spiritual distraction was most pitiful.

Physically and morally, Wiseman presented striking contrasts to his successor in the Archiepiscopal chair. Where Manning had a thin, hard face, Wiseman's was full, with thick, sensuous lips and bulging eyes. Where Manning was ascetic, Wiseman had, as a Puseyite said, "his lobster-salad side," and he dearly loved to travel with a showy reti-

nue. He was more a scholar than a man of business, spoke several languages with ease, and exasperated Errington and Newman by his neglect of his and their affairs. Indeed, but for his carelessness, we might have had a translation of the Bible in Newman's marvellous style. He was versatile and ready, a florid rhetorician, skilful in disputation, but with little depth of thought, having the temper of an advocate, not that of a judge. With all his ostentation, he had much simplicity and loved children heartily. He had difficult duties to perform, and though he made some great mistakes, the impression that remains is that he was a man peculiarly well fitted, both by his virtues and defects, to represent the Roman Church in England in a unique, important, and exacting time.

TWO BIRD BOOKS.

Bird Studies: An Account of the Land Birds of Eastern North America. By William E. D. Scott. With illustrations from original photographs. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1898. 4to, pp. xii, 363.

Birds of Village and Field: A Bird Book for Beginners. By Florence A. Merriam. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1898. 8vo, pp. xlix, 406, pll. xxviii, figs. 220.

Mr Scott has long been known to ornithologists as a good field naturalist, a skilful taxidermist, and a successful collector, whose articles have occasionally appeared in periodicals, but we believe this is his first making of a bird book. There is a feature of it which distinguishes it from all its numerous rivals, and this is the appearance of a large series of plates of birds lying flat on their backs, as freshly killed specimens put upon the table, or as smooth skins, such as fill every cabinet. The idea is not absolutely new, as we have seen such pictures before; but we have never known it to be carried out to any extent as a mode of illustration. It is a good idea; the result is very effective; these dead birds are more "life-like" than any others in the book, and these smooth, trim skins look more like the objects the ornithologist knows best, from his habitual handling of such, than any live bird would. They strike the trained eye instantaneously; the others have to be studied out.

The implication that an ornithologist knows a birdskin better than he does a bird may not be complimentary, but it is unquestionably true; most of us know dead birds better than we do live ones. Take the chickadee on p. 16, for example; it is a facsimile of the natural object, the thing itself, to every detail of arrangement of feathers and feathery texture; it is nature, as opposed to the artistic imitation of nature in the group of stuffed chickadees in a tree on the plate which faces the dead bird. Or take the brown creeper on p. 110; it is the very bird, while the picture of the same on the plate opposite is more of a study of protective coloration in concealment of the little creature, almost lost to view on the bark of the tree-trunk where it is set to climb. The larger plates, we must insist, are less telling pictures than the smaller ones in the text; firstly, because they represent taxidermy, which, however artistic, is not nature exactly; and, secondly, because the bird, the main figure of these compositions, is often smothered in the accessories. For another thing, there are mechanical difficulties in the way of photographing taxidermal groups; the camera is set very close, and to bring the bird in focus is to blur most if not all of its surroundings. The general effect is confusing to the eye; in some cases, as that of the song sparrow's nest, the whole plate is blurry—almost a blotch. Mr. Scott's photographic results, on the whole, most remind us of those now publishing in *Birds;* they lack color, and thus lose much, but they are decidedly superior in the taxidermy of the objects represented. If the author follows his land birds with a water-bird volume, as proposed, he might preferably and profitably increase the number of his dead-bird and bird-skin pictures, with correspondingly fewer full-page plates of groups; or he might try the experiment of making an entire suite of illustrations of the former character.

In saying of the text that it is sound and clear, correct in fact and fair in expression, we say about all that need be said, except that it is notably free from needless technicalities and well adapted to the average reader. But we must find fault with the way in which Mr. Scott, like several other authors, mixes up his birds. Theoretically it is well enough, for variety's sake, not to bring in all the finch family or all the warbler family by themselves; but the method, or lack of method, is radically vicious. It is a futile fancy to group birds under such heads as "about the house," "along the highway," "in the woods," "across the fields," "in marsh and swamp," "by stream and pond," for the simple reason that no birds whatever stay put in such places, and few indeed are those sufficiently characteristic of such resorts to make the notion available or desirable for biographical purposes. Mr. Scott does his best to undo the confusing result of this misdoing, this idle ingenuity in wrong-doing, by giving at the end a systematic synopsis of his birds; but the necessity therefor proves our point, and need not have arisen. The book is a very handsome one in all its appointments, and we trust that the expense of so luxurious a volume may not greatly restrict its usefulness. It contains nearly 200 such plates as we have praised or found fault with, and is believed to include some account of every land bird known to occur within the limits of Eastern North America. The nomenclature throughout, and the classification of the list at the end, are strictly orthodox.

Miss Merriam's latest volume shows a notable improvement in authorship upon former essays whose slightness we deprecated, the present treatise being characterized rather by its muchness. Though ostensibly intended for beginners, we surmise it will be found more helpful to advanced students, and imagine its most proper place to be in the hands of the children's teachers rather than in the children's own. Few persons who have occasion to take classes into the field really know much about it, and Miss Merriam's book should teach them a good deal. It is full of the facts in field ornithology that the instructor needs to know, in order to impart the rudiments of the science to the little folks; but we fear the numerous "keys" can hardly be turned in the lock without oral assistance. The construction of such keys is far easier to their constructor than is their use to the user, especially when they are based upon the appearance of a bird as it strikes the eye at a distance. The bird-through-a-fieldglass business has its limitations, which not even Miss Merriam's skill or ingenuity can overcome; it can never be carried beyond the mark of that amateurishness which for ever contrasts with professional proficiency. We speak thus in no spirit of detraction, but quite the reverse; Miss Merriam has in this book made more of, and done better with, a radically vicious method than any one else we can name. It is the principle, not its application, that is at fault. It is the old case of "Spanish in Six Easy Lessons" for something that needs a good solid grammar to begin with and a good big dictionary to go on with. All attempted short cuts to knowledge cut knowledge short. Such a field-color key as Miss Merriam has employed was first introduced, we believe, by the late Mr. Minot, some twenty years ago; it was a curiosity then, and we fear the many later ones all share that character, however much some of them, like the present one, are improved. This divides the 150 birds to be treated into two groups: (1) "Bright or strikingly-colored birds," and (2) "Dull-colored birds." Under the former are arranged those which have (*a*) "blue conspicuous in plumage," (*b*) "red conspicuous in plumage," (*c*) "yellow or orange conspicuous in plumage," (*d*) "black or black and white conspicuous in plumage." Now, there are various birds which belong to more than one of these categories, according to their age or sex; and the difficulty of discrimination increases, of course, in the other primary division of dull-colored birds, in which "olive-green or olive-brown," "gray or bluish," and "brown or brownish," are required to be distinguished afield, usually at opera-glass range. The way to begin to teach a child ornithology is to put a bird in its hands, and let it be handled, and answer the questions the child will naturally ask. This will be an indelible object-lesson; the means of inculcating it are at hand in every city, in almost every town. To Emerson's question, "Hast thou named all the birds without a gun?" we reply, "No, we haven't; nobody ever did, and nobody ever will; and we suspect that thou, O admirable philosopher, knowest as much about them as the average schoolboy."

Aside from this matter, our convictions concerning which are strengthened by each one of the continual efforts now making to do right in the wrong way, we can heartily commend Miss Merriam's book to teachers. The general "key" we have criticised adversely is supplemented by numerous more special ones, in which something of the same radical undesirability inheres, though less obtrusively, because each attempts to unlock the secrets of only some one special natural group of birds, in which specific distinctions are more readily pointed out. The main text is well written; it is practical and to the point, as pedagogic literature should be, and especially strong on the side of economic ornithology, as would be expected from the author's relation to an important bureau of the United States Department of Agriculture. There is one case we have marked for stricture—the blue jay's alleged innocence of egg-sucking. "It has been noised abroad that he robs birds' nests, but remains of birds' eggs were found in only 3 out of 280 stomachs" (p. 155). In those three cases the robber must have swallowed the shell by accident, in a hurry, for macerated albumen in a bird's stomach is not a readily identifiable substance. The fact is, that the jay and all his family are much more destructive of bird-life than all the technically raptorial birds put together—bar

none, not even the genera *Astur* and *Accipiter*.

The text is very fully illustrated; the pictures are of the distinctively useful rather than ornamental sort, excepting those of Mr. Fuertes and Mr. Thompson, which all have an artistic quality; and many of the smallest ones, of heads, wings, tails, or feet, are among the most effective. The book is thoroughly well adapted to the needs, or supposed needs, of the many, and we have no doubt will easily hold its own in competition with the more or less similar teaching-books of Mr. Chapman, Mrs. Wright, Mrs. Doubleday, and various others.

The Letters of Victor Hugo, from Exile, and after the Fall of the Empire. Edited by Paul Meurice. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1898.

If the first volume of Hugo's letters contained little else than dulness, the second offers the pleasing contrast of much attractive and valuable matter, whether for literature or for biography; but the welcome surprise results not so much from M. Paul Meurice's scheme of classification as from the fact that the poet's first active participation in the political affairs of his country coincides with the date of almost the earliest selections in the present issue. The collection before us comprises letters to a great variety of persons—from artisan poets to crowned heads, indeed—and extends over the long and agitated period between 1845 and 1882. As a piece of translation the English version is conscientious and literal; not quite free, however, from occasional insignificant Gallicisms, difficult to avoid, perhaps, in rendering the familiar eccentricity of the style of the original.

First in importance among the more intimate letters come those addressed to Mme. Hugo, for the most part written during the troubled time of separation between the flight to Brussels and the reunion of the exiled family at Marine Terrace. Much as we objected to the corresponding earlier set, against these nothing is to be urged, for, while confirming the wife's noble-hearted devotion, they also establish beyond doubt the hearty appreciation of her merits by her oft-maligned husband:

(1852) "I begin by telling you that you are a noble and admirable woman. Your letters bring tears to my eyes. Everything is in them—dignity, strength, simplicity, courage, reason, serenity, tenderness. When you discuss politics, you do it well; your judgment is good and your remarks to the point. When you discuss business and family matters, you show your large kind heart" (p. 86).

Suspicion may nevertheless fasten on the motives inspiring most of the reckless laudation which the poet's temerity in the use of superlatives led him to shower on his illustrious contemporaries (George Sand, Gautier, Banville, Paul de Saint Victor, Swinburne, etc.), since we discover that a literary puff from the other side in every case preceded the letter (pp. 143, 172, 189, 197, 212, 225, etc.). Exception should be made in favor of a few less fulsome, but apparently more genuine, expressions to Michelet, Jules Simon, Coppée, and, strange to say, Verlaine. Save for a passing sneer at Scribe and Feuillet, competitors for literary fame are kindly handled, while Napoleon III. and his myrmidons find neither truce nor compromise. Every mention of the usurper is an echo of "Napoléon le Petit" or "Les Châtiments": "Freedom of thought has been gagged, freedom of conscience cashiered" (p. 50). "There are creatures like Troplong, like Dupin, whom I cannot help admiring. I like complete men. These wretches are perfect specimens. They attain the climax of infamy. . . . Bonaparte is well surrounded. I hear that on the *sous* his eagle will have its head under its wing" (p. 67).

Such *réussisseurs*, as he called them, were indeed obstacles in the way of his visionary schemes for the brotherhood of man and the federation of "The United States of Europe," of which a glorified Paris was to be the capital. Although serious discussion of his chimeras would be waste of time, we may note how steadfastly these private hatreds of his sought their justification in his principle of subordinating political affairs to social regeneration: (1839) "For a long time past in all my writings I have striven to hasten the day when social questions will be substituted for political ones; when between the party of reaction and that of revolution there will arise the party of civilization." (1861) "A time will come when frontiers will cease to exist. All wars will disappear in the fraternity of races. That will be the great day of the human fatherland." (1874) "I have endeavored, to the best of my ability, to bring the moral and the human question into what is called politics."

With all this hazy, indeterminate socialism, there is much practical shrewdness in Hugo's avoidance of questions of property which would too obviously involve the awkward subject of profits from copyright. In a letter to Mr. Tennant (p. 182), a Welsh landowner who seems to have been animated with something of the spirit of Arthur Young, Hugo confines himself to vaguely declaiming against "regulating parasitism instead of fighting it," forgetting all the while that his own initial summary of Tennant's achievement is a virtual surrender of the whole contention. There seems, in truth, as much justice as maliciousness in the anonymous epigram which describes the great man as "un poète doublé d'un homme d'affaires." According to his own showing (pp. 74 and 214), he could balance a budget of twelve hundred or twelve thousand francs with equal precision, and, to his credit be it added, with the same refreshingly unobtrusive contentment.

The principal literary interest of this part of the correspondence arises from its unexpected abundance of illustrations of Hugo's characteristic mannerisms of style. Letter after letter bristles with such quotably sententious aphorisms and showy antitheses as the following: "Liberty in chains, blasphemy proceeding from the altar, the negro's fetters riveted to the pedestal of Washington's statue!" (p. 51). "The roll of the Senate [in 1852] is the proscription list. To be an outcast from France is only a misfortune. To be an outcast from honor is real misery" (p. 98). "A king's crime has nothing abnormal about it; but crimes committed by a people are intolerable to the thinker" (p. 154). "The literature of the nineteenth century . . . will be called democratic literature" (p. 157). "Without Venice and Rome [in 1861] there can be no Italy, and without Italy there can be no Europe" (p. 164). "Christianity is less august crowned in the Vatican than kneeling at Golgotha" (p. 175). "Diplomacy is simply the stratagems of princes against the logic of God" (p. 222). Occasionally, the writer falls a victim to his own trick—for example, in a startling metaphor, of doubtful psychological accuracy, which describes himself as "an owl who is the sworn enemy of counterfeit eagles" (p. 125).

Hugo's opinions concerning the instinctive antipathies of birds may not have intrinsic value, but one might have expected more circumspection in his expressions of the literary qualities of a language which, with all his opportunities, he never took the trouble to learn:

(1840) "In the French language there is a great gulf between prose and poetry; in English there is hardly any difference. It is a splendid privilege of the great literary languages—Greek, Latin, and French—that they possess a *prose*. English has not this privilege. There is no prose in English. The genius of the two languages is, therefore, completely different in this respect. What Shakspere was able to do in English he would certainly not have done in French."

In the last proposition alone the great dogmatist spoke better than he knew. Our only comment on these amazing dicta shall lie in his own words: (1864) "I do not know English" (p. 182). (1868) "I do not know English even now" (p. 216).

But, unquestionably, one of the great merits of this volume, even to readers tolerably familiar with Hugo's life, lies in its constant presentation of an aspect of his character not sufficiently dwelt on, we are disposed to think, by most of his biographers—the sunny and cheerful geniality of his prevailing mood. Whether in exile at Brussels, living on three francs a day, harassed with mean persecutions, and evidently mortified by the indefatigable laziness of his son, or later, at Hauteville House, where he longs for Paris as only a Frenchman can, this spirit never fails him; no murmur ever escapes him. Nor is this, as might be unkindly suggested, a symptom of the want of deep feeling so often ascribed to him; in our eyes it is but another index of the courage which led him to the barricades in 1848, and prompted his offer "to go where there is danger, and to go unarmed," at the age of sixty-eight, on the 25th of September, 1870. If, according to some, France is just now in sore need of such examples, M. Paul Meurice deserves the thanks of his countrymen for the one he has offered them in the letters of the greatest of their recent poets.

Aristocracy and Evolution: A Study of the Rights, the Origin, and the Social Functions of the Wealthier Classes. By W. H. Mallock. Macmillan. 1898.

It was said that no one could possibly be so wise as Lord Thurlow looked, and we feel tempted to apply the principle of the *mot* to Mr. Mallock. His style is pellucid, his arrangement of material orderly, his attitude judicial, his logic formally perfect. Yet we fear that, so far as the Socialists are concerned, his conclusions will be rejected. His arguments, as Hume said of Berkeley's, admit of no answer and produce no conviction. They seem perfectly conclusive, but we cannot get rid of a suspicion as to their validity. If the case is so absolutely clear for aristocracy as Mr. Mallock makes it seem, how can we explain the confidence of the Socialists in their position and the success of their propaganda? There must be something omitted that

would modify the argument, or something overstated that carries it too far.

Yet, on a critical examination of Mr. Mallock's reasoning, we cannot escape the conclusion that it is on the whole sound. His error lies in the absolute character of his statements; if he made more allowance for exceptions and modifications, he would be more persuasive. Most people, said George Eliot scornfully, think that the radii of a circle have a tendency to be equal; but, after all, they are right, for in the circles within their perception this tendency to equality is all that can be observed. Hence it is commonly a grave rhetorical blunder to make absolute statements; exceptions at once occur to the mind of the reader, and this tends to make him think that he knows more than the author. To a certain extent the wise author will encourage this attitude in his audience; he will leave them to fill up gaps and to draw conclusions for themselves, but he will contrive to have the result strengthen his argument. The reader, seeing that the argument can be strengthened, proceeds to strengthen it, and his complacency over his success commits him to the author's support. But writers like Mr. Mallock affront the self-conceit of those whom they should propitiate; like Macaulay, they say that every schoolboy knows things of which the reader is conscious of his ignorance, and wind up a course of reasoning that can only establish a probability with an absolute Q. E. D. in the style of Euclid.

As to Mr. Mallock's argument itself, it runs off as glibly as a fishing-line from the reel, having the aid of side-notes on the pages that make it as easy to follow as an avenue with all the cross-streets labelled. His first point is against those philosophers who have tried to explain the evolution of society. They have answered speculative questions, but they have failed to answer practical questions. This, Mr. Mallock says, is because they have not distinguished between the phenomena of social aggregates and the phenomena of parts of aggregates. Of this offence he quickly convicts Mr. Benjamin Kidd, and then turns his attention to Mr. Spencer, who has spoken harsh words of the "Great Man Theory," even declaring it to be as incompatible as the theocratic theory with any possible social science. Mr. Mallock retorts that Mr. Spencer and the whole school of contemporary sociologists deny the existence of congenital inequalities where they are speculating about societies or races as aggregates, while as soon as they speak of individuals they recognize the importance of their peculiarities. His examination of the arguments of these writers is clever and convincing, and he triumphantly winds up with Mr. Spencer's description of Napoleon as "a soldier whose immense ability, joined with his absolute unscrupulousness, made him now general, now consul, now autocrat."

The next step in Mr. Mallock's argument is to distinguish between the survival of the fittest, due to selection, which slowly raises the general average of efficiency, and the rapid advance which is due to the leadership of great men. Aristotle's brain was as good as Newton's, and the masons who built the Parthenon were as clever workmen as those of to-day; but the enormous productivity of this century is due to the superiority of a number of industrial leaders. They have intended particular changes, and the result has been the rapid evolution which Mr. Mallock calls "the reasonable sequence of the unintended"—"the unintended result of the intentions of great men." So far as inheritance and environment go, we may say that great men may sometimes exist without accomplishing anything because the conditions are unfavorable; but the point is that whenever anything is accomplished, it is the work of great men. The aggregate of unintended results is what has been observed by sociologists; but what we are concerned with practically is the intended element. Of the factors here "the chief is the great man, whose importance is enhanced rather than dwarfed by the fact that his intellect and his energy are the causes not only of great results which he intends, but also of those others—wider, if not more important—which, though neither intended nor foreseen by himself or by anybody else, would, if it were not for him, never take place at all."

Having cleared the way for ability, Mr. Mallock develops the methods and conditions of its action, showing that progress is the result of a struggle not for survival but for domination, which is obtained by helping others to live, and which involves vigorous competition among employers to get the help of laborers. Many keen observations are made on the part of the masses in political life, that part being generally to fall in with the suggestions of statesmen or demagogues, who really control popular movements under any form of government. The final chapters are devoted to a consideration of the effect of exceptional rewards on exceptional exertions, Mr. Mallock showing that the Socialists claim that their form of government would sufficiently encourage great men to keep on with their production of wealth, while they at the same time complain that men are universally possessed with the desire to own all that they produce. The chapter on equality of educational opportunity contains many suggestions that deserve particular attention in this country, and the conclusion, on "Inequality, Happiness, and Progress," may be read with profit by everybody. Altogether the book is not only clever and brilliant, but also in its main lines sensible and sound. It is safe to call it the most readable "showing up" of Socialism that has appeared, and it contains a strong argument for progress along the ways tried by the long experience of men.

The Training of a Craftsman. Written by Fred Miller. Illustrated by Many Workers in the Art Crafts. New York: Truslove & Comba. 1898. Pages x, 249.

In the little book named above there are three chapters devoted to the general subject of modern decorative art, its shortcomings and its present character, and ten chapters devoted to special departments of craftsmanship. The author announces himself as having begun work in the capacity of an assistant in the department of stained glass and decorative windows, and as having learned what he knows to a large extent by his own mistakes and by his own tentative practice. The first chapter, the title of which is "The Craftsman and Nature," contains an extremely intelligent discussion of the way in which a student of decorative art should study natural form and should utilize the suggestions of nature in his work. This chapter is illustrated by plant studies made by the author, and he insists (page 13) on the importance of avoiding botanical knowledge and study of plant anatomy, also the analysis of the plant in the way too often advocated by some teachers—that is to say, the making of elevations and plans of blossom, leaf, and twig. The author points out (page 16) that your own drawings, if they are faithful and contain just as much of nature as you can possibly put into them, will be the most valuable aids to your design afterwards, while, at the same time, they are not in themselves designs in any sense of the word. The author would have the student draw from nature with a single-minded desire to get all the facts in each special case, and thus at once fill his mind with knowledge and thought and also fill his portfolios with material, while, at the same time, he insists upon it that one ought never to stop drawing, and that it is altogether a heresy to suppose that one can stop studying nature because assured that he has material enough.

With all this forcible exposition of sound principles there is mingled a curious heresy, which has arisen naturally out of the process of thought superinduced in its turn by the author's experience. He is of the opinion that it is bad to be the pupil of one man, and that, on the contrary, the student of design should study the work of many men, with the idea of avoiding mannerism on the one hand, and on the other hand of securing individuality by means (it would seem) of a wise eclecticism. It is urged (page 11) that mannerism is thus to be avoided, and (page 12) that if the student is trained in a particular style of design, such as Louis XV., he is put on a wrong scent. All training, it is alleged, "should be in the direction of developing the ego," and with this proposition most persons, not metaphysicians, who have thought profoundly on the needed changes in our present system of studying art, would agree. It is, however, very doubtful if they will agree with the author in his assumption that it is best to avoid being the student of any man. Assuredly, it has been the history of all the great arts of the past that the artist has been trained in the artist's atelier. One man succeeds to the heritage of another, not by dint of going out into the world, seeing everything and selecting that which is preferred: life is not long enough for that, nor is the mind of the youth acquisitive enough, or formed enough, for that. The artist is trained, and in all ages has been trained, by sitting at the feet of another artist, absorbing all that the master can teach, and afterwards seeking elsewhere for corrections of the perhaps too great mannerisms which had been gained in youth. This difference of opinion once urged, there is nothing but praise to give to this chapter. On page 16 there is an admirable definition of design—limited in its statement, but unlimited in its possible application.

There are three chapters devoted to metal work, namely, one concerned especially with *repoussé* and wrought iron, one with jewelry, one with enamelling on metal. It must be understood that there is no attempt to explain all the processes that are now or have ever been used, nor any attempt at the production of a handbook explaining fully the peculiarities of different styles of ancient metal-work. At the same time, the analysis of enamelling (on pages 86 to 89) is sufficiently full; the only difficulty with it being that it is not quite exact. To say, for in-

stance, that the Japanese are the greatest masters of the art of *cloisonné* enamel is certainly to make an erroneous statement. Dexterous beyond others the Japanese masters may be, but their work has never approached fine Chinese work in beauty. It is not in enamel that the brilliant and always satisfying design of the best Japanese epochs has been shown. A curious misprint gives a wholly false classification of enamels, for the term intended as the title of the third class is *basse taille*. Even this is inadequate as a piece of nomenclature. It is not, however, as an analytical account of the art that we value the book before us.

It is curious that the least satisfactory chapter is that on Glass Painters, theirs being the art first practised by the author; but it is evident that he has had no opportunity to inform himself concerning American work in this department. As this is the only department of decorative art in which the United States have excelled as yet, it is well that it should be noticed how inadequate this chapter is. The discussion of wood-carving, too, is injured by the very insufficient examples which the author has been able to lay before his readers. Of all the discussion of technical work, perhaps the most thorough and the most satisfactory is to be found in chapter xi., devoted to Surface Decoration.

The book is one which every person interested in decorative art should read with care. It is full of suggestion, and, if one finds that he can agree with its statements, full of encouragement.

Pictures from the Life of Nelson. By W. Clark Russell. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1897.

This is a small illustrated volume of some three hundred pages, on a subject on which the author is quite at home, he being already the author of a Life of Nelson. It contains little that is new except a chapter on "Poor Jack," which shows that the book is brought out for purposes not solely biographical. This essay gives facts tending to show that the British navy is filling up with foreigners ("Scandyhoovians," "Dagos," and "Dutchmen"). In 1895 the mercantile marine was manned by 235,000 men, of whom only 55,000 were British seamen. According to the author, the number had by 1897 dwindled to 30,000. This state of affairs Mr. Russell would reform by legislation. Under the old navigation laws, it seems, a ship-owner was compelled to ship one British seaman to every twenty tons, and in no case was the "foreign element" allowed to exceed one-fourth of the whole. The advantage of this was that, in case of war, there was a ready supply of British tars to man the fleet. The question which will suggest itself to the reader, and which the author does not answer, is whether it is an essential part of the scheme to revive, with the navigation laws, the press-gang and the right of search. To fill up merchant-vessels with British sailors would not help the fleet, unless there were some means of making them serve in it.

The "pictures" of Nelson here given have a certain value because they are the work of a seaman who understands what he is writing about, but Mr. Russell is rather over-burdened with sea-lore, and his marine style, since the day when he wrote the 'Wreck of the Grosvenor,' has not improved. Public opinion he describes (p. 139) as a "worthless weathercock," which, however, on a certain occasion, comes "slap into the wind's eye—a very fair wind for Nelson—with a shriek that must have meant joy as the tail of the thing swept to leeward"; and this is merely an illustration of a straining for effect which mars the rhetoric of the book throughout. Mr. Russell has, of course, a good deal to say about Nelson's intrigue with Lady Hamilton, but does not seem to perceive that to blacken Cleopatra does not enhance our admiration for Antony. The clumsy biographer who, in his anxiety for truth, spoils his market, has a genuine vogue in our day and generation, and perhaps Nelson's real greatness has never been better proved than in the security of his fame amid all the disagreeable revelations which his admirers dish up from time to time for our delectation.

Lectures in the Lyceum, or Aristotle's Ethics for English Readers. By St. George Stock. Longmans.

An accomplished Oxonian, author of 'Attempts at Truth' and a hand-book of deductive logic, has hit upon the unfortunate idea of offering the public a dilution of Aristotle in dialogue, under the above title. The result is a free paraphrase and interpretation of the first five books of the 'Ethics' in the form of a hypothetical reconstruction of the original conversational lectures, with disciples Theophrastus and Eudemus, and an extremely naïf son Nicomachus, for interlocutors.

We call it an unhappy idea because the taste for this kind of sugar-coated pill of knowledge is now extinct in all rational beings. We do not want our science Sandford-and-Mertonized. The very children pronounce Rollo and his uncle a bore; 'Friends in Council' has become unreadable; even the genius of Mr. Ruskin fails to reconcile the public to the *mièvreries* of Flossie and Sibyl and the Old Lecturer in 'Ethics of the Dust.' Mr. Stock's Nicomachus reminds us of Émile Faguet's witty characterization of the rôle of the *belle Marquise* in Fontenelle's 'Dialogue on the Plurality of Worlds.' He understands, or fails to understand, too obviously in accordance with the author's need of reminding us of his presence:

"I like this equitable man, father. Will you not tell us something more about him?" "My head always begins to swim, father, when I hear of the Pythagoreans: they were so very abstruse." "Wasn't it Circe who said that, father?" "I believe it was, my son, now you mention it. You are fresher from your Homer than I am." "I am afraid, father, I do not remember all you told us in that course: it was so dry."

This is indeed strewing the sands of the Lyceum with flowers.

It is not merely a question of taste. This method of exposition misrepresents Aristotle's manner, and makes it impossible to distinguish his matter from the interpolations and edifying developments of the commentator. Nothing could be farther from what Schopenhauer calls the *glänzende Trockenheit* of Aristotle's style than the sentimental expansion, the would-be epigram, and the sudden lapses into colloquialism of Mr. Stock:

"The happy man is no chameleon, to change his hue with the sunlight of prosperity or the shade of adversity. His house is not built on the sand, to fall when the waves come and the winds blow. No; happiness is a tree which has its roots deeply fixed in the settled serenity of a virtuous mind. The blasts of fortune may strip its fair foliage and break its branches, but the root of the matter is there all the time."

Is this Aristotle, or Jeremy Taylor-and-water? As an example of more familiar eloquence we may cite Mr. Stock's development of ὑπαίνουσι τὸ μακάριον:

"If Fortune cannot spoil, she can at least soil, our happiness. A dirty coat will serve the chief purposes of a coat—it will cover you and keep you warm; but all the same it is nicer to have a clean one."

Lastly, when the lion is disposed to laugh, mark the playful colloquialism of the style:

"THEOPHRASTUS. Did you follow any definite order in giving us the list of moral virtues? ARISTOTLE. I have hatched many chickens before now, but I never had such a pecking brood as you."

The commentary interwoven with this paraphrase is not wholly without value. Mr. Stock is evidently a devout believer in the entire reasonableness, not to say infallibility, of Aristotle, and has labored to put all his statements in the best light, with the aid of every qualification and illustration that a judicious and somewhat painfully explicit modern admirer would wish to add. This is unquestionably a fairer way of interpreting a great writer than the opposite method of assuming that, wherever his thought is incomplete or ambiguous, it is wrong. In the form of footnotes or a readable interpretative essay, such a commentary would be very acceptable. Inextricably involved with Aristotle's own words as we have it here, it confuses the general reader and irritates the scholar. For example, on page 3 we read: "Let me be frank with you on this subject. The only proof that I can offer you of the existence of a Highest Good lies in the fact that we all desire it. It is inconceivable that man should be cursed with an unsatisfiable desire for an object which has no existence." Mr. Stock must be aware that he is here foisting upon Aristotle a distinctively modern argument for the existence of a kind of Highest Good (with a capital letter) with which Aristotle's highest good, or greatest practicably attainable happiness in human life, has nothing to do. But how is the "English reader" to know it? So, when Mr. Stock makes his lecturer say of the φρόνιμος, "You may regard the wise man as the type of the advancing instincts of mankind," the critic replies, You may indeed, but did Aristotle? In short, to conclude as we began, the ingenuity and scholarship displayed in this book are virtually thrown away, because nothing less than genius could redeem the vice of its original conception.

The Golfing Pilgrim. By Horace G. Hutchinson. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1898.

Mr. Hutchinson, who is responsible for the greater part of the Badminton book on Golf, is not only a first-class golfer, but also a pleasing writer, and he has here collected a variety of magazine articles bearing on his favorite game. He discusses golf at the shrine—that is, St. Andrew's—and golf in France and the west of England and elsewhere, and points out, with much humor, the peculiarities of the amateurs and caddies in these widely different regions. All that is needed to complete his geographical survey of the humors of the game is a visit to one of our Southern courses, where the comical appearance and wild exclamations of the

negro caddie would be a revelation to him and his English readers.

In these days of rapidly acquired military titles, we can all appreciate the Scotch caddie's description of a new arrival: "I dinna ken his name, but he's a Major something—at least he's no a real major, but he married a major's widow and took the title!" On the other hand, only those who are deeply interested in the practice of the game can be expected to estimate at its proper value the wisdom contained in the maxim, "Driving is an art, iron play a science, but putting is an inspiration." Most beginners have had "bad streaks" during which they have felt like the irascible gentleman whose temper was so utterly ruined by the game that he had to abandon it and take to the game of patience instead, and when that did not come out right he was not on speaking terms with himself. Mr. Hutchinson has a chapter on "The Golfer in Art," in which he makes the apparently reasonable charge that the universality of the instantaneous photograph tends to mislead the artist as to the true drawing of the golfer in the act of making a stroke, because such photography, owing to the difficulty of focussing, cannot be absolutely accurate.

Anarchism: A Criticism and History of the Anarchist Theory. By E. V. Zenker. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

This translation is a curious little treatise, by a writer whose main fault is that he treats all other writers as equals. He has not discovered that the Republic of Letters is a figure of speech, invented for their own purposes by the aristocrats of letters, and he admits to the freedom of discussion any one who can find a publisher. Hence we begin with a very clear essay on Proudhon, and end with Johann Most's latest teachings on the scientific method of applying explosive bombs in churches, ball-rooms, palaces, and festive gatherings (p. 135). To most American and English readers, the whole development of anarchism represents little more at best than a branch of intellectual error, allying itself readily with crime, and the author himself avows his belief that there is nothing in it. But this, in his eyes, only increases its importance, for he thinks that "it can easily be proved from history" that it is not truth, but "error and superstition" which have been "the most potent factors in human development." The only proof which he adduces is that of the countless blessings produced for mankind by their long continued mistake of thinking it possible to form an *à priori* conception of God; but it may be pointed out that to make us believe that anarchism presents an important speculative or political question, it is not necessary to hold that error is greater than truth, but merely that anarchism is likely to produce important effects. This the author does in another way, by bringing anarchism forward as the counter-agent against socialism, and this is really the point of the book.

Socialism is tyranny, anarchism is liberty, and if the world is to be saved from one error, it must be by means of the other. In the first half of this antithesis the author is quite right; every one sees that the socialistic state, resting on universal suffrage, would be a frightful despotism; but why, the reader asks, should we have to fall back on the anarchists to save us from it? Why not simply preserve individual liberty by vigilance and laws, and by freedom itself, as we have hitherto done? The answer to this question is that Herr Zenker's book represents a view of the subject bred by despotism itself, in a community in which individual liberty is not understood as we understand it. Speculations about the reconstruction of the state, and the abolition of property, contract, and the family, belong, as the author himself shows, to the domain of error, and the countries where this error flourishes are Russia, France, Austria, Germany, and Italy. For this there must be some reason, probably many reasons, and among them we should put first the low state of public education in economics. Why is there no English Anarchist school? Why are Bellamy's fairy-stories believed all over the Continent to be written by a great American thinker, and translated into half-a-dozen languages? For the same reason, in our opinion, that there is, on the Continent, little or no study of Adam Smith and Mill and the economical doctrines connected with their names. The most wonderful cure ever discovered for the spread of such diseases as anarchism or socialism is political economy; neither can live with it in the same brain. But they have not found this out yet in Austria, still less do they suspect it in Russia; and hence the author, aghast at the danger, evolves the amusing and ingenious theory that one dragon will destroy the other.

The Works of Horace. Rendered into English prose by William Coutts. Longmans, Green & Co. 1898.

This book certainly ought to drive into well-merited oblivion the wretched perversion of Horace contained in the Bohn Library. If it does this, the translator deserves a vote of thanks from the long-suffering body of schoolmasters and college professors. Whether it will do more is grave matter for doubt. Mr. Coutts, in his preface, heartily subscribes to Mr. Balfour's dictum that "translation, however admirable, however excellent, however painstaking, never does, never can, and never will preserve the inmost life and essence of the work of art with which it deals." And he knows also that with Horace of all the Latin poets, and especially with Horace in his Odes, the translator is attempting an all but impossible task, let him essay it in verse or in prose. That *curiosa felicitas*, whether of form, or of word, or of phrase, defies all transfer; and to the man who knows the real Horace, a translation is as flat as the English libretto of an opera, read a thousand miles from singers and orchestra. Fancy Tennyson in Latin prose: *Lacrimæ inanes quarum causam ignoro, lacrimæ, inquam, quæ, spe prope divina deiecta, ab imo pectore volvuntur.* Is this any further from "The Princess" than Mr. Coutts's "Hapless they to whom thou seemest fair unproved" is from the "Pyrrha"? A version, says Mr. Coutts, should be at once literal and idiomatic. But what of "Woe's me, my glowing liver swells with painful bile!" It is literal, it is idiomatic; but it isn't Horace, because Horace's reader knew the metaphorical sense of *iecur* and *bilis;* to English readers liver and bile mean blue pills and jaundice.

Then, too, how hopeless it is to try to reproduce the wonderful word pictures which the flexibility of Latin lets Horace disclose bit by bit, almost grudgingly. Mr. Coutts is fairly successful with the famous *me silva lupus* of the twenty-second ode; but he wisely avoids attempting an imitation at the end of the ninth: the

> "latentis proditor intimo
> gratus puellae risus ab angulo."

How it develops, touch by touch; how the thoughts are interwoven! "Somebody hiding—a telltale—in a secret place—the telltale is sweet—the hider is a girl—the sweet telltale is a laugh—the secret place from which it comes is a corner." Such effects are unapproachable in our uninflected English, and yet they make up a great part of the beauties of Horace in his Odes. In his Satires and Epistles, of course, the translator's task is simpler; and here Mr. Coutts steers a safe course between the treacherous attractions of modern colloquialism and the deadly dulness of what is often miscalled literal translation—as if any translation could be literal which lacked the spirit of the original. Mr. Coutts has availed himself of the best commentaries, English and German; in footnotes he warns the reader of the more important variants in the text; his introduction contains a thoughtful appreciation of Horace and a good translation in "deadly parallels" of the ancient *Vita.* But he has not achieved the impossible.

Paul Krüger and his Times. By F. Reginald Statham. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. 1898.

The strife between the earlier and the later immigrants to South Africa has certainly received as much attention as it deserves. The English newspapers and magazines have been full of it, and it has afforded opportunity to several makers of books. It is not surprising that most of this writing should be colored by British prejudice, and Mr. Krüger has been most roundly denounced. Mr. H. M. Stanley, in a book which we have recently noticed, pours forth torrents of abuse of the Boer President, some of it almost too coarse for quotation. Mr. Bryce's 'Impressions,' it is true, are distinguished by impartiality, but he did not go very deeply into the Transvaal controversy, and the defence of the Boer policy may be regarded as a novel feature in the recent South African literature.

This defence might certainly have fallen into better hands than those of Mr. Statham. He complains that "one of the chief difficulties in writing a biography of President Krüger arises from his own reluctance to talk either about himself or his career." As the early records of Transvaal history are meagre, the author has fallen back on Dr. Theal's 'History of South Africa' and Dr. Jorissen's 'Transvaalsche Herinneringen,' and supplemented them with such information as he could pick up. As a result, we have a rather minute chronicle of insignificant events strung together with so little literary art as to be devoid of the interest of a story. Of President Krüger's part in these events we get but a dim idea. There is much bold assertion of his greatness and goodness, but there is little evidence presented in support of it; except, indeed, his determined stand for clemency to the Jameson raiders. Considering the urgency of the demand of the Boers for the condign punishment of these marauders, President Krüger's course was highly creditable to him.

Mr. Statham is equally indefinite in making out a case against Cecil Rhodes, whom he charges with being the *fons et origo* of all the troubles with the Transvaal Republic. It must be conceded that this theory is not untenable, but it is to be established by

other methods than those here employed. In fact, the author seems to have no capacity for stating a case or describing a situation so that those unfamiliar with it can understand it. Concerning the grievances of the Uitlanders at Johannesburg, we make out that there are two sides to the matter; but as to the merits of the issues, or indeed what the issues really are, we are as much in the dark as before. It may be said, however, that Mr. Statham is as coherent as the partisans opposed to him, and more decorous in language than most of them. Of the personality of his hero he has little new to tell us. Perhaps the most interesting fact that he has to communicate is that the Krüger stock is not Dutch, being traceable back to Berlin, while Paul Krüger married a Du Plessis, of the same family as Cardinal Richelieu.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Armstrong, R. A. Faith and Doubt in the Century's Poets. Whittaker. $1.
Bangs, J. K. Ghosts I Have Met. Harpers. $1.25.
Beresford, Lord Charles, and Wilson, H. W. Nelson and His Times. London: Eyre & Spottiswoode; New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co. $4.
Bertrand, Alfred. Au Pays des Ba-Rotsi. Haut-Zambèze. Paris: Hachette.
Blissett, Nellie K. The Concert-Director. Macmillan. $1.75.
Chrystal, Prof G. Introduction to Algebra. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Chuquet, Arthur. La Jeunesse de Napoléon. La Révolution. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Delitzsch, Friedrich. Die Entstehung des Aeltesten Schriftsystems. Ein Nachwort. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs.
Field, Rev. H. M. The Life of David Dudley Field. Scribners. $3.
Grahame, Kenneth. Pagan Papers. John Lane. $1.25.
Griffin, Le Roy F. The Abduction of Princess Chriemhild. New York: R. L. Weed Co. $1.25.
Holland, Bernhard. Letters of Mary Sibylla Holland. London: Edward Arnold.
Kirk, Ellen O. A Revolutionary Love-Story. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Lander, Harry. Lucky Bargee. Appletons. $1.25.
Lange, D. Handbook of Nature Study. Macmillan. $1.
Lavisse, Prof. Ernest, and Rambaud, Prof. Alfred. Histoire Générale, du IVe Siècle à nos Jours. Tome X. Les Monarchies Constitutionnelles, 1815-1847. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Lewis, Sir George C. Use and Abuse of Some Political Terms. New ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Maclay, E. S. A History of the United States Navy from 1775 to 1898. 2 vols. New ed., revised and enlarged. Appletons. $7.
McLellan, J. A., and Ames, A. F. Primary School Arithmetic. Macmillan. 50c.
Moore, George. Evelyn Innes. Appletons. $1.50.
Parmele, Mary P. Ariel; or, The Author's World. New York: Alliance Publishing Co. 25c.
Tarelli, Charles C. Persephone, and Other Poems. Macmillan. $1.25.
Trumbull, Annie E. Rod's Salvation. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Warner, Ruth J. Historic Art Studies. Syracuse, N. Y.: G. A. Mosher. 75c.
Welldon, Rev. J. E. C. The Hope of Immortality. Macmillan. $1.50.
Wentworth, G. A. New School Algebra. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Wilcox, R. M. Theory and Calculation of Cantilever Bridges. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Wilkins, Mary E. Silence, and Other Stories. Harpers. $1.25.
Williamson, David. Gladstone the Man. A Non-Political Biography. London: James Bowden; New York: M. F. Mansfield. 75c.
Wilson, Mrs. Lucy L. W. Nature Study in Elementary Schools. Reader. Macmillan. 35c.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 30, 1898.

The Week.

The first skirmish on the way to Santiago, on Friday, gives us a most reassuring test of the mettle of our volunteer army. There was to be found in that army no more hastily collected or less disciplined force than Roosevelt's Rough Riders. What little training they had received before leaving for Cuba had been as cavalry; yet they were sent into action as infantry, side by side with regulars, and they fought like regulars, leaving ten of their number dead upon the field. It is evident now that the forces under Col. Wood and Gen. Young walked into an ambush in which only their coolness and bravery saved them from virtual annihilation. Gen. Shafter compliments them deservedly on their "cool and veteran-like work" and their "complete victory," but he is clearly determined that no more risks of the kind shall be taken. Gen. Shafter's success thus far in the landing of his expedition has been remarkable, giving strong evidence of his ability to conduct the campaign to a successful issue.

The House of Representatives adopted on Tuesday the conference report on the bankruptcy bill, which had already passed the Senate by a large vote. According to Senator Hoar, it has taken fifteen years of hard work to bring about this result. What was known as the "Lowell bill" was once got through the Senate against the will of the whole judiciary committee, and failed in the House by only three votes when a two-thirds vote was required to take it up out of order. The "Torrey bill" never fared so well, and the present measure is a compromise in which the bad features are almost as prominent as the good. The truth is that the business conditions in different parts of the country are so diverse as to make it impossible to frame an entirely satisfactory general law. There are regions in which it is really oppression to require men to plead in the United States courts, on account of the great distances which they have to travel. The standards of solvency are very different in some parts of the South and West from those prevailing in the East, and many merchants continue in business there who would find it impossible here. When we are told that a single firm in Chicago has credits outstanding to the amount of $30,000,000 annually, and is able, by securing preferences in assignments, to carry on this business with a loss of only 3 or 4 per cent. a year, we can form some idea of the multitudinous interests affected by such a bill as this. Senator Hoar and Senator Nelson and Mr. Ray of the House of Representatives have devoted a large part of the winter to labors in conference, and they deserve the thanks of the business community. Whatever the imperfections of the bill, it will certainly be a great gain if, as Senator Hoar claims, it enables some 200,000 bankrupts to get on their feet again, while securing a fair and inexpensive division of the estates of insolvent debtors.

It seems unreasonable for the Democratic Senators to grumble because the understanding about the postponement of the Hawaiian debate has been disregarded. In the first place, it seems to have been only an oral agreement. The Democrats were to let the war-revenue bill pass, and the Republicans were to let the Hawaiian question go over till December, but there was no formal stipulation. Hence, the Republicans cannot be held to it. But, under the code of morals which we have suddenly adopted, it would make no difference had the agreement been formally executed and enrolled. We declared that this was not to be a war of conquest, but as soon as Admiral Dewey won a victory, it was announced by many of our clergy that the situation had entirely changed. They never thought of such a possibility as a naval victory, it seems, when they said there were to be no conquests. As Benedick explained that when he said he would die a bachelor he did not think he should live till he were married, so these spiritual guides labor to make it appear that the self-denying policy in regard to conquests was to apply only in case we made no conquests, and appeal to the Almighty to confirm this idea. So the Republican Senators have now high authority for pleading that when they agreed to let the Hawaiian business drop, they did not expect the House to pronounce in favor of it. To disregard the great majority which the joint resolution received in the House would be flying in the face of Providence, just as much as to disregard the victory at Manila. The development of a code of morals appropriate for an imperial policy promises to be one of the finest achievements in casuistry that the world has ever seen.

Senator Morrill, in his speech against annexation, made a strong point of the fact that Hawaii is not fit to become a State of the Union. Some advocates of annexation are ready to admit this, and even to pledge that no attempt shall be made to take it out of the Territorial condition. But the Vermont Senator pointed out that "a square denial and interdiction of this statehood to-day, though embroidered on the breast of a joint resolution or branded on the rump of a treaty, will not bind any future Congress against admission"; and he ventured the prediction that, "if the islands shall be annexed, no matter upon what terms, there will soon be here two men knocking at the doors for admission as Senators." There can be little doubt that this prediction would be justified. The Washington *Post* reports that "there is a belief that great pressure will be brought to bear immediately to admit the islands as a State of the Union," while Representative Maguire of California is quoted as saying that he will "propose at once that the islands be admitted as a full State, and that they be allowed one Representative and two Senators in Congress." Nobody who remembers the ease with which thinly populated Territories have been elevated to the rank of States in the recent past, can doubt that the annexation of Hawaii means the State of Hawaii in the early future.

No more striking illustration of the ravages which such a mania as that now prevailing for extending our territory makes in the human intellect, can be imagined than Representative Hitt's speech in defence of Hawaiian leprosy. It might be supposed that the existence of this disease constituted a weak point in the case for annexation. Not at all. On the contrary, Mr. Hitt maintains that leprosy is rather a pleasant and desirable ailment. Our unfavorable opinion of this disease is due to Biblical representations of its character which have no application to the Hawaiian variety. In the first place, leprosy in Hawaii is a discriminating disorder, attacking only "Asiatic elements" and the native Hawaiians. It "rarely affects people of the Caucasian race of the better class, who use an abundance of soap and water. It is not contagious in the ordinary sense." Mr. Hitt assures us that he has seen the sons and daughters of lepers in Turkey, and that they were beautiful children. The idea that Hawaiian leprosy is a "loathsome, running disease" is all wrong. At the worst it is no more than a "paralysis and withering of the ears, fingers, etc., and they drop away painlessly." This is evidently a much better disease to die of than several of those which prevail in this country, and it is a pity that its blessings should be confined to "Asiatic elements." Perhaps they will not be when Hawaii comes into the Union as a State. As to this, Mr. Hitt disclaimed all intelligence. Congress, he said, would determine, and it would do what the American people desired. When pressed for his personal opinion, he

finally admitted that territory annexed represented States in embryo, and that Hawaii might eventually "assume the quality of statehood."

One of the first difficulties encountered by the Populist Congressmen who pine for empire has been over the charter of an International American Bank. These statesmen are thirsting for foreign commerce, but commerce is very dependent on banking facilities, and a large part of the Populist creed consists of denunciations of banks. One of their leaders has recently published an article intended to demonstrate that as a nation we are practically bankrupt owing to the rapacity of these institutions, whose claims for interest absorb the entire earnings of the farmers. In some cases the savings-banks in California get as much as 50 per cent. interest on the money they lend, and savings-banks are probably the mildest species of bank that is known. For the Government of the United States to charter a corporate monster with a capital of $25,000,000, in view of these conditions, is enough to make the reason of a Populist totter on its throne. In truth, there is much ground for apprehending future jobbery in connection with an institution of this kind which obtains a special charter from Congress, but the Populists have wearied the public with their abuse of banks in general, and can therefore get no hearing for their objections to this bank in particular. Nevertheless, some of the privileges to be granted were so palpably excessive that the supporters of the bill had to give them up. Under this charter the stockholders would have been exempt from personal liability, and many of the restraints which are imposed on national banks were omitted, while no provision was made for State taxation.

The debate on the charter of the proposed International Bank led to the discovery of a bill introduced by Senator Quay for the incorporation of a national association of manufacturers. Nothing could be more innocent than the purpose of this bill as explained by the Senator from Pennsylvania. The association was not to be a trading company in any sense, but it was thought that in collecting information abroad and in showing samples of American goods, "minor commercial transactions" were sometimes necessary. In order to carry on these minor transactions, however, Senator Quay's bill enabled the corporation to have an unlimited capital stock and to take and hold real and personal property to any amount and for an indefinite time. The purposes of the incorporators under this bill may have been to engage in minor transactions, but their charter would enable them to establish another East India Company. On the whole, it is safer for Congress to spend its time in passing special pension acts than in chartering companies to exploit our future colonial possessions.

The Republican convention in the President's own State was held last week, and its platform must be considered to "sound the keynote" for the party in the fall campaign throughout the country. Nothing could well be imagined which would better illustrate the disastrous effect of war with a foreign nation upon home interests than the reactionary character of this deliverance. Mr. McKinley was elected President in 1896 upon the financial issue. It seems almost incredible, but it is a fact, that the resolutions adopted by the Ohio Republicans in 1898 make not even the most distant reference to the financial issue. They "congratulate the country upon the fact that, in response to the demand of the St. Louis platform and the will of the people, expressed at the polls in November, 1896, protection and reciprocity, twin measures of Republican policy, have been reëstablished, and have been embodied into public law by the enactment of the Dingley bill"; but they imply that these were the only "measures of Republican policy" over which there was a contest at the polls in November, 1896. There is not the slightest reference to the plank in the platform of 1896 upon which the real fight was waged—the plank which declared "for sound money," held that "the existing gold standard must be preserved," and favored "all measures designed to maintain inviolably the obligations of the United States and all our money, whether coin or paper, at the present standard." Measures for this purpose have engaged the attention of thoughtful men, both in and out of Congress, for many months, but the Republican managers in Ohio coolly ignore the whole subject.

The national platform of 1896 contained a plank which said that "the civil-service law was placed on the statute-book by the Republican party, which has always sustained it, and we renew our repeated declarations that it shall be thoroughly and honestly enforced and extended wherever practicable." The platform just adopted in Ohio contains a resolution which says that "the civil-service law was extended by the last Democratic Administration far beyond its purpose and intent, and we favor such modification thereof and such revocation of orders as will conform it to the original spirit and object of the law." The national platform of 1896 expressly avoided endorsement of the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands. "The Hawaiian Islands," it said, "should be *controlled* by the United States, and no foreign Power should be permitted to interfere with them." The Ohio platform of 1898 declares that "we most heartily approve of the steps now being taken by Congress and the President, providing for the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands as a part of the United States, and hereby express the urgent wish that the same be fully accomplished at the earliest practicable date by the passage by the Senate of the joint resolution which has already met with the approval of the House of Representatives."

The platform of the Republican State convention in Vermont is the first indication yet afforded of the attitude which the politicians of the dominant party in New England are disposed to assume towards the questions growing out of the war. The convention in Montpelier adopted its deliverance on the same day with the one which assembled at Columbus, but the committee on resolutions in the Green Mountain State did not altogether ignore the financial question like their brethren in Ohio, for they not only reaffirmed their loyalty to the cardinal principles of the Republican party as enunciated in the national platform of 1896, but specified "especially the doctrines of protection and sound money." The two platforms agree in favoring the construction by the United States of the Nicaraguan Canal, while the Vermont resolution also calls explicitly for its "control" by this nation. The Ohio platform warmly endorses the annexation of Hawaii, while the Vermonters are silent on the subject, out of deference to the feelings of the venerable Senator Morrill quite as much as from sympathy with his opposition to the scheme, in all probability. The Ohio resolutions declare that the people can safely leave the wise and patriotic solution of the great questions growing out of the war, including "the disposition to be made of conquered territory," to a Republican President and Congress; while the Vermont Republicans declare themselves on one aspect of this question, and leave the rest to the officials at Washington, in these terms:

> "We are opposed to the resurrender to Spanish misrule of any territory which the valor of our army and navy has rescued or may hereafter rescue from the hands of the enemy, and we have an abiding confidence that a Republican President and Congress will so shape the future of such territory as best to promote the welfare of its inhabitants and the true glory of our country."

The Vermont platform has one plank which is a novelty. For many years the two pet aversions of every good Republican in that part of the country were "the rebels" and "British gold." There was no other State in which the platform-makers continued so long to "view with alarm" the prospect that the people down South meant to pay the rebel debt and reënslave the blacks if a Democratic President should ever be elected, or in which the bugbear of "the Cobden

Club" had so terrifying an effect upon the good deacon who happened to think about it when he was late in getting home from the store. Everybody knows that conventions are apt to adopt platforms without a perfectly clear comprehension of all the resolutions on the part of many delegates, and some of those who voted at Montpelier on Wednesday to accept the committee's report, must have rubbed their eyes when they got hold of a newspaper and found that they had approved such revolutionary sentiments as these:

"We welcome the increasing signs of sympathy and unity between North and South, and trust that in this blaze of war all barriers between us may be burned away. We are not unmindful, either, of the hand that is stretched to us across the sea, and in England's sympathy with us at this time we see fresh proof that blood is thicker than water, and feel increased confidence that in the Anglo-Saxon race rests the cause of human liberty throughout the world."

The State Civil-Service Commission will send to the Mayor of each city in the State a copy of Attorney-General Hancock's opinion which virtually annuls Gov. Black's "starchless" law of 1897 by ruling that it does not apply to the cities, and will notify the Mayors that hereafter they must abandon the separate "fitness" examination, and that the appointing officer must make his choice in each case from the three candidates standing at the head of the list on the basis of examinations conducted by the local Civil-Service Commissioners to determine the qualifications of all applicants according to the old standards. As the State Civil-Service Commission, like the Attorney-General, is in accord with the Governor, this circular, following the opinion of the Executive's legal adviser, leaves no doubt that Gov. Black has become convinced that the law which he persuaded the Legislature to pass a year ago is a failure, and, what is more, that he is ready to admit that he made a bad blunder in the matter.

What purports to be a correct outline of Gov. Black's favorite measure for a bi-partisan State Election Board is so extraordinary in character that it is impossible to believe the Governor will recommend its enactment at the proposed extra session of the Legislature. It is nothing less than a scheme to saddle upon the State a great army of workers for both political parties, at a cost of at least $2,000,000 a year. To bring this about, the entire control of elections and of the final canvass of the vote is to be taken away from the local and State officials who exercise those powers at present, and put into the hands of the partisans of both political parties, to be managed by them to suit themselves, while the State foots the bills. The Governor is to appoint a bi-partisan Board of Elections of four members, two from each of the great political parties, and is to appoint them on the nomination of the executive committees of those parties. They are to hold office for five years at a salary of $6,000 a year each. They are to appoint a State Supervisor of Elections, to hold office during good behavior, at $6,000 a year. When they cannot agree upon the selection of a Supervisor, the Governor, upon the recommendation of two members, may appoint him. The Board will have supervision of county boards of elections and of the registration and elections held within the counties, except town meetings and village and school elections not held at the same time as the general election. The State Supervisor will furnish all the registers, books, and instructions and oaths for the use of county and district boards of election, as well as all other necessary supplies. Certificates of nomination will be filed with him. He is to have plenary police power and authority in all matters pertaining to registration and elections, and all sheriffs, deputy sheriffs, and police or peace officers will be subject to his orders.

This is the mere starting-point. There is to be a Deputy State Supervisor in every county, with power to appoint in each election district two deputies, one for each political party, who, like himself, will have police powers. Any one who interferes with them in the discharge of their duty, upon conviction will be guilty of a felony punishable by imprisonment of from one to three years, and, if he is a police or peace officer, he will forfeit his office. Each deputy is to receive a salary of $5 a day, and each chief deputy a salary of $3,000 in New York and Kings, and in Queens and in Richmond a salary of $2,000. In all other counties the salaries of the members of the board will be fixed by the Board of Supervisors. The chief effect of the measure would be to give to each political machine a great force of workers about the polls, on registration and election days, at the public expense. Under the present election law these workers cannot get nearer to the polls than 100 feet, and the consequence is that most of them have gone out of the business. The new law would put them into the polling-places, with police authority and $5 a day paid by the State. Bad as this aspect of the measure is, the general or State aspect of it is far worse, for it would put the entire election machinery of the State under the direct control of the bosses.

The final scenes in the Spanish Cortes were almost past belief, such endless recrimination, such fantastic displays of wounded honor, such rhodomontade, such braggart cries, winding up with voting to pay the interest on the Cuban debt in depreciated money and adjourning, in obedience to the royal decree, without the customary cheers for the throne. Even the reporters had to pose in the eye of the nation, rising in a body and going out when the Minister of Marine intimated that some of his remarks had been "distorted" by a member of their honorable profession. If honor was the universal theme, they would air their own. Such revelations of Spanish character astound the world. If an exhibition like this were to be made in Washington, we should think the war could not go on a day longer; that soldiers would refuse to fight for a country in the hands of such rulers. But in Spain the impossible is the ordinary, the absurd is the characteristic. All these outbursts are supposed somehow to make for Spanish glory and Spanish "honor."

The more the arguments against the introduction of the gold standard in India are examined, the feebler they appear. Much was made by Sir Robert Giffen of the plea that India was a "debtor country," having to pay out more money to foreign creditors than she could easily raise. A correspondent of the *Economist* has been at the pains to see how the facts correspond with this assertion, with the result of completely exploding it. In the first place, he shows that for the half century preceding the closing of the Indian mint to silver in 1893 exchange was regularly in favor of India, and has been increasingly so ever since. Moreover, the statistical abstract published by the Indian Government shows that during the last sixty years India, whether a poor debtor or not, has been quietly absorbing great quantities of gold as well as silver. From 1836 to 1896 the excess of the imports of gold amounted, in tens of rupees, to the large total of 146,685,000, and the net imports of silver to 375,000,000. The silver has been coined, for the most part, but the gold has apparently been hoarded or converted into ornaments. When it is asked how India can afford to adopt the gold standard, it is enough to reply that gold will be obtained in the future as it has been in the past. There is nothing mysterious about the method. It is nothing but the familiar process of selling more merchandise than you buy, and taking the balance due you in cash. During these same sixty years India exported goods of the value of Rx. 3,064,000,000. The value of her imports was Rx. 1,931,000,000. The trade balance in her favor would thus be Rx. 1,133,000,000. The bills drawn by the Government would probably exhaust half of this credit balance, and there are, of course, other remittances on private account. Nevertheless, there would be a balance remaining amply sufficient to enable the Indian Government to import sufficient gold for its monetary purposes.

BLOCKADES AND CONTRABAND.

The Navy Department, with the aid, it is said, of the State and War Departments, has framed an order on the subject of blockades and contraband, which is probably the best compendium in existence of the rules of international law on these subjects recognized as binding everywhere. Of course, neither the Navy Department, nor even the State, War, and Navy Departments together, can give force to a single rule, because no rules of international law can come into existence by the act or edict of a single nation. But, as every student of the subject knows, one nation can easily confuse and impede the natural development of international law by undertaking to act upon principles not recognized by the others, and on certain occasions in their history many nations have been guilty of this species of offence. We were guilty of this sort of lawlessness in attempting to hold the Confederate envoys Mason and Slidell, whom we forcibly took out of the British mail steamer *Trent;* England for many years violated the principles of international law by searching American ships on the high seas in time of peace; in very recent times the nondescript doctrines of "benevolent neutrality" and "pacific blockade" have been invented or taken up by Powers either themselves belligerent, or acting in the interests of belligerents, in order to break a rule while formally acknowledging its binding force. Hence it might have been anticipated that the United States, as soon as it should be engaged in a war with a foreign country, would try to warp the recognized rules, which favor neutrals, and which it, as a great pacific Power, has helped to build up. But there is nothing in general order No. 492 of the Navy Department which bears heavily on neutrals, or which shows any tendency on the part of our Government to bend the law in its own favor.

One of the first practical questions which arose in the present war was that of blockades, and we have adopted, *i. e.*, acknowledged, the validity of the rule of the declaration made by European Powers in 1856 at Paris, that blockades to be binding must be "effective." It is understood that the Spanish Government objects to our blockade of certain designated Cuban ports as not being "effective," the fact urged against its effectiveness being that several foreign vessels have "run" it. This raises the question, What does an "effective" blockade mean? The answer given by the Navy Department is that it means a blockade maintained "by a force sufficient to render ingress and egress from a port dangerous," and that "the continuity of a blockade is not broken if the blockading vessels are driven away by stress of weather or are absent on a chase, but it is broken if they leave voluntarily or are driven away by the enemy's force." It may be a question whether the first part of this definition has made the rule clearer than the Powers made it at Paris, for "dangerous" is a rather less definite term than "effective"; we should be inclined ourselves to prefer the original word selected at Paris, and have little doubt that everybody knows what "effective" means. The idea that it means "absolute" or "impassable" has no foundation; it was introduced to exclude the idea of a "paper" blockade, *i. e.*, a proclamation of blockade, as distinguished from an actual patrol and closure of the entrance to an enemy's harbor. If the Spanish Government really thinks that occasional evasion of a blockade by an enemy or neutral ship means that the blockade must be given up, it is only a new illustration of the ignorance prevailing in Spain on the subject. In our civil war, when the Federal Government blockaded all the ports of the Confederate States, "blockade-running" between England and several Southern ports was a regular branch of illicit commerce; but it did not prove the blockade ineffective. It was because the blockade was effective that blockade-running became profitable.

With regard to contraband, the order takes a position which no decision of any court is likely to contravene, and which is in accord with the most liberal views on the subject. There is no subject on which there is more confusion in the popular mind than on that of contraband of war, partly because the subject itself is far from simple, and partly because belligerent nations have generally tried to extend the list of contraband articles. We have never tried to do so, and there is no evidence in the present order that we are going to begin now. The principle underlying the regulation announced is, that while certain things are in their nature contraband, because they are adapted and designed only for hostile use by the enemy, others may become contraband by force of circumstances. Thus, under the head of "absolutely contraband," we have ordnance, machine-guns, armor plate, weapons of all kinds, torpedoes, cases for mines, gun carriages, caissons, cartridge-boxes, canteens, pontoons, range-finders, explosives, machinery for the manufacture of arms and munitions of war, saltpetre, military accoutrements and equipments of all kinds, and horses; on the other hand, under the head of "conditionally contraband" we find "coal, when destined for a naval station, a port of call, or a ship or ships of the enemy," materials for the construction of railways or telegraphs, money destined for the enemy's forces, and provisions destined for an enemy's ship or ships, or for a place that is besieged.

The true test of the right of a belligerent to interfere with neutral commerce is whether the neutral is helping the enemy. The neutral is bound to see that neither its territory nor its ships are used for this purpose, and the rules of international law with reference to contraband of war, and also with reference to the right of belligerents to use neutral ports, are designed to enforce this restriction. In the first of these cases, the rule is enforced by the belligerent through the right of search and its prize courts; in the second, it is enforced by the neutral. Munitions of war are absolutely and always contraband, because they are absolutely and always designed for belligerent use; coal, on the other hand, may not be contraband, and is, therefore, excluded from the absolute list. Of course, the question of the right of search for contraband coal has nothing to do with the right of belligerents to coal in neutral ports, as Admiral Camara is said to desire to do at Port Said, or as Admiral Cervera is said to have done at Curaçao. The right to do this is governed by the neutral's regulations, and as the neutral is bound to see that its territory is not used as a base for hostile operations, belligerents are rarely allowed to do more than come in for necessary repairs and enough coal to take them to a home port. If a neutral neglects its duty in this regard, it can be called to account only by the belligerent state itself, as England was by us in the case of the *Alabama.*

It is, of course, for our interest that we should interfere as little as possible in this war, with neutrals, but we may claim in our own favor that we have, in our regulations governing our proceedings, taken a singularly enlightened view of our own interest. This is due chiefly to the fact that the Navy and the State Departments are in the hands of exceptionally enlightened men.

JINGO DIFFICULTIES.

It is a curious illustration of the flighty character of the Jingo mind that it does not perceive that in broaching its new anti-isolation policy it is laying the axe at the root of the Monroe Doctrine. All the expounders of that doctrine, from John Quincy Adams to Mr. Olney, have agreed on one point—that it was a peculiarly "American" doctrine, intended to keep Europe and her institutions, and her tendency to encroachment on strangers' rights at bay. One branch of it was that America was to be kept for Americans, and the corrollary was no less explicitly admitted, as may be seen by looking at Monroe's message, that with the colonies of Europe we were not to interfere. The doctrine was undoubtedly deduced from the fact of isolation. Commercially as well as politically, for the first fifty years of our existence, remoteness was certainly a marked feature of our existence.

But the Jingoes have now begun to

dislike isolation strongly, partly, perhaps, because it was associated in their minds with peace, and they have begun to clamor against it and denounce it, and insist on a policy of alliances and imperialism—imperialism meaning the absorption by the United States of several existing European colonies, on both sides of the ocean. That this is fatal to the Monroe Doctrine any one can see. We fully agree with the Jingo publicists that Washington, were he alive to-day, would not insist on our being guided by a foreign policy dictated by the circumstances of the last century, and it is more than possible that were he redrafting his farewell address for our use, he would point out that steam and the telegraph have made the nations of the earth next-door neighbors in a way that they were not a century ago, and in a way that could not have been, a century ago, anticipated. He would probably say, too, that isolation is a question of fact, not of theory, and that having been brought to an end in fact, we had better recognize the change and act upon it. But we cannot give up isolation and enjoy its fruits at the same time. We cannot warn everybody off from our hunting-grounds, and talk about the "European" system and the "American" system, if we are going at the same time to plunge up to our necks into the former and insist that European colonies must be permanently governed or "protected" by us. If we do not like isolation, we must bid good-by to the Monroe Doctrine.

The Jingoes, who care nothing for a dilemma, evidently do not yet perceive that they are killing the Monroe Doctrine, and, to judge by what they are about, would like to keep up the old policy of isolation in one quarter while they abandon it in another. They are pushing their Nicaragua Canal scheme now, and this, it will be remembered, is to be a pure Monroe Doctrine canal. It is to be a canal of Americans, by Americans, and for Americans. It is to be part of "the coast line of the United States," and no European nation is to have anything to say about it. But when the Jingoes have got it dug, they will be confronted with the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, which England insists is in force, and which declares that the canal shall be neutral water, for the use of the whole world. Two years ago the Jingoes might have replied that circumstances have made the Clayton-Bulwer treaty inapplicable, and that our policy with regard to canals was one of isolation, but this we can no longer urge, because it is part of our new policy to have a cordial understanding with England, and England's interest in the canal, through Canada and her own commerce, is at least as great as ours. In fact, it is plain enough that if there were no Clayton-Bulwer treaty, one would have to be made. Of the beautiful Jingo dream of a canal from which we could exclude the whole world, the Jingoes, with their new policy, are robbing us.

The real Jingo, in his heart, always hated England, and thought that being truly "American" meant to insult England and revile the English Government. We, on the contrary, have always maintained that the two countries were substantially united by the force of circumstances in their aims, ideals, prejudices, and interests. The moment the present war broke out, the essential cohesion of the race was made plain to the world. Even the Jingo saw it at last and "shut up" about England. One of the first results of the war was an understanding on the subject of Canada which will probably settle for ever most of the questions at issue between England and the United States. So far as England is concerned, the Jingoes are forced by stress of circumstances to carry out the genuine Mugwump policy of peace and good will. No wonder they do not like it, and seek to cover up their submission to the inevitable by shrieking that they will never give up the Philippines and will never allow private capital to build a canal across the isthmus. But the real destiny of both the United States and of England is beyond their control, and determined by forces which they neither shape nor understand.

HOW THE SPEAKERSHIP LOOKS NOW.

One of the most striking incidents in connection with the Hawaiian resolutions has gone almost unperceived and without comment. When they passed the House the Speaker was not in the chair. He was absent, ill (perhaps diplomatically), but was represented by a friend, who said that Mr. Reed, if present, would have voted "no." That marked the end of a long controversy between the Speaker and the champions of annexation. It revealed him standing almost absolutely alone, so far as party friends were concerned, and as one of a feeble minority, nearly all Democrats. Nor was this the first time that the House had rolled on its way over the prostrate form of the Speaker. In all the questions leading up to the Spanish war—belligerency, fifty-million appropriation, at last the ultimatum—it was known that he strongly wished the House to go one way when it was resolutely going the other.

Mr. Reed's course in all these matters was no doubt deliberately chosen, and has been highly honorable to him. Courage to oppose a popular mania, above all to go against party, is not so common a political virtue that we can afford not to pay our tribute to the man who exhibits it. Speaker Reed has already had, we cannot doubt, evidences of approval which, next to that of his own conscience, he must value highest, and we believe that time will vindicate his political sagacity. But it is not of Mr. Reed personally, so much as of the office he holds, that we wish to speak at present. What is the bearing of these recent events upon the speakership itself? How does the theory of the Speaker's function, advanced by many of late years—advanced by Mr. Reed himself—appear in the light of the Speaker's overwhelming defeat on the two capital political questions of the day?

What that theory is we have been frequently told since 1889. With Mr. Reed's first election to the speakership in that year, and with the masterful methods adopted by him, we began to hear of the new place and power which the office was hereafter to hold in American government. His party and personal friends explained in speech and article how it was time to give up the idea of the Speaker as a mere impartial moderator of the House. He was to be, not simply a presiding officer, but the Leader of the House, at any rate the leader of his party, as near an approach to a Prime Minister as we could get under our system. When Mr. Reed left the chair in 1891, he boldly adopted this view of the speakership. In his farewell remarks, he stepped forth as the leader of his party, assumed responsibility for Republican policy, and ignored the minority entirely. The book on the speakership written by Miss Follett closes with a statement which undoubtedly represents the position of Mr. Reed. It is this: "All theories aside, no matter what we want or what we do not want, the whole history of the House of Representatives, from an institutional point of view, has been the history of the concentration of legislative power in the hands of the Speaker of the House."

Events of the past year make that dictum sound queer enough. What part of "legislative power" is more important than acts which lead to war? Yet so far from that power being concentrated in the Speaker's hands, it was torn out of them with but little more respect for his wish and will than if he had been only a page on the floor. What greater responsibility can legislative power face than that involved in annexing new territory and so taking a first step in what may be a revolution in the national life and character? But here is the Speaker, Leader of the House, leader of his party, run away with by both party and House, in this transcendent matter, as if he were but a child attempting to hold back a sixteen-mule team. We think Mr. Reed himself must be rubbing his eyes over his broken-down theory of the speakership; and as for Miss Follett's book, a new and corrected edition of that would seem to be imperatively demanded.

The truth is, the theory of the Speaker as an American Prime Minister had always two fatal weaknesses. One was that

it did not contemplate times of storm and stress. In the ordinary routine work of Congress, the conception of the Speaker as absolute dictator of legislation was plausible enough. The facts all looked that way. By his power to appoint committees, by his control of the committee on rules, above all by the power of "recognition," the Speaker appeared to be not the servant but the master of the House. Mr. Reed used to deprecate, though with a chuckle, references to his absolute rule. Oh, no, he was but the creature of the House. Still, in piping times of peace, there was none to stay his hand or say, What doest thou? But suddenly rose the surging passions of the war. The insurrection in Cuba set the House in insurrection. The blowing up of the *Maine* blew up the fiction of the Speaker's supreme control of legislation. Into the war the House dragged him, protesting and struggling, and wild for annexation it rushed, in a way to prove that his supreme control was little more than control of his own vote. The masterful Speaker was mastered.

The other great defect in the view that the Speaker is chief lawgiver lay all along in the fact that he had no direct responsibility to the country and no way of appealing to it directly. His power was largely a tacit power. It was won by management, by something very like intrigue, at least by working under the surface. What his power actually was and how he got it the plain people did not really know. And when the machinery escaped from his control, he had no way of going to the country as a real Prime Minister has. It is noticeable in both these great controversies wherein Speaker Reed has been vanquished that he never once spoke out openly. He wrote letters; he inspired newspaper articles; he labored with friends and associates—but all in private. His position was well known, but it was known only through inference. He might have declared himself in Congress or in public, but he never did. He did his best with the machinery of the House, but when that failed him, he was done.

Many personal and political morals might be drawn from this recital of facts. We content ourselves with only one—a voiceless man can be neither a leader of his party nor a leader of the people. We do not say that Mr. Reed could have changed the result by a bold speech or speeches, by giving the country something to rise to. But the country certainly will not rise to a man who does his work in secret, slipping in and out of committee-rooms, summoning this and that man by night for consultation and persuasion. If ever the speakership is to be what Mr. Reed has asserted for it, it must be filled by a man who not only has a policy, but a voice to defend it. This Speaker Reed has not had in our recent crisis; and a Speaker who will not speak out is only another name for a leader who will not lead.

CARICATURE TYPES.

The war has not thus far produced much novel caricature, the caricaturists being satisfied for the most part with the old types—and this, too, although there is some complaint of them. A few critics have appeared who declare that there is not sufficient correspondence between the type and what it typifies. John Bull, for instance, it is said, might well enough two generations ago have been regularly set before us as a burly, red-cheeked farmer; and in the days when the "American Cousin" made the fortunes of a theatre, the United States might fairly have been caricatured as a long, lank, lantern-jawed Yankee whittler. But in these days John Bull and we have become more cosmopolitan, and both countries should endeavor to introduce a new caricature type which would be more "up to date."

The same criticism is not made of the types used to represent other countries; but then there is nothing in caricature elsewhere which exactly corresponds with John Bull and Uncle Sam. The French and Germans and Russians and other Continentals have an ideal figure for their respective countries—just as we have Columbia and the English have Britannia—but no provision has as yet been made for them of grotesque national types which typify to the whole world their own anti-ideal view of themselves. We could not possibly admit that Müller and Schmidt of the *Kladderadatsch*, or Jacques Bonhomme, good men as they may be in their way, are in the same class with Uncle Sam and John Bull, the national heroes of a thousand jokes and the heirs of all the ages of caricature. The nations of the Continent take themselves too seriously to produce such types, and consequently, when we wish to caricature them, we are rather put to it for material. Russia as a bear, Germany as a helmeted war lord, France as a little soldier, are recognizable, but not particularly laughter-provoking. When it comes to Spain, we represent that wretched country as a murderous, cowardly monster, half hidalgo, half bullfighter, while the Spanish caricaturist draws us as pigs. In neither case is a true caricature type, appreciable all over the world, produced. The pig caricature is evidently relished in Spain, but to the average American citizen it is a little too feminine to rankle very much—we cannot help feeling that when the Spaniards know us better the satire will lose its zest, and we even find a hardy American caricaturist converting the pig into a wild boar with two terrible tusks, one of which is called Army and the other Navy, and which together threaten speedily to disembowel the very repulsive Don who has roused him from his lair.

Without undue pride, we may be sure that it indicates a great advance in civilization when any nation reaches the point of caricaturing as well as idealizing itself. Rome not only had "no waterfall two hundred and fifty feet high," but she had little or no political humor, and the Latin races to-day are unable to see that they lag behind Anglo-Saxondom in this respect. The English and ourselves have reached the point at which humor, going hand in hand with love of country and self-love, may often save us from the fate which might overtake a graver race. No doubt, it may be said that we can afford to joke about ourselves better than some other countries, because we are so much richer and more prosperous, and that a good deal of our jocularity is of the *nouveau-riche* kind; but is it not also true that we are more prosperous than some nations that we could name because we have such a keen sense of humor and like to caricature ourselves? It is a striking proof of the healthiness and value of caricature that the bosses in New York should have determined to suppress it as soon as possible by legislation.

But if the question of novelty is raised, is there any reason to think that our established types of John Bull and Uncle Sam will in the course of time be modified? We doubt it, because, grotesque as they are, there is nothing in our present circumstances to afford the groundwork for a new national type on either side of the ocean. We hear a great deal from the "imperialists" about "new national aspirations," and a "resolute determination to discharge the responsibilities which circumstances have thrust upon us," but this is not specially American or very new; it is at once an echo of the talk of the English imperialists and the "tall talk" of our own native land. Uncle Sam, clothed, as he always has been, in the stars and stripes, long ago described the United States as bounded on the east by the Atlantic Ocean and on the west by the setting sun, on the south by the vernal equinox and on the north by the aurora borealis—a splendid burst which John Bull looked on, and still looks on, as exaggerated. There were annexationists before Grosvenor, and Birdofredum Sawin was an imperialist. It must be confessed that the externals of the Uncle Sam type are somewhat antique, and that the typical American of fifty years ago was more like him than the American type is to-day. But, after all, this is a small matter. He is a symbol, and, once accepted as such, we cannot change him every generation or two.

There are advantages about a fixed caricature type which fixity alone can give. John Bull may not be exactly the same sort of man as his father or grandfather, but he is a chip of the old block,

and nobody has the slightest doubt as to his identity. We know that he is honest (his honest expression is, according to the Continental view, only a cover for the most shocking hypocrisy; but then they go too far on the Continent), and will always stand up for his rights and rescue a woman or child in distress, and that he is bluff and outspoken and prudent and saving, and at times a trifle dull, and always English. In the same way, Uncle Sam is still the American type as he existed during the civil war and for fifty years before it. He is anything but a beautiful type—that is his niece Columbia's part—but he represents everything else. He is shrewd, although with a kindly shrewdness which comes from his old habit of aiming at philanthropy and the main chance together; he is preternaturally patriotic and democratic, both in dress, speech, and sentiment, and he, too, is ever ready to rescue females in distress, who not unnaturally cling to him for protection. He is usually suspicious of John Bull, but once in a generation sympathizes with him, and to J. B.'s "Hands all round" gives him a rousing "Blood is thicker than water." He "talks United States," and not, as is commonly supposed, the language of Shakspere and Milton, but he understands Shakspere and Milton, and likes to hear John Bull quote them. He is decidedly egotistic and fond of flattery, and though from his appearance a non-combatant like John Bull, he is ready to arm himself at a moment's notice from head to foot, and defy the world. He has, at the same time, a quizzical smile, which shows that he recognizes a certain want of simplicity in his character, which he rather enjoys as a trait different from any of John's. He will outlive us, we may be sure, and, for ourselves, we could not wish him changed. Were he to vanish and be replaced by some new and improved type, we should feel a certain uneasiness. In his society we feel the continuity of our institutions and the permanence of the qualities that make us what we are and must be.

DOUBLINGS AWHEEL FROM MENTON TO STONEHENGE.

YALE UNIVERSITY, June 18, 1898.

The lists of the Touring Club of France contain the names of many new American members, of both sexes and from all parts of the land. Mr. Brown, *avocat*, of Chicago, follows Mr. Green, *rentier*, of Boston; and not far away are Mrs. and Miss Grey of San Diego. Now that the war flurry need no longer prevent, all the indications are that people will go abroad with their wheels as usual, and these members will enjoy the privileges of their membership. May I therefore take up my parable, in the hope of being useful to some tourists, and add a few words further to my former account? I left off with the dragging of a pine tree, for a brake, down a pass to the Grande Chartreuse. I wanted at the time to tell about a certain safety netting the Touring Club has set up to catch bicyclists plunging to destruction at a chasm near Menton, but I had not room for it. There has been considerable mention of the device in the foreign newspapers, and it was one of the features of my visit to the Riviera.

I went down there in the early part of August; it is not the usual season for people to go, but the summer heat need not deter, for it is by no means so trying as our own. I took from Grenoble the Bourbonnais branch of the P. L. M. and then the South of France Railway. The latter is not completed to through connection. A considerable section, over the pass, from near Digne to Puget-Théniers, remains unbuilt and must be covered by old-fashioned stage-coaching. The roads are everywhere excellent, the mountain scenery striking. You are following in the main the route taken by Napoleon on his adventurous return from Elba. I utilized the diligence for climbing the steepest part of the pass. The perfervid sun upon the rubber tires of the bicycle, stowed under the hood on top, seemed likely to make them explode. Owing to the ridiculous circumstance that a bulldog, taken on as a passenger, held sway there and refused to let a finger be laid upon anything within his domain, the valves could not be opened, but fortunately he was lured away from his post at a way station, and the danger was past.

A stiff head wind—it is not often a wheelman has cause to bless a head wind—served as a substitute for a brake on the steeper grades, and I descended comfortably to the lower levels. The torrent roared through its wild gorges, after the way of mountain torrents, the road passed under overhanging precipices or cut them by tunnels, lighted with cyclopean loopholes, and now and again a high-backed old broken bridge of the Fra Diavolo pattern half spanned the chasm. Then the hamlet of Entrevaux stood by the very roadside with all the mediæval fortifications that would once have rendered it a lion in the path. I rode across a drawbridge and under two portcullises into the square, about as large as a good-sized courtyard. The entire population, apparently, was assembled in peaceful committee, the women knitting, the men at the café. The landlord received me with a grave welcome; if they wondered at me or my bicycle, they gave no sign of it. I took a cooling drink, mounted, and rode on; no yellow dwarf sounded his warder horn either on my coming or my going, though I do not know why he did not. I dipped into mediæval Entrevaux and out again as into one of the cool patches of shadow that lay across the bright Provençal road. Lower down, the Var and its lateral gorges are lined with such towns, but for the most part remote and inaccessible, standing out in some strong gleam of light, and then dying away into their cliffs as if they had no real existence. The long bridge of Charles Albert is a famous point of view for these dream-like effects. The Var, once the boundary between France and Italy, is from that point a fine wide river-bed with absolutely nothing in it but pebbles and sand. It is an occasion for being struck very forcibly, as the humorist says, with the importance of water to a river.

Nice was more shut up than ever, so far as its foreign guests were concerned, but the gay little bathing pavilions brightened the beach, and the crowds hung in the evening around the music issuing from the grand cafés. I rode down the Promenade des Anglais, entered a garden embowered in rose laurel, and leaned my wheel against a wall, including some lower shutters. Some friends hospitably threw wide those shutters, to let in a flood of light upon a visitor unseen in those regions for several years, and, *vlan!* down went my wheel with a bump, and the result was a broken crank-hanger axle. There was the same old Monte Carlo, going on in a desultory way for the summer, a veritable scourge and bane, quite apart from any moral considerations, for it gives a hopeless feverishness and vacuity to everything in what might otherwise be a sort of earthly paradise. There is considerable stiff climbing to get there, beginning with the rise, of a good kilometre, at Mont Boron just out of Nice. In general I see that my recollections were wrong, and there is little level ground in these smooth roads of the Riviera; it is a mountainous country just the same. The roads, too, in the settled districts, like Lord Salisbury's Beaulieu, are often watered to a pasty mud.

The safety netting I have spoken of is a few miles east of Monte Carlo, below the mountain village of Cabbé-Roquebrune. I had conceived it in advance as like one of those nets stretched under a trapeze performer at the circus; the rescued would sway therein over the abyss and reflect with vivid thrills on the narrowness of his escape. But that does not convey the idea at all; it is more like the balcony of a house. The high-road descends very swiftly one side of a chasm or gully that breaks in from the shore; a bridge makes a right angle with it, and the road, having crossed the bridge, goes on down the other side of the gully. A rider, descending at a rapid pace, might lose control of his wheel at the abrupt turn; his wheel would strike the low parapet of the bridge, and he would be projected as from a catapult. This is the contingency that has been had in view by the Touring Club of France. The contrivance by which it stays the luckless victim in mid-air is a stout flooring of iron bars, attached to the upper edge of the parapet, and provided with a railing; upon the flooring is laid a strong wire mesh; a cross-section of the whole is exactly that of a window balcony. There is nothing elastic about it, and the wheelman who should come in contact with those unyielding bars would have cause to rue it for many a day, even though saved from a worse fate. Two lives, however, have already been saved by it, if we may believe the inscriptions (very grateful, though done as yet only in pencil) written upon a board above it. The chasm is full of trees and bushes, and does not appear as dangerous as imagined; I seem to have fallen in with several more perilous places quite unprotected, but no doubt the Touring Club will get around to them all in time.

Returning from Menton, I mounted, with my bicycle, by the cog-wheel road, from Monte Carlo, which invades the once solitary pine-groves and foot-paths, to the upper Cornice Road. The views are glorious down upon the map-like capes and sea, but again there is little of level, and I had a violent contest for supremacy in descending the long abrupt grade to Nice. When I turned from Nice northward again, I spent the first night at a pleasant inn, at Saint-Martin-du-Var, the faithful "vélo"—how many a strange lodging it had!—being housed among the

barrels of a wine-cellar. At that little station the "vélo" was delivered to me with a spring arrangement, attached to it to steady the front fork, broken—the first damage it had ever met with by rail. I sent in a claim to the company. It made no indecorous haste in reply; in a fortnight—I had then pushed on in my travels as far as Brussels—a letter was received. The letter read substantially as follows:

"I have the honor to inform you that the Company considers the breakage brought to its attention as due to causes for which it should not be held responsible. The device in question appears to have been of a fragile nature, it was not protected by packing of any kind, it occupied an exposed position, and, as pivot for the forward wheel, it was subject to be abruptly turned in transportation, without supposing any less than the usual care in handling. I feel assured, therefore, under the circumstances, that you will kindly consent to relinquish your claim for compensation [*J'aime à croire que vous voudriez bien renoncer*, etc.]. Accept the assurance of my most distinguished consideration. [Signed] Blank, Assistant Inspector, for the Chief of Exploitation."

I did relinquish my claim, and I do relinquish it willingly, and would that such courteous tone of response might communicate itself to officialdom, railway and other, throughout the universe! I had made it, indeed, rather to see how such a claim was likely to be treated by a French transportation company than because I felt myself much aggrieved. For although, on the one hand, the spring had gone safely all over France, and therefore was not essentially very fragile, and there was no more reason why it should have been broken in the short run out of Nice than at any previous time, yet, on the other hand, the only wonder was it had not been broken long before. This was the first trace of harm the bicycle had met with in all its two months' travels in France, and it had been transported everywhere, as the French plan is, free of charge. When you reflect how liberally railroads everywhere else remunerate themselves for carrying bicycles, it is evident that those of France are most generous. And, in general, France, both by its roads and its devotion to his interests, is the country that deserves well of the bicyclist more than any other in the world.

I see that the Pennells, in their late magazine articles, have nothing favorable to say of high mountaineering awheel in Switzerland: they were scorched by the sun, choked by the dust, drenched by the rain, and worked twice as hard as any day-laborer. I am the more reconciled, therefore, to having made my main excursion in that country a delightful run around Lake Leman. The Swiss roads and even the city streets are bumpy and bad. Holland I rode the length of from north to south, but, if I had known more, I should have taken it from south to north, as the prevailing wind was energetically against me. Two of my most interesting jaunts were studying on the wheel all the details of the two great battlefields that ended the Napoleonic dynasty, Waterloo and Sedan; I had most delightful leisurely days at both places. Finally, in England, I rode through the New Forest and up to Stonehenge, never sufficiently to be praised for its solemn grandeur, on the bare hills; and so back to Southampton, to take the steamer.

I see the experienced Pennells agree with me in being against mere "fair-weather wheels" in Europe, and they are also against single-tube tires, which can be repaired only in the largest towns. After my first puncture in France, I had put over the tires a pair of reinforcing bands, such as are much in use there. They unstick from time to time and it is necessary to have them reglued. In England I managed to get a small puncture from the hedgerow thorns, and a very complete one from the flints, even through this extra thickness. The latter took place on the lower cross-road from Salisbury to Winchester, by Stockbridge. Beware of that kind of road in England; the main ones are so good that you think you can trust them, but they are mended with broken flints like bits of bottle-glass, and only a semi-occasional wagon passes to grind these down. My breakdown was at evening, near a solitary house, some miles from everywhere. I inquired for some gummy substance with the aid of which and my tire-tape I might make a temporary repair. They had never heard of chewing-gum, they said, and they had no tar, pitch, or anything of that kind. "Have you *no* sticky substance that might serve the purpose?" I made appeal to the people. A woman's face finally brightened as with a happy thought; she went up stairs and brought me down—what think you? Some thin flour paste. I had the puncture mended at Winchester, a man nearly killing himself in putting in a rubber plug—which I furnished him—and charging two and six for the job.

WILLIAM HENRY BISHOP.

THE PARIS SALONS.

JUNE 2, 1898.

By chance, just after seeing the two Salons of 1898, I have read a notice of the one Salon of 1845. That everybody then painted too well was what the critic found desolating. All the world was improving technically, there could be no question of that; but of invention, of ideas, of individuality, the supply was as limited as ever. Take away the date, and you might fancy this written of the exhibitions of to-day, when technical excellence is so universal among painters that even in England, at the Academy, it comes no longer as a surprise. Indeed, the last fifty years have seen a progress so great that, were the same critic still at work, he would have to note—no doubt to his amazement—signs of a reaction against the very perfection for which, during long centuries, the artist has been striving. I do not point this out as something quite new, as something just discovered. For of late the tendency of both Salons, if there has been any tendency at all, has been to conceal technical merit beneath ingenuity of subject, until, among a certain group, the more incomprehensible, the more unintelligible the picture, whatever it might be, the more assured was its creator's claim to genius. Symbolism, Rosicrucianism, Mysticism have been but so many expressions of revolt against that Realism which has for aim photographic accuracy obtained by means of well-trained and skilful craftsmanship. It is late in the day to insist that the basis of great art is technique. The trouble is that, despite the fact, many canvases technically irreproachable are quite worthless artistically, and will not outlive the generation that produced them. To protest against the standards that encourage this sort of excellence is most commendable, but to go to the other extreme, and forget that the artist's invention is in the use he makes of his medium, and not in the abstruse ideas and subtle emotions he would express, is no less serious an error. When passing fads are the result, you can afford to be amused. But it is matter of regret when you see the masters drifting more and more in this direction, as you do at this year's Salons, more especially in the case of two men—one a sculptor, M. Rodin, the other a painter, M. Carrière.

I almost hesitate to speak of M. Rodin's "Balzac." It has become a byword, a standing joke in Paris. Every one now knows that the Société des Gens de Lettres has refused it, though a definite commission was given; that the Municipal Council will not have it at any price, even as a gift. The critics have been at loggerheads over it, and abuse and praise have alike been overdone. Raoul Ponchon has made it the theme for the most jingling rhymes of nonsense he has ever yet contributed to the *Courrier Français;* songs are sung about it by the clever young poets of the Tréteau de Tabarin, the latest rival to the old Chat Noir and the Cabaret of Drumont. In a word, it is enjoying exactly the sort of *réclame* for which the manufacturer of the Salon *machine* would sell his soul and from which the artist shrinks. If it were nothing more than the *machine*, it might be overlooked altogether. But it is the work of quite the most distinguished sculptor of our day; of one who cares too much for his art to degrade it by a mere piece of *blague*, or sensationalism. It is really no wonder that the public and artists too have been puzzled by this huge, shapeless, uncouth mass, set upon a pedestal. Balzac stands, his head well thrown back, wrapped in a great cloak, the sleeves of which hang empty. He has large, protruding—I was on the point of saying melodramatic—eyebrows; his massive throat, in its width and volume, suggests some rare and unpleasant variety of goitre. There is absolutely no form beneath the cloak, except where the arms are vaguely indicated and where one casual foot protrudes from underneath the heavy folds. I could defy any one who saw the back of this curious monument first, not knowing that it was the Balzac, that it was the figure of a man, to understand what the statue is meant to represent. I give my impressions honestly, for certainly they are genuine; I had come prepared to admire. If I did not admire, however, I was far from scoffing. And the longer I looked, the more I was fascinated by this strange work; the more I felt the dignity, the emotion, the grandeur really in the artist's intention. Had I seen it in his studio, had it been exhibited as a sketch, I should have detected in it the germs of a masterpiece. But, in a finished statue, as in a picture, we must have more than beauty or greatness of intention, and I cannot blame the Société des Gens de Lettres and the Municipal Council for their refusal.

Perhaps the most curious part of it all is that Rodin should be willing to exhibit as complete, perfect—that is, as he can make it—this figure which artists whisper among themselves is hardly yet begun. There can be no question of incompetence in such a master of form, no question of shirking work in so true an artist. Could we forget the many lovely designs he has already shown, there is in the same exhibition a group, "Le Baiser," to remind us of his knowledge. If there is no form beneath the graceless heavy cloak, if there is so little

modelling in the throat that it amounts to disfigurement, you may be sure that Rodin intended it should be so, that the inchoate expression he has given to his conception of Balzac is deliberate. To me it seems but another proof of the modern artist's disdain of technical accomplishment. Centuries ago the Greeks brought the sculptor's art to a perfection never yet surpassed. To-day there are dozens, if not hundreds, of men who can model the human figure almost faultlessly. To escape from the lifeless, the soulless learning of the schools, the master sculptor now seeks to animate his marble or clay with an intensity of emotion or passion that could best find voice in music or in verse. The form counts for little; it is the feeling that must transfigure it. But I think those modern critics come nearer the truth who believe that the real artist is he who divines the secret of beauty in actual life, and can make us see, either by his paint or his clay, how really great and poetical we are in our stiff cravats and patent-leather boots.

It is the same with M. Carrière's pictures. Everything—beauty of color, of form, of line, of composition—is being sacrificed to an emotion which none but the painter himself can explain. This year he shows a large decorative panel for the Sorbonne. Two vague figures peer out from the left-hand corner, over a sea of dull leaden mist, in the midst of which, gradually, phantom roofs and houses take shadowy shape. You stand at the other end of the small room (and certainly a mural decoration is meant to be looked at from some little distance), and you see only the leaden dulness, only the depressing mass of cloud or vapor or haze, which in no sense of the word could be thought to decorate anything. In the "Crucifixion" of a year or so ago, this mist, which is now but a mannerism in M. Carrière's work, did not conceal but intensified the tragedy on the Cross. Through it, in the "Theatre at Belleville," you could still discern the fine curves of the balconies, the statuesque pose of a woman here and there in the audience. But in the new decoration the design is as shapeless, as indefinite, as inchoate as the man enveloped in Balzac's cloak. You seem to be conscious only of some unspeakable sadness, some overpowering emotion, to which the painter has struggled vainly to give utterance. And with Carrière, as with Rodin, you feel that this indefiniteness is not a foolish trick, not the result of indolence or a veil to ignorance. You remember the delicate detail in many of his early portraits, the lovely passages of color in a picture like the beautiful, fierce "Maternité," and you realize that here, too, the sacrifice to emotion has been deliberate.

It so happens that M. Carrière has just furnished us with a clue to his mental or emotional attitude. He is holding an exhibition of his collected work in one of the smaller London galleries, and for the Catalogue he has written a Preface. "So short is the way between the gates of birth and death," he writes, "that hardly shall a man choose the road he will follow, hardly shall he learn somewhat of his own soul, ere the ultimate darkness overtake him." And so, everywhere he turns, he is confronted with this "ultimate darkness," as in Maeterlinck's play he always hears Death at the door; and the mist that, year by year, darkens and thickens in his pictures is but a symbol of the uselessness, the waste, the utter futility of human life. It is but a new version of the old skeleton that grinned and grimaced and danced through the designs of Holbein; and the painter who has it within his power to create the Immortal, squanders his time instead in preaching one long sermon on Death.

I have written at length of these two men because I think the tendency of which I have spoken is best illustrated in their work, which, though at times—as at the present—we may not be in sympathy with it, always has its special distinction and individuality. It never fails to be interesting. But, throughout the two Salons, you may note the endeavor to escape from the photographic, from the realism of which Bastien-Lepage was a prophet. One way is by subject: mystical ladies wander through mystical glades; a nude, with a few jewels added, becomes an Enigma; the Scriptures are still searched—M. Dagnan-Bouveret supplementing the "Last Supper" of two years ago with the "Supper at Emmaus," which has also, unexpectedly enough, provided a theme for Mr. Gari Melchers, who, however, does not change his method with his subject. Men like M. Besnard and M. Aman-Jean, on the other hand, rely upon treatment; M. Besnard exaggerating the color and the pose and the expression in his Mme. Réjane until, even to be in the fashion, I cannot see in it anything but a caricature, marvellous as it is technically; M. Aman-Jean varying his decorative fancies, experimenting with his color arrangements, until, for the moment, he has lost the secret of harmony. By contrast, there is a dignity, a serenity, a feeling of repose in the "Sainte-Geneviève" of M. Puvis de Chavannes's new panel for the Pantheon, that more than compensate for the somewhat angular harshness of the lines made by the architecture and the tall, thin figure of the saint, who, from her high balcony, looks down upon Paris, lying below, pale and violet in the soft moonlit night.

I have heard the Salons called, and not without reason, an exhibition of foreigners. It is a pleasure to recognize that the strongest of these foreigners are Americans. In the old salons you have Mr. McEwen's Dutch subjects, with a refinement, a charm of color, not to be ignored in the midst of acres of commonplace, and the pastures of Mr. Bisbing. In the new Salon there are the portraits by Mr. McClure Hamilton, who has a keen eye for character and an entirely personal way of recording it; by Mr. Alexander, amazingly clever, but restless to the point of exasperation, so that it is a relief to look from the ladies in swirling skirts to the little girl who sits quietly and simply in front of her doll; by Mr. Humphreys Johnstone, whose "Madame Sara Bernhardt" is heavy and painty, dull in color, to me a disappointment when I remember the same painter's portrait of his mother. Mr. Childe Hassam exhibits here, I believe, for the first time, at least in many years. His landscapes are ingenious, but they have the same fault of restlessness I find in Mr. Alexander's portraits. In the sculpture hall, Mr. MacMonnies is again preëminent. I should like, however, to see his great chariot in the place for which it was designed before pronouncing upon its merits. It is a vigorous piece of work, but it is impossible for it to tell with any effect in its present position.

Had I space, I should have to speak of the landscapes of Cazin and Billotte in the new Salon, Harpignies and Pointelin in the old. There is other work, of course, which, seen by itself, would command attention, but which simply has no chance when shown with so many hundred other exhibits. The drawings and engravings, to have justice done to them, would require a separate article. The artists who have been so active in the recent revival of lithography and wood-engraving and color-printing still persevere, but I note with regret that they are beginning to elaborate their color work, until in certain lithographs and etchings and woodblocks they seem to be trying to rival a painting. The legitimate use of color, unfortunately, must wait to be discussed; it is not to be dismissed with a few words. But I cannot finish the shortest notice of this year's Salons without at least a reference to the beauty of their new quarters. They have profited by the loss of the Palais des Beaux-Arts and the Palais de l'Industrie, which artists feared as a national disaster. The old machinery hall of the Exhibition of 1889, in which both shows are held, proves that the much-despised iron and glass in the hands of a good architect may give fine proportions, graceful arches, and a wonderful suggestion of light and strength combined.

N. N.

Correspondence.

THE SPOILS OF WAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The solution of the difficult Philippine Islands problem suggested in the last issue of the *Nation* would be an excellent one—a recognition of the Aguinaldo republic and our abandonment of the islands. The civilized world would disapprove of our restoring them to Spain, and the islanders would have a just claim on us to protect them from such a calamity. But this could be done without any formal assumption of protectorship. The object would be effectually accomplished by our making it a condition, in our treaty of peace, that Spain would never attempt a resubjugation of the islands; and a breach of this condition would be a legitimate cause of war. Francis J. Lippitt.

June 24, 1898.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Since we have now learned from those who have inside information on the matter, that it is the Divine Plan for the United States to acquire such valuable property as it may chance to lay its hands on, we ought, in the light of this knowledge, to perceive other parts of the same Divine Plan which have hitherto been hidden from our eyes. We shall then not only piously recognize the hand of Providence in the political victories and defeats of the last few years, but still more shall we admire the astuteness of the Almighty in accustoming us, through the labors of his instrumentalities, Messrs. Platt, Croker, and Quay, to the sight of governments which do not derive their powers from the consent of the governed. B.

Andover, Mass.

THE REVENUE BILL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While quite willing to pay my share of the expenses of the war, I do feel hardly dealt with by that tax on tea. If I were to

write down my dietary, placing the articles in the order of indispensability to my comfort and, as I believe, health, I should place tea second on the list, bread only preceding it. In this I may be singular, but I think there is a growing host in this country who place tea very high in the list of necessaries, a long way, in fact, above coffee. I also believe that a very small minority of this host are readers and supporters of yellow journals and shouters for war.

Furthermore, 10 cents a pound import duty means an addition of not less than 15 cents a pound to the retail price. That is to say, those of us who cannot afford to pay more than 60 cents, or thereabouts, for our tea, are required to pay a tax of 25 per cent. on one of our most necessary articles of diet, while those who can afford to pay a dollar or more will be taxed only at the rate of 15 per cent. or less, and the coffee or chocolate-drinkers will not be taxed at all. This is surely very unfair.

The framers of the revenue bill had perhaps good reason to believe that hardly any of the 60-cent-tea drinkers were Jingoes or yellow-journal readers, and thought this would be a good way of making them pay for their pacific opposition. The only other explanation which has occurred to me is more creditable to them, namely, that they did not wish to enable the numerous manufacturers of adulterated coffee to add the amount of a tax to the enormous profits which they already make on the substances used in adulteration.

Yours most respectfully,

CHARLES J. GEDGE.

CARPENTRIA, CAL.

THE MODERN-LANGUAGES EXAMINATION AT BRYN MAWR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One of your correspondents, in the issue of June 9, took a bold stand in behalf of candidates who came up for the matriculation examination in English and were somewhat staggered at the discrepancy between the subject assigned in the examination paper and the requirement as it appears in the Bryn Mawr programme for 1897. He contends that no college has a right to announce one standard for an examination in its catalogue, and then, without warning, to substitute another. He styles this a positive breach of contract that gives to every candidate a just ground of complaint.

This is not the only instance where such a just ground of complaint could be found. If we turn to the requirements for the entrance examinations in French and in German (page 76 of the programme, 1897), we read that the first "is to test the candidate's knowledge of pronunciation, grammatical forms, and her power to read at sight ordinary French prose and verse"; that "the examination in German is precisely similar to that in French." Now the 1898 French paper calls for answers to eight questions in grammar, including irregular plural forms of nouns (6), irregular feminine forms of adjectives (7), the negative form of a sentence given, the negative plural and interrogative of a second, the translation into French of a third, and twenty-eight verbs in various moods and tenses in full, save the latter form. The German paper calls for answers to three questions in grammar, the first being the genitive singular and plural article to be prefixed to twelve nouns, the gender of which is *appended;* second, the declension of the same noun and adjective with definite and indefinite article *also given;* third, one person of four tenses of twelve verbs.

The French paper calls for the translation of six selections which, according to the programme, should be ordinary French. They consist of passages of poetic prose, dramatic definition, descriptive prose (an essentially French landscape and customs), a portrait (a priest's) by Balzac, a "chronique" from Nice, and twelve lines of verse, the sense of which is apparent only on reading the tenth line. I note a few expressions of this ordinary French: "ces creux vallons superposés," "des aiguillons de glace," "son nez renflé," "sous la ramée," "plaine peu giboyeuse," "mimosa," "le caquetage des consommateurs." The German paper calls for the translation of four passages, three of easy narrative prose (one by Freytag, of which an English translation is in everybody's hands), a fourth of equally easy verse. Each paper is allotted three hours.

Those among your readers who are interested in the matter may be left to decide whether the two papers correspond to the programme and may be considered "precisely similar." The marking of relative averages is of course supposed by me to conform to the one strict standard.

Can our New England schools, public or private, both avowedly of the most thorough character, successfully fit for these tests candidates of the average age of sixteen and seventeen? and is the strain which young minds must stand a weal or a woe?

I am informed that each of these languages counts three points in the indispensable eleven out of the fifteen for matriculation at Bryn Mawr College.

MARION B. HOWDEN.

NEW LONDON, CONN., June 21, 1898.

CARLYLE BIBLIOGRAPHY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The six lectures on "Heroes, Hero-Worship, and the Heroic in History" were delivered by Carlyle in London during 1840. In 1841 these lectures were published in book form (12mo) under the above heading, in London by Frazer and in New York by Harper & Brothers. I am not certain about Frazer, but Chapman & Hall, in August, 1846, published the third edition of the same book.

Mr. MacMechan will find reference to the 1841 American edition in the 'Catalogue of the New York State Library: 1855.'

Yours, A. G.

[Another correspondent refers to the Catalogue of the New York Mercantile Library of 1850, containing two entries of the above work, dated New York, 1841 and 1846. One of our readers has placed in our hands a copy of the second edition (12mo), published in New York by D. Appleton & Co. in 1842.—ED. NATION.]

A RECTIFICATION.

AU RÉDACTEUR DE LA NATION:

MONSIEUR: On me communique l'article que la *Nation* a bien voulu consacrer à la première livraison de mon 'Album d'Antiquités Orientales.' Votre collaborateur anonyme en parle avec une sévérité qui serait peut être justifiée si j'avais eu, comme il paraît le croire, la prétention de donner un "Corpus" ou une "selection"—c'est à dire un recueil, soit complet, soit partiel—de monuments déjà connus et classés en séries plus ou moins méthodiques. Mais il oublie que mon but est tout autre, que cet Album n'est ni un "Corpus," ni une "selection"; qu'il ne doit s'ouvrir, au fur et à mesure de leur apparition, qu' à des monuments inédits ou peu connus intéressant l'archéologie orientale de toute époque, et qu'il est, en réalité, le complément illustré de mon 'Recueil' et de mes 'Études d'Archéologie Orientale'; il reproduit forcément le caractère extrêmement varié de ces deux publications, et le seul ordre qu'il puisse suivre c'est celui des découvertes elles-mêmes, qui est réglé par le hasard. Les tables qui termineront l'Album offriront, d'ailleurs, la répartition voulue, en séries naturelles, de ces divers documents graphiques présentés en bloc.

Dans toute science, les travaux d'ensemble, pour lesquels l'auteur de l'article semble avoir une prédilection marquée, n'ont leur raison d'être qu'après les travaux de détail, après les monographies qui en font tout d'abord connaître et en élaborent minutieusement les éléments premiers. En bonne géometrie, ce sont des points qui créent et déterminent les lignes. . . . L'Album ne vise pas à autre chose qu' à fournir le plus grand nombre possible de ces *points* archéologiques et—j'insiste là dessus—des points nouveaux; à d'autres le soin d'en tirer plus tard, à loisir, de grandes lignes, plus ou moins harmonieusement combinées en figures régulières. Nous avons en français un proverbe qui dit que la première condition "pour faire un civet" c'est d' "avoir un lièvre." Le plus habile maître gueux en archéologie ne ferait rien sans le chasseur. . . . En somme, votre collaborateur trouve mauvais que je fasse la chasse aux antiquités, et voudrait me voir cuisinier. Il me sera permis de lui répondre: à chacun son métier.

Il me sert, en passant, un petit plat de sa façon que je ne puis accepter, sous la forme d'un point d'interrogation dont il accompagne malicieusement à deux reprises le nom de la ville de *Narnaka*, ainsi écrit par moi, en effet, au bas des planches xliii et xliv; cela veut dire, évidemment, dans sa pensée: l'auteur doit estropier le nom, bien connu, de la ville cypriote de *Larnaka*. Or, votre collaborateur ne se doute pas qu'il s'agit d'une ville toute différente de l'antique Citium-Larnaka, d'une ville située dans le nord de l'île et dont le véritable nom est bien *Harnaka*, comme je l'ai écrit à dessein, et comme le prouvent les inscriptions grecques et phéniciennes qui y ont été découvertes. C'est un petit fait que votre collaborateur aurait pu apprendre s'il ne s'en tenait pas aux grands ouvrages doctrinaux, aux ouvrages d'ensemble, qui paraissent avoir toutes ses préférences, et s'il prenait la peine de lire quelquefois ces pauvres petites "monographies" pour lesquelles il professe tant de dédain. La publication de 'L'Album d'Antiquités Orientales' n'eût elle eu que ce mince résultat de lui donner une petite leçon de géographie antique, que ce serait encore suffisant pour me conférer le droit d'interjeter appel de ce jugement final de votre collaborateur, jugement qui équivaut à la mort sans phrases: "There is no reason for the existence of this Album."

Veillez agréer, Monsieur, l'assurance de mes sentiments les plus distingués.

CLERMONT GANNEAU.

Notes.

A very limited edition of a work entitled 'Booktrade Bibliography in the United States in the 19th Century,' by A. Growoll, managing editor of the *Publishers' Weekly*, is shortly to be issued by the Dibdin Club, of which M. L. Greenhalgh, No. 110 East Eighty-seventh Street, New York, is Secretary. A curious feature will be a facsimile reprint of the rare 'Catalogue of All the Books Printed in the United States,' published by the booksellers of Boston in 1804.

'A Handbook of Spanish Phrases,' for the use of our army, by F. J. A. Darr; 'Soldier Songs and Love Songs,' by A. H. Laidlaw; and 'The Examination of Horses as to Soundness and Selection as to Purchase,' by Edward Sewell, will be published next month by William R. Jenkins.

'Leo Tolstoy, the Grand Muzhik,' by G. W. Ferris, is among the latest announcements of T. Fisher Unwin, London. It will contain a provisional list of the Count's works. The same publisher will provide the first English translation from Brunetière's writings ('Essays in French Literature'), selected and translated by D. Nichol Smith. M. Brunetière contributes a gracious preface.

The new edition of the 'History of the United States Navy,' by E. S. Maclay (Appletons), consists of a rearrangement and enlargement of the previous one rather than a revision. The first volume now closes with the end of the war of 1812, while the additional matter in the second volume brings it down, by the aid of newspaper accounts, to the battle of Manila Bay and the occupation of Cavité arsenal by Rear-Admiral Dewey. The additional chapters include a full account of the action of the *Wyoming* in Shimonoseki Straits, the services of the navy in the suppression of the slave trade, a discussion of the effect of the sea power of the North in the civil war, and the relations of Cuba and Spain with the United States down to and including the first days of the present war. Some other matters omitted in the previous edition are included in the present issue. Taken as a whole, this history of the navy (which we have heretofore reviewed at length) is the best in print, but the perspective needs correction, and this can be appropriately made when the present war comes to an end. The fresh material for an extension of the work would justify another edition, and a systematic revision of the whole publication would then be in order.

A new edition of Sir George Cornewall Lewis's 'Use and Abuse of Some Political Terms' has been printed at the Clarendon Press, Oxford, and is just to hand from its agent in this country, Henry Frowde. Bagehot's essay on Lewis sets forth the essential qualities of his mind and writings; and this little treatise, though an early production of Lewis's, is worth reprinting, and should be a help in clearing the mind of cant and cobwebs.

Volume 3 in the "Biographical Thackeray" (Harpers) gives us Yellowplush, Titmarsh, the Great Hoggarty Diamond, Cox's Diary, and some minor writings. Mrs. Ritchie's introduction takes up the thread where it was broken off in her notes to 'Pendennis,' and shows us Thackeray as law-student against the grain, art-student *con amore*, dabbler in politics, newspaper correspondent, and crony of the Tennysons, FitzGerald, the Bullers, and Kembles. The sketches here first reproduced are not particularly striking, but the frontispiece supplies a new portrait of Thackeray, after a drawing by D. Maclise in 1832, now the property of the Garrick Club.

The Scribners add a second "German" volume to their series of "Stories by Foreign Authors," and also, undeterred by prejudices of the hour, a "Spanish" volume in the same series. The stories here selected are all of some years' standing, even in the translations now reprinted.

'Workingmen's Insurance,' by William Franklin Willoughby (T. Y. Crowell & Co.), is a contribution of much value to our knowledge of a subject of rapidly increasing importance. The author is in the employ of the United States Department of Labor (although this book appears to be published on his own account), and has thus been enabled to obtain official information of the working of systems of insurance, not only in this country, but also in the principal European States. The schemes of compulsory insurance under governmental management adopted in Germany and Austria are carefully examined, as well as the voluntary systems provided by the Governments of France, Belgium, and Italy. Contrasted with these, in England and France, are two great types of mutual aid societies, while in France and the United States we have the leading examples of insurance funds organized by employers for the benefit of their workmen. It is impossible for us to describe adequately even the general features of these vast and complex systems, or to allude to the profound questions of social development and governmental policy which they involve. We can only say that Mr. Willoughby's book will be found a mine of information, lucidly arranged, and presented in such a form as to illustrate the principles both of voluntary and of compulsory insurance.

Part I. of Jayne's 'Mammalian Anatomy' (Philadelphia: Lippincott) is an elaborate account of "the skeleton of the cat, its muscular attachments, growth, and variations compared with the skeleton of man," "designed as a preparation for human and comparative anatomy." After an introductory chapter of definitions, general considerations, methods of preparation, etc., there are described and figured all of the three hundred osseous components of the cat's skeleton. The figures are original, large, and accurate, and there are tables of measurements indicating the extent of individual variation. Most ingenious and instructive are the representations of man as a quadruped (fig. 435), and of the cat in the erect attitude (fig. 537). A novel and useful feature is the clear indication of the location of each cranial bone upon a separate outline diagram of the entire skull. The costiferous vertebræ are designated as thoracic rather than dorsal; there is a general employment of unambiguous terms like *dorsal, ventral, cephalic, caudal, proximal*, and *distal*, and it is to be hoped that the succeeding volumes may exhibit still more numerous and decided advances upon the artificial and obsolescent terminology of anthropotomy. Adverse criticism is called for upon only three points. No one will question the *availability* of the cat in most parts of the world as a subject of preliminary anatomic study, but it is hardly a "typical" mammal in the usual sense of the word. Beyond incidental reference to the 'Anatomical Technology' of Wilder and Gage (p. 12), there is no indication of prior works upon the anatomy of the cat; presumably the concluding volume of the series will contain a full bibliography in which the treatises of Mivart and Straus-Durckheim should certainly be mentioned. The bulk of this volume is inconvenient on some accounts; space could have been saved by putting certain paragraphs in smaller type, by replacing the numerous millimetres by the abbreviation *mm*, and by the less frequent repetition of full-page figures. Dr. Jayne's work is at once a substantial contribution to knowledge and a valuable aid to students and teachers of anatomy, and the succeeding volumes will be awaited with interest.

No. 6 in the sixteenth series of Johns Hopkins University Studies is devoted to biographical sketches of five men in North Carolina associated with opposition to slavery. The title, 'Anti-Slavery Leaders,' is not quite accurate, but Prof. John Spencer Bassett of Trinity College, N. C., has done well to gather together the particulars here given concerning that queer "abolitionist" Hinton Rowan Helper, Benjamin Sherwood Hedrick, Daniel Reaves Goodloe, Eli Washington Caruthers, and Lunsford Lane (a self-emancipated slave), and the written or printed works of several of this number. It is a speaking chapter of struggle against proscription and mob violence, and, while it involves no tragedy, affords a glimpse of the natural working of the "peculiar institution." Prof. Bassett writes with candor and sympathy, and with no fear that anybody in North Carolina will now take exception to his pursuit of this branch of historical research, even as one who avows his condemnation of slavery.

Mr. David W. Hoyt, Providence, R. I., sends us the second part of his genealogical work, 'The Old Families of Salisbury and Amesbury, Mass.,' which embraces some related families of Newbury, Haverhill, Ipswich, and Hampton. Pages 81-160 deal with the Buswell, Carr, Challis, Chase, Clement, Clifford, Clough, Coffin, Colby, Collins, Connor, Corliss, Cottle, Cotton, Currier, Davis, Dow, Downer, Dudley, Dummer, Eastman, Eaton, Emery, Fellows, Fitts, Flanders, and sundry other families or individuals. Clean work is made by affixing "unclassified records" that do not fit in with the better known stocks. The edition is limited, as the support seems still to be precarious. Mr. Hoyt's method is strictly statistical, and the typography of 'The Old Families' is excellent.

Mr. A. P. C. Griffin, Assistant Librarian of Congress, has completed a 'List of Books relating to Hawaii,' including references to collected works and periodicals, ranging from 1834 to the present year. In the appendix are naturally to be found the controversial arguments respecting annexation. These appear, as we write, likely to possess only an historical interest.

The tenth volume of the 'Histoire Générale,' edited by MM. Lavisse and Rambaud, has recently appeared, with the special title, "Les Monarchies Constitutionelles: 1815-1847" (Paris: A. Colin). The eighth and ninth volumes, "La Révolution Française: 1789-1799," and "Napoléon: 1800-1815," are almost independent works, admirable compendiums, clear, concise, and readable. While assignats and the guillotine are no longer the only images conjured up by mention of the Revolution, while we are not agreed, on the other hand, to date all progress from the Year I., there is much of

interest in the achievements of the Revolutionary legislators and administrators in reconstructing the political, military, economic, and educational organization of France as set forth sympathetically by MM. Aulard, Vast, Chénon, Malet, etc. Even the Terror loses something of its inhuman aspect when we are taught to note it wax and wane as the pressure of hostile armies increases or diminishes, and observe that the name may express the psychological state of the guilty factions as well as that of their victims. In the treatment of the second epoch there is the same effective presentation of every side of the national life, wherein the figure of Napoleon looms large, working more and more for ill as he yielded to the domination of personal ambition. In these volumes interest, of course, centres in France, though the history of other countries is carried steadily forward; but in the tenth volume we return to a broader field in European politics, the growth of democracy and the development of the Eastern Question, both near and far. It is a pleasure to note again the excellence of the bibliographies in this work, and the accurate spelling of foreign names, though we lose thereby one of the lighter pleasures of consulting French books of reference.

Sir Harry Johnston's account of his recent journey through the Tunisian Sahara, in the *Geographical Journal* for June, might well be termed a visit to the troglodytes. The number and variety of the cave-dwellings were remarkable—four types being observed, the purely natural, the improved, the artificial cave, and the chambers excavated in the sides of an artificial pit, twenty to thirty feet deep, and approached by a sloping tunnel "sufficiently high and broad for the passage of camels." There were also curious mountain cities, with "castles" for storing grain, several stories high, and having vaulted roofs. In addition to numerous Roman and Saracenic remains, there was to be seen the strange survival of a still more ancient race in the prevalence of the phallic emblem. Sometimes it surmounts the minarets of the mosques; in other places there are altars or temples, "usually a hollow cube of rough masonry, with the phallic emblem placed above the doorway." The people profess no knowledge of the meaning we ascribe to these monuments; they simply say, "It was a custom of our ancestors to make monuments of this kind." Sir Harry bears most cordial testimony to the success of the French in ruling the Berbers, who inhabit this region, such order being maintained by a handful of police and a few native soldiers that the country is "almost as safe to travel in as France itself." Admirable roads have been made, and every town and hamlet has its post-office under native management. This number also contains a short description of Northern Rhodesia, in which the writer says big game is still so plentiful that lions go about in troops of twelve or more, and he has seen a herd of fully six hundred elephants.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for June opens with an interesting chapter of the later geological history of Europe, by Prof. James Geikie. After a graphic description of the tundras and steppes of the arctic and subarctic regions, their physical conditions, fauna and flora, he shows from an examination of the superficial deposits and the animal and plant remains found in them that tundra and steppe conditions have successively prevailed in Middle Europe within the life of man. M. Victor Dingelstedt gives a sympathetic account of the Yezids, or, as they term themselves, Yezd'i—God's chosen—a sectarian tribe of Kurdish origin, living in Transcaucasia and in Turkey. Stigmatized and persecuted by the Mohametans as devil-worshippers, they are fast disappearing—in Russia through extensive reforms, in Turkey by simple extermination. The sect, founded in the early part of the twelfth century by a Mohametan reformer, has an elaborate social organization, of which the most curious feature is its "division into two completely separate castes, *mirids* (laymen) and *ruhans* (clergymen), between whom any matrimonial bond is strictly prohibited, and is considered as incest." They have a sacred volume, according to Mr. Layard, who lived among them, but it is regarded with so much superstitious reverence that it is impossible to obtain a copy of it or even to see it. Their principal prayer, which is given in full, contains some passages reminiscent of the Psalms, and remarkable for their acknowledgment of sin, and their reverence for "the supreme Judge of kings," "the fountain of life and happiness."

A marble slab suitably chiselled, and inscribed in Italian and in Latin, is proposed as a memorial for the late Father Abbot Gaetano dei Negri, the self-denying and benevolent guardian for many years of that treasure-house of art, Monte Uliveto Maggiore, near Siena. Tourists who have visited the convent and recall this old man of heroic stature and gracious hospitality, may be glad to contribute to the above record of his worth in the precincts of the convent itself. They can communicate for this purpose with Miss Helen Zimmern, 4 Lung' Arno Acciajuoli, Florence. Letters containing money in any form should be registered.

—A newly formed Italian society for the diffusion and encouragement of classical studies has begun the publication, this year, of a bi-monthly bulletin under the name of *Atene e Roma*. The place of issue is Florence, the subscription price eight francs a year. The appeal of the editors, as of the Association, is primarily to Italian teachers of the classics, of university antecedents, whom the conditions of their professional life tend to isolate from their kind, and to deprive of the opportunities that were theirs in their student days. In the opening, double-sized number for January and February, 1898, E. Piccolomini contributes an article on the odes of Bacchylides, capping it with a spirited metrical rendering of xvii., "The Diving of Theseus." The translator finds a needless difficulty in the poet's epithet λεπτόπρυμνος, slim-sterned, for Theseus's ship. There is a Tuscan plasticity in his handling of the Greek proper names. We have good thirteenth-century Italian forms like Giove, Minosse, alongside of the modernism of Atena, Apollo, Poseidone, Amfitrite. Afrodite goes well with the last, but elsewhere in the poem the same goddess figures as Cipigna. Perhaps the strongest article in the number is D'Ovidio's on Dante's indebtedness to Virgil, under the taking title "Non soltanto lo bello stile tolse da lui." Pistelli breaks a lance for the old-fashioned Latin school against the disdifferentiation of the lower secondary schools advocated by Minister Luzzatti, whose recent return to the portfolio of education, in Di Rudinì's new cabinet, lends a special timeliness to such questioning of the value of his proposed reform. Two reviewers deal, further on, the one with classical philology in Hungary, in 1896, the other with Lutoslawski's 'Origin and Growth of Plato's Logic.' An article on Greek and Latin in the United States does not go deeper than the statistics of the United States Bureau of Education. The author speaks with very guarded approval of the 116,019 girls who were studying Latin in American schools in the year 1894-5. When numbers are so very large, he opines, something more modern and worse than fashion is bound to be at work, "la posa." Nevertheless, he wishes the literary women of Italy were a little more thoroughly steeped in the classical languages than the production of the bloodless and empty stuff which many of them are now writing, demands.

—'A Note-Book in Northern Spain,' by Archer M. Huntington (Putnams), is one of the most profusely illustrated books ever issued on that country, nearly every page having a small picture on it or a large one to face it, and many of them are new. The descriptive matter covers familiar ground for the most part, but the author generally looked at things through his own eyes, except in the chapter on bull-fights, which, instead of describing an actual scene, gives a history of that barbarous sport, dwelling on the vain efforts of kings and ecclesiastics to suppress it, with biographic sketches of some of the most famous toreadors. One of these, it seems, Costillares, owed his success to his making it a point to study each animal before he attacked it, varying his method in each instance. The author believes that the passion for this sport is on the increase rather than diminishing. Another Spanish trait referred to is the indifference to the preservation of the country's resources. On every high-road one meets burros laden with the spoils of the thinly timbered hills, but, though wood is so scarce and expensive, it seems to occur to no one to grow it as an article of trade. The Australian eucalyptus, which has proved such a godsend to Southern California, would doubtless do well in Spain. Apropos of smugglers, Mr. Huntington tells an amusing story illustrating how it happens that the little ones are caught, while the big ones escape: "When a big load goes through," he was informed, "there is enough to pay every one." Spain's mediævalism is emphasized in the assertion that "it is only about one hundred years since the stage roads began . . . to have any real existence." The chapter on Santiago suggests a curious coincidence. Just as the Cuban Santiago is, up to date, the chief sufferer in the war, so old Santiago has, of all Spanish cities, most reason to deplore the war, for it derived much of its income from an annually increasing export of olives to the United States.

—Three novels translated from the French of Zola, of Alphonse Daudet, and of Anatole France come before us at the same moment for notice. Each is a book of considerable value, and the literary merits of each have already been considered; so that we need say but little save of the quality of the translations. 'La Débâcle' ('The Downfall,' Macmillan) is without doubt one of M. Zola's chief works, most impressive from its breadth and mass. Perhaps no other man alive save one could have written it. But so far as literary art goes, Zola's writing—his *écriture*, to use a neologism—is often awkward and clumsy. He writes as if all his

fingers were thumbs. Miss E. P. Robins is his translator. We have recently had to do with translation by the same hand in Stendhal's 'Le Rouge et le Noir,' and found in it a certain lack of carefulness and a tendency towards slang. The present work is better done. The command of slang becomes here a quality rather than a defect, and we see no reason why the present version may not, within due limits, be approved. A number of slips of no great importance we have noted—*e. g.*, "earth and débris" is not precisely the equivalent of "mitraille"—but these are of small account. On page 196 four lines are inserted for which no equivalent is found in M. Zola's text.

—M. Anatole France is the possessor of a style, acquired by much labor and much writing, which many of his contemporaries find to resemble that of Renan. One may be pardoned for thinking that M. Anatole France himself agrees with this judgment, and that the resemblance the critics find is to some extent of his own seeking. But the French which was in Voltaire's hand a rapier and in Renan's the wand of a magician, in the hand of M. France is more like a walking-stick, though supple and elastic in itself and handled with much grace. In 'Le Lys Rouge' ('The Red Lily,' Brentano's), with which is our present concern, the reader's attention is less drawn to the form than to the substance of the book, though it cannot be said to be violently drawn towards either. The book is not exactly a novel *à clef*, and yet some of the figures that move in it can hardly escape recognition. Among them appears Verlaine, who is not to be mistaken anywhere. No translator's name appears on the title-page of 'The Red Lily,' and this is not unwise, for the work is not in quality much better than ordinary hack-work. Omissions abound; sometimes it is a proper name that is left out, sometimes a clause, sometimes a sentence or a paragraph, in one case no less than a page. The book is, in fact, reduced in all by about a hundred pages. In other respects, too, the work is ill done; "très malin," for instance, is thoroughly Americanized into "very smart"; the meanings of *brouillard* and *brume* are confused; the weather is said to be "soft" where the author wrote *doux*, and so on, and so on.

—Of 'The Head of the Family' (Putnams), by which phrase Mr. Levin Carnac translates, not too ill, the title of Alphonse Daudet's last novel, 'Le Soutien de Famille,' not a great deal need be said. The novel itself is not one of Daudet's best. It finds its place rather with 'Fromont jeune et Risler aîné' than with 'Les Rois en Exil,' or 'Numa Roumestan,' or even 'Le Nabab.' Mr. Carnac, like the others, has produced a passable version of his author rather than a good version. It will serve at least for summer reading, and perhaps none the worse because the English here and there gives one a shiver—when we find, for instance, young Mauglas "bringing some of his chums down to a family blow-out," or are informed that a girl "won't get married unless she takes her husband something," or that a man is "well posted in everything." The appalling locution, "frightened of him," we kept note of up to the fourth time of its occurrence. Prof. Adolphe Cohn contributes a critical sketch to the volume. The rather clever illustrations are by Marchetti, and the book has an exceptionally good cover.

CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH.

The First Republic in America: An Account of the Origin of This Nation, written from the Records then (1624) concealed by the Council, rather than from the Histories then licensed by the Crown. By Alexander Brown, D.C.L. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1898. Pp. xxiv, 686.

Mr. Brown's long-expected volume can hardly fail of a varied reception from those likely to make the most use of it. His object is to set forth the early history of Virginia, from 1605 to 1627, as contained in the records of the Virginia Company, and thereby to free the colony and the nation from the aspersions and false charges of John Smith, and correct the errors of later historians who have taken Smith for their guide. According to Mr. Brown, the original documents used by Smith in compiling the first part of his history were lost, but most of those for the period 1610-1623 have been preserved, and, though concealed at the time by the Privy Council, are now available. We can readily believe, even without repeated assurances from the writer, that these records are of high importance, but it is trying, to say the least, to be obliged to read half way through Mr. Brown's portentous volume before learning where some of these records are to be found, and even then to be left in doubt as to the sources from which large portions of his material have been drawn. The text of the records themselves, whether those in the Library of Congress or others, is seldom referred to in footnotes or citations, and the student, accordingly, is debarred from proving from that source most of the author's statements of fact, or justifying his conclusions; he must take Mr. Brown's word for it that the matter presented is authentic record, that the transcription is accurate, and that nothing important has been omitted. In point of literary form, the book is essentially unreadable. The narrative, if such it may be called, is made up chiefly of a series of extracts and paraphrases from the records and other documents, arranged chronologically, with little illuminating comment, and no immediate connection, save orderly succession in time and space. Like the old chroniclers, Mr. Brown sets down the facts in their order; like them, too, he intersperses reflections on "manifest destiny" and the mysterious designs of Providence, but varied, as occasion offers, by pointed comments on the mendacity of John Smith.

While these shortcomings, all of which might easily have been avoided, can but detract from the practical serviceableness of Mr. Brown's work, they are, of course, defects of method and form rather than of substance. As regards the subject-matter of the volume, the important question is what new light, if any, is thrown upon the early history of the Virginia colony, and, in particular, how far the case against Smith is sustained? The controversy as to Smith's accuracy and fairness as a historian is of pretty long standing, and has been engaged in with much learning and considerable warmth. Mr. Brown's earlier work, 'The Genesis of the United States,' showed him to be an almost bitter opponent of Smith, to whom, indeed, he is scarcely able to allude without something verging on contempt; and the present volume, notwithstanding a disclaimer of any intention of reviewing all the points of the controversy, is, as its title indicates, a sort of elaborate *apologia* for its writer's well-known views. Mr. Brown can, we fear, lay little claim to impartiality in the matter; for he is convinced not only that Smith "gave a very ungenerous and incorrect idea" of the planting of Virginia, and that "in many respects his history is manifestly an imposition," but that duty to Virginia and the United States requires that things be set right. Historical controversy is not always productive of immediate conviction, and it is at least doubtful if all who incline to set considerable store by Smith will be converted by the present showing; at the same time, the material presented by Mr. Brown is entitled to careful consideration.

Aside from the Pocahontas incident, which is dismissed in a few words as of greatly overestimated importance, Mr. Brown undertakes to show, as against Smith, that

> "the climate was not healthy; the Indians were not tractable; the commodities found during 1607-1609 were not satisfactory; tobacco was not the bane, but really the preserver and support of the colony; and the charters were not changed to the detriment, but for the betterment of the colony. In brief, the real cause of 'the defailements' was not in the managing of the business, as stated by Smith, and the colony was not brought to a good state of forwardness under the King's form of government by Smith. It is true that he did not ask for the alteration of the charter; that the new charter of 1609 was granted without his consent, and that he afterwards used these facts to serve him a good turn in England; but all things did not go to ruin owing to the changes in the charters, form of government, etc., and so continue until the enterprise was resumed by the crown, as asserted in Smith's publications." (Preface, p. vii.)

We are little inclined, in this connection, to take up the cudgel for John Smith, or to claim that the statements and implications of his history are entitled to any greater credence than is usually to be accorded to those of any contemporary writer who was himself a part of what he records, and who has, moreover, a personal object to serve in writing at all. It is, however, matter of regret that Mr. Brown's method makes it difficult to get a clear or connected view of the evidence which he marshals in support of his contentions. In regard to the mortality among the early emigrants, he insists that the chief cause throughout was the unhealthy climate, whose deadly influences medical science could not as yet control. Some of the figures are certainly startling. Of 775 persons sent out in 1606-1609, Lord De La Warr, in 1610, found only about 200, and those almost destitute of supplies; about 135 of these, moreover, had but lately arrived with Gates (p. 129). During 1619, according to Gov. Yeardley, 300 died (p. 372). A census in March, 1620, showed 887 persons in Virginia, of whom about 700 could be reckoned as acclimated. There arrived during the next twelve months ten vessels, which left England with 1,051 emigrants; yet in March, 1621, the English population of the colony numbered only 842.

"That is," says Mr. Brown, "of 1,938 people (about 700 acclimated and 1,238 newcomers) 1,095 had died en route and in Virginia. As the death-rate among the acclimated was comparatively small, it is probable that over 80 out of 100 newcomers had died within twelve months, showing that the summer of 1620 was one of the most disastrous periods in the history of the colony" (p. 415).

This was, of course, a frightful death-rate, and may well have been attributable at

that time chiefly to climatic conditions and the rigors of the ocean passage, since the administration of the colony, under the charter of 1612, had greatly improved. We do not find, however, any entirely conclusive evidence that the high mortality during the first few years (of which, it should be said, so definite a record is not presented) was not largely the result also of palpable mismanagement, as shown especially in the selection of unfit emigrants, the adherence to an unhealthy location, in disregard of the instructions of the Council, and the impracticable and vicious communal system. Mr. Brown makes the most of everything favorable to his view, though his assertiveness sometimes suggests the advocate rather than the historian; but we are still disposed to believe, in this instance, that if a bad climate started the ball, bad management helped to keep it rolling.

As regards the Indians, also, we could wish that the light of Mr. Brown's learning were always commensurate with its heat. How far the Indians were naturally "tractable," and how far bad handling made them a menace and a scourge to the colony, are questions on which we find the testimony of the records somewhat unsatisfactory. To the English, the aborigines appeared in the threefold light of heathen to be converted, savages to be feared and resisted, and hunters and farmers to be traded with and despoiled. The first speedily became a mere pretence, while the second led soon to wars of aggrandizement, retaliation, and extermination. As to trade with the Indians, the fact seems to have been that the colonists overestimated the resources of the savages, and assumed that their grain supplies were large, when in reality, as Mr. Brown says, "they always lived from hand to mouth, seldom raised more than enough for their own use, and had not much victual for trade at any time" (p. 113). Certain it is that the early dealings of the settlers with them were hardly conciliatory, but we do not find in the records clear proof that the Virginia Indians were noticeably more hostile or ill-disposed than, for example, those farther north. Here, again, the cause of the mischiefs which befell the colony seems to have lain in the essential antagonism between civilization and barbarism, emphasized by the inability of the leaders of the undertaking to get hold of affairs by the right end.

The case for tobacco is more easily made out. In spite of Smith's intimations to the contrary, the early attempts of the colonists to find suitable commodities for shipment to England were not successful, nor was the search for gold very remunerative. Tobacco was the first commodity found that repaid the cost of production and transportation, and not until its cultivation became general was there promise of economic success. Mr. Brown's pages enable us to follow the struggle for the recognition of tobacco-growing as a legitimate industry, hampered as it was by the demagogical but powerful opposition of James I., and burdened with heavy revenue charges. In this respect the volume makes important additions to the information given by Mr. Bruce, in his 'Economic History of Virginia.' Nor do the records confirm the notion that tobacco ever became the bane of Virginia agriculture, in any other respect than to restrict the cultivation of grain, and thereby to give to the products of the colony a less diversified character.

Beyond these specific matters, Mr. Brown's researches have led him to the conclusion, already stated, that Smith's history, while accurate enough in many details, gives, when taken as a whole, a distorted view of Virginia affairs. The painstaking labor devoted to establishing this proposition is apparent everywhere throughout the present volume, and is not likely to fail of appreciation by those best able to judge of its worth; yet it may well occasion surprise that the converse of the proposition should have been at any time strenuously maintained. For, with the exception of keenness of observation and a quaintly interesting style, John Smith had few of the qualifications of a historian. Neither by nature nor by grace did he ever attain to impartiality. His love of adventure, his romantic career, and his assertive personality ill fitted him to pass sober judgment on his contemporaries. Called unexpectedly to the leadership of a precarious enterprise, yet too aggressive for the situation in which he found himself, he made enemies, fell out of favor, and went back to England with charges hanging over him. When he wrote, accordingly, it was with a purpose. He was never again on good terms with the Company, and his history, while making much of his own achievements, sought to find the golden age of Virginia in the years when the colony was most under the control of the royal authority whose favor he sought. Although the shadow of improbability rests upon but few of his statements, none of his unsupported assertions can safely be accepted. That the general tone of his recital is unfavorable to the Company, and that the prosperity of the colony increased rather than diminished under the later charters, is now clear enough; but how great is the divergence between the history of Virginia as interpreted by Smith and the history as contained in the records of the London associators, can be seen only by those who shall patiently make their way through Mr. Brown's book.

This volume, as we have said, is an elaborate defence of the Virginia Company from the aspersions of Smith. Mr. Brown begins the arraignment on the first page, and on the last does not depart from it. As a piece of argumentative writing the work cannot be called a success, the attacks upon Smith conforming less to logical sequence or obvious necessity than to the opportunities of the moment. As Cato is said to have ended every speech, no matter what the subject, with a demand for the destruction of Carthage, so Mr. Brown, at every occasion, holds before us the views of his opponent as worthy of all condemnation. Yet we doubt if all that he has to tell us is likely to change very much the general estimate which has been made of the work of John Smith. However great his failings, there can be no question that Smith supplied to the conduct of Virginian affairs precisely the element of arrogant common-sense of which it stood painfully in need. He knew the Indians' character better than any of his associates, and, in his dealings with them, united boldness, adroitness, and practicality with singular success. Beyond all question, he saved the colonists from starvation, and, more than any other one man, kept the enterprise in existence when it seemed near to collapse. His means were not seldom high-handed and questionable, but it cannot be denied that his ends and his general policy were such as marked the progress of Virginia after his withdrawal. Returning to England under suspicion, he chose to serve the King rather than the Company, and, undisturbed by moral scruples, sought to advance his own interests by enlarging upon his own achievements and belittling those of his former coadjutors. That he should have so stated the case as to impress his views upon historians to the present day, and set the learned at variance over the question of his veracity, is proof, not so much of his skill and adroitness as an advocate, as of the possession of a record for personal success of which many a more honorable man might have been proud.

Fortunately for the success of Mr. Brown's labors, the value of the present work is not dependent upon its connection with the Smithian controversy. We have here, in usable if not convenient shape, a great mass of invaluable documentary material illustrative of the early history of Virginia. The most important parts, those containing the records of the Company, show us in great detail the inception and early progress of the movement, the struggle with strange and unfavorable conditions, the alternations of despondency and hopefulness, the disappointment and discouragement at the increasing expense and small return. As the records become fuller, we are enabled to follow the course of the struggle between the Company and the Crown, and the growth of liberal ideas within the Company itself, until it became, in the royal eye, a "seminary of sedition." We can trace more closely the history of the charters, and the events culminating in the *quo warranto*. We see again, as in Mr. Brown's earlier work, the intimate knowledge of English affairs possessed by Spain, in the persons of its ambassadors. Even in the formal records of official meetings we can see how men like Sir Edwin Sandys, building better than they knew, were slowly and toilfully working out the idea of a state founded on popular sanction, and tending more and more to harmony with the scheme of popular government which a militant Puritanism was later to seek to establish by the sword.

Mr. Brown's book has evidently been executed with great labor and painstaking care. There is the same exhaustive research, the wide range of knowledge, and the close attention to details, which mark the 'Genesis of the United States.' Mechanically, the volume is sumptuously made. That the work will be generally recognized as indispensable, and will add to the deservedly high reputation of its author, goes without saying. At the same time, we can but regret that the wealth of substance has not been presented in better form; for, while Mr. Brown has written what every serious student of the period will need to read, we are inclined to think that the importance of his work will ultimately be seen to consist chiefly in the fact that he has made it possible for some one to write the history of the first republic in America.

SEVEN BOOKS ON MUSICAL TOPICS.

In this category one of the most useful of the group that has accumulated on our table is W. S. B. Mathews's 'The Masters and their Music' (Philadelphia: T. Presser), which is designed as "an introduction to music as literature for the use of clubs, classes, and private study." The author's plan is to choose a great composer, give a brief sketch of his

life, and then select a representative programme of his works, which can be used at a recital. Each of the pieces chosen is briefly commented on, and hints are given as to the best or the cheapest editions. American composers are not overlooked; MacDowell, Gottschalk, Mason, Foote, and Mrs. Beach being dealt with appreciatively and Sousa extravagantly. Despite some rather amateurish and questionable statements, Mr. Mathews's book deserves commendation. It is illustrated with portraits.

Lovers of Haydn will be interested in W. H. Hadow's 'A Croatian Composer' (Macmillan), a little book of 98 pages devoted to an attempt to prove that Haydn, who is usually ranked among the German classical composers, was not a Teuton at all, but a Croatian. Mr. Hadow's book is based on two works by Dr. Kuhac, and it must be admitted that he makes out a strong case. The main arguments are, first, that the Croatian folk-tunes possess all the characteristics which have been noted as distinctive in the melodies of Haydn; second, that many of them are actually employed by him; and third, that the facts of his birth and parentage afford strong presumptive proof that he was a Croatian by race. Many melodies are cited to illustrate Haydn's Croatian affinities, and the pages are enlivened with anecdotes, including one which relates how Haydn got even with his Prince (who was dissatisfied with the quality of his work, and held up as a model the music given in a certain church), by secretly writing a mass for that church, with the calculated effect of furnishing a fresh instance of the unattainable for Haydn, and his rejoinder: "Your Highness, I wrote it, and I was the organist."

Several books have appeared lately whose leading motive has been to teach that the best way to learn to listen to music, and to discover what is good in it, is to study the technicalities and intricacies of musical form. The folly of this advice is glaringly illustrated by a volume of lectures entitled 'Interludes,' by H. C. Banister (Macmillan). The writer was for nearly half a century a student and professor of musical form and analysis, yet so far was this technical knowledge from helping him to find out what is good music that he could write, as late as 1897, that Liszt corrupted the taste of many young artists, and that "his influence seems to have been wholly pernicious"; that Chopin was deficient "in all that goes to make up greatness"; and that it is hardly worth while to discuss such a delusion as Wagnerism. Mr. Banister was one of the last members of the British Handel-Mendelssohn congregation, which is now fast dying out. His lectures, which are on "The Uses of Musical Knowledge," "Music and Preaching," "Development of Musical Structure," "Counterpoint in Free Composition," "The Music of the Victorian Era," "The Appreciation of Music," and "Musical Composition," might be useful in spite of the author's antediluvianism; but they are so dry that few will be tempted to read more than one or two of them. There is one redeeming flight of the imagination, a joke on Bach, which, however, is intelligible only to a musician: "Our coming back to any appreciation of his works does really seem as though, after all, music history was to be somewhat in Rondo form." The awkwardness of this sentence illustrates, too, the fact that a man may devote his whole life to the study and teaching of "form" without acquiring the instinct for expressing his thoughts in elegant or even correct language.

Since the appearance of James E. Matthew's 'Handbook of Musical History' (Putnams) some very eminent musicians, including Franz, Brahms, Gounod, Rubinstein, Ambroise Thomas, and Tchaikovsky, have died. The first edition having been exhausted, Mr. Matthew has now issued a second, brought up to date, with much new and interesting material. There are in this edition no less than 128 illustrations, with many portraits. A valuable feature of the book is a special bibliography appended to each chapter.

'The Homophonic Forms of Musical Composition,' by Percy Goetschius (Schirmer), is a book too technical to discuss here. Students of composition will find it useful, though they may have occasion, here and there, to complain of a lack of lucidity which is too common in works of the kind. From C. A. Ellis, manager of the Boston Symphony Concerts, we have received the annual bound volume containing the programmes of the seventeenth season of that organization. The programmes were made by Mr. Paur, and will hardly serve as models, but Mr. Apthorp's historical and descriptive notes are of value, and would be still more so if there were more of the historical and descriptive element and less of the technical parsing which, while helpful to students of music, is unintelligible to the average concert-goer. Apart from these technical analyses, which are excellent and authoritative in their way, there is much of interest in these volumes in the form of "entr'actes," short talks about music and musicians, in which Mr. Apthorp is at his best. The entr'actes help to make these bound volumes of permanent value.

Freda Winworth has chosen an awkward title for what is a useful and entertaining little book (Philadelphia: The J. B. Lippincott Co.). 'The Epic of Sounds' is vague, while the sub-title, "An Interpretation of Wagner's Nibelungen Ring," is incorrect. Nibelungen is the German genitive of Nibelung. A well-known Viennese critic insists that the ending *en* is not correct for the genitive singular. It certainly is not the English genitive. Why not say 'The Nibelung's Ring,' or 'The Ring of the Nibelung'? The book itself will be found serviceable to those who have difficulty in understanding the poem or the music of the Tetralogy. The introduction contains a novel feature—fifteen pages devoted to a description of the various characters, who they are and what they represent, together with remarks on the sword, the ring, the tarnhelmet, etc. The rest of the book is given to telling the story of the operas, with special attention to the leading motives and their ingenious use. It is all clearly written and entertaining. At the end the leading motives are printed in musical type, and there is an index; the use of several kinds of type facilitates reference. Great as is the number of books on Wagner's operas, this is a welcome addition to the list.

CANADIAN FEDERALISM.

The Law of Legislative Power in Canada. By A. H. F. Lefroy. Toronto: The Toronto Law-Book and Publishing Co., Limited. 1897-'98.

Mr. Lefroy's aim in publishing this acute and valuable constitutional treatise is fully explained by him in his preface. His object is to present a comprehensive view of the actual working of the scheme of government established in Canada thirty years since, and of the division of legislative powers between the Dominion and the various provincial parliaments, extracting all that is pertinent from the judicial decisions, and citing other authorities where necessary. The result so arrived at he formulates in a number of propositions—sixty-five in all—and then gives upon each one in turn a luminous comment. In this way we have set forth a complete view of the whole law of legislative power in Canada, as it stands, and, in connection with this, of the relation of the Crown to the Canadian Legislatures. Incidentally, the Canadian scheme is compared with that of the United States, and points of difference emphasized. The introductory chapter is devoted entirely to such discrimination, and the author criticises searchingly Mr. Dicey's statement (to quote the latest form in which it is put in his 'Law of the Constitution') that "if we look at the federal character of the Constitution of the Dominion, we must inevitably regard it as a copy, though by no means a servile copy, of the Constitution of the United States."

This introductory chapter is, as we have said, a rapid and comprehensive survey of the points of difference between the American and Canadian scheme of legislative power. It is a very difficult subject, and one in which no one who, besides great constitutional learning, has not much experience also of the manner in which constitutional questions present themselves in actual controversies between man and man, will venture an *ex-cathedra* opinion; but it seems to us that Mr. Lefroy makes good his main thesis, and that no student of his book can fail to perceive that the "British North America Act," passed in 1867 by the English Parliament, constituted in the Dominion of Canada a government in which the legislative power was to be exercised on terms and conditions widely different, at many points, from those expounded in the judgments and treatises of Marshall, Story, Cooley, and Kent.

To mention a few of the points of difference on which the author dwells, he begins boldly with the question of delegated powers. The great canon of interpretation of American constitutions is that of delegation. Not only is the Federal Constitution a government of delegated powers—the powers not delegated to the United States nor prohibited to the States being expressly reserved to the States respectively, or to the people (10th Am.)—but the State governments themselves are always regarded as derived from the people. The primary division of power into legislative, executive, and judicial comes from the people, and there is in every State a reserve of power in the people to which resort can be had on occasion. Inevitably connected with this theory is the American legal doctrine, which antedates the Federal Constitution, that laws in conflict with the scheme of constitutional delegation, division and separation have no existence. Not a trace either of this canon of interpretation or of the connected doctrine and practice is to be found in England; and, according to our author, not a trace of either is to be found in Canada. Not merely is the English Parliament omnipotent, but the Dominion Parliament, and even the provincial

legislatures, are, within the sphere of action conceded to them, omnipotent also (prop. 17).

Another point at which Canadian federalism differs widely from that of the United States is to be found in the Crown veto. The scheme of the British North America Act of 1867 (which is the Dominion charter or constitution) is, after distributing between the Dominion (federal) Legislature and that of each province the general mass of power, to reserve to the English Crown, which virtually means the English Parliament, a general control in the interest of the still wider federation of the British empire. This control is exercised by a veto, which differs from our Presidential veto in many ways. It seems to be absolute, while ours is qualified; it is, while nominally executive, in reality parliamentary; and it is a veto superimposed upon a primary veto on Dominion legislation which the Governor-General may exercise. Besides all this, any laws, provincial or federal, which are *ultra vires*, are void. The very use of this term *ultra vires* points to a distinction between the Canadian scheme of government and ours. We say "unconstitutional" because an American constitution is always the supreme law; in Canada there is always above the Constitution (in England) a supreme legislature from which the Dominion and the separate provinces derive their powers, much as a corporation derives its authority from the chartering legislature with us. Hence a term confined by us to corporation law is there applied to acts of the legislature. There are at every point in the Canadian scheme three separate sources of constant legislative power, while in the United States there are only two.

The family resemblance between the British North America Act and the Constitution of the United States is perhaps most strikingly shown in the enumeration of powers. Speaking generally, as with us, federal questions have been allotted to the federal Legislature, and local questions to the legislatures of the provinces. Thus the Dominion Parliament has jurisdiction over the public debt, taxation, money, legal tender, the postal service, commerce and navigation, copyright, patents, and the Indians; while the provincial legislatures provide for the local administration of justice, taxation for local purposes, municipal institutions, local works and undertakings. But marriage and divorce and negotiable paper are, in Canada, federal concerns.

From what has been said it will be seen that the Canadian judiciary can never attain the power and importance that the courts have attained with us. There is no room for a Dartmouth College case, nor for a Nebraska maximum freight-rate decision, because in Canada if a law affecting a charter or any species of property rights is *infra vires—i. e.*, is not repugnant to imperial legislation, and is not vetoed—that is the end of the matter. In the English and Canadian scheme there is for every question somewhere a final legislative power of decision; in ours the legislature has no power of which the courts finally deny the existence (express or implied) in the written Constitution. Within certain limits even the power of taxation—the first and essential prerogative of sovereignty—may be swept away by our courts, as it was the other day in the income-tax decision. An American judge dispenses not merely law, but a "supreme" law.

Into the controversy, if it can be called such, between Mr. Dicey and his Canadian critics we cannot go here in detail. The student who desires to get a thorough comprehension of the questions involved in it must compare the instructive essays of the former on the law of the Constitution with the keen analysis of Mr. Lefroy. He will probably arise from his task—we at least have done so—with the conviction that the real points of difference cover a narrow ground. Mr. Dicey seems to have attached to what he calls "federalism" an importance of function in our system which critics like Mr. Lefroy would deny. Thus, he speaks of three "leading characteristics of federalism" being "the supremacy of the Constitution," the distribution "among bodies with limited and coördinated authority of the different powers of government," and "the authority of the courts to act as interpreters of the Constitution." The reply to this is unquestionably that these three characteristic traits are found in each State of the Union, and would continue to exist if the federal Constitution were to vanish; hence they cannot have any necessary connection with federalism in the United States. On the other hand, Mr. Lefroy minimizes the federal character of the two schemes—the distribution of allotted powers between federal and local legislatures. Here there is that sort of similarity which evidences design, and here no one can doubt that the British North America Act presents a scheme of division, enumeration, and apportionment based on ours, just as both are based on the eternal and inevitable natural law of federalism—that local interest shall be administered locally, and that federal powers shall extend only to matters of federal concern. At some points, as with regard to marriage and divorce, the Canadian scheme seems more enlightened and advanced than ours. To have forty-five different sources of power over such matters is to have forty-five sources of confusion, uncertainty, fraud, and expense. Would that as to this we might copy Canada!

Across the Sub-Arctics of Canada. By J. W. Tyrrell. Toronto: William Briggs. 1897. 8vo, pp. i-vi, 7-280, map and 62 other illustrations.

No such cursed thirst for gold as produced the Klondike rush has driven any one to the Barren Lands, but sheer love of adventure for its own sake, coupled with the more laudable enterprise of geographical discovery. We lately noticed Caspar Whitney's daring dash on snow-shoes into the Barren Grounds after musk-oxen, and apparently for no other purpose whatever; also Warburton Pike's hardly less perilous tour through the sub-arctic forest of the farthest Northwest; and now we have a companion to either of these narratives in the present volume. The story is not quite so well told; more would have been made of the materials in the hands of a more experienced narrator; but the record is that of a deed of daring which commands admiration in the doing, and is not without good result to geographical and ethnographical knowledge. Moreover, this is but the popular presentation of a voyage of exploration and discovery more formally utilized in another connection; it is adapted to the average reader, and in so far fulfils its purpose.

This voyage was begun in the spring of 1893. The author was accompanied by his brother, Mr. J. Burr Tyrrell, of the Canadian Geological Survey, who had been authorized to conduct an exploration through the Barren Lands, much of which remains as unknown as many interior parts of Africa. The voyage proper may be said to have begun at the rail's end of Edmonton on the Saskatchewan. The route thence was the well-known one to Athabascan waters, down the river and through the great lake to the eastern end of the latter, and thence up its tributary to the northeast till was reached the height of land dividing Athabascan from Hudsonian waters. A long portage brought the little party to the beginning of the chain of lakes—Daly, Boyd, Carey, Markham, Tobaunt, Wharton, and many others—reaching north-northeast into the region of the Telzoa, that great tributary of Chesterfield Inlet and so of Hudson's Bay. We hardly realize the magnitude of waters whose names can be penned so trippingly, till we reflect upon the distances traversed, the numerous arduous portages, the shooting of rapids, the toilsome and often dangerous passage of a handful of men through totally unknown wilds, in a land of desolation, to the home of the Eskimo. In passing, let us look at this picture of a herd of reindeer, without whose flesh the country would be not only uninhabitable, but impassable:

"At this first shot the whole band—a solid mass of several thousands of deer—was thrown into confusion, and they rushed to and fro, not knowing which way to flee. Simultaneously with my brother's shot, I opened fire on them from the rear, and our armed men charged from the sides, while the other two were obliged to take refuge upon a great boulder to avoid being trampled to death. The band was speedily scattered, but not before a woful slaughter had been made and an abundant supply of fine fresh meat secured. . . . After the slaughter of the first day we carried no rifles with us, but, armed only with a camera, walked to and fro through the herd, causing little more alarm than one would by walking through a herd of cattle in a field" (p. 86).

The musk-ox, too, appears upon the scene, in this farthest north of the expedition, and then were met the Eskimo, of whom a long and interesting account is given, interrupting the narrative of adventure. The party reached "the sea" in safety, but congratulated themselves too soon, in view of the very imminent peril which attended their whole progress along the western coast of Hudson's Bay. At the culmination of their direful plight it became absolutely a question of life or death to them all, and only the polar bear would seem to have saved them from perishing. Escaping all dangers, however, they reached Fort Churchill. In connection with this historic establishment we have an extremely interesting glimpse of that extraordinary fortress called Prince of Wales, dating from 1743, captured in 1782 by La Pérouse, long the base of operations of Samuel Hearne, and now a huge mass of frowning ruins, five miles from Churchill. This is, no doubt, the most permanent monument of departed greatness in all that land, of such solidity of construction as to defy effacement for future ages. It is a sort of antitype to the famous Fort Chartres on the Mississippi, or the still more celebrated Casa Grande of the Gila. In the vicinity of Fort Prince of Wales the party visited Sloops Cove, where the *Furnace* and *Discovery*, under Capt. Middleton, wintered in 1741, and we have this very notable statement:

"How two vessels could have been forced into this cove is a question which has given rise to much speculation on the part of Ca-

nadian scientists, for the cove does not now contain more than sufficient depth of water, at high tide, to float a small boat, and it is doubtful if even such a boat could get in through its rocky entrance. The historical fact remains, however, that this cove was the winter quarters of these two sloops, and as proof of the fact a number of ring-bolts to which the vessels were secured may still be seen leaded into the smooth, glaciated granite shores" (p. 214).

There were also found on the rocks numerous inscriptions; among them, "Furnace and Discovery, 1741," and not less notably "Sl Hearne July ye 1 1767." Our adventurers were not quite out of the woods at Churchill; in fact, they had some very hard times indeed in getting away from that wretched part of the world, and on to decent travelling toward Lake Winnipeg; but thence it was easy to where steam finally relieved them of all further personal exertion. The total distance covered seems to have been somewhat over 3,000 miles.

The whole narrative is readable, though, as we hinted, not a very skilful piece of story-telling. It is handsomely illustrated; the small sketches by Mr. Arthur Heming are particularly strong in representation of types of faces among the natives and other inhabitants of the region. Two appendixes give a classified list of plants collected and a fairly full Eskimo vocabulary. The book is insufficiently indexed, on a singularly innocent plan, which "classifies" the entries under five alphabets, though there are only three pages of it all.

Schopenhauer's Gespräche und Selbstgespräche. Herausgegeben von Eduard Grisebach. New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

Eduard Grisebach, who has edited the cheapest and at the same time most authentic edition of Schopenhauer (Reclam), has now added to the ten volumes previously issued a brochure of 143 pages containing the records of the philosopher's conversations with Goethe, Wieland, Frauenstädt, Doss, Lindner, Asher, Hebbel, Haase, Challemel-Lacour, Gwinner, and other friends and visitors. These make up the *Gespräche* referred to in the title. The *Selbstgespräche* are the remnants of a diary which Schopenhauer began as a young man (1821) and kept up for about twenty years. He called this diary εἰς ἑαυτόν, and repeatedly referred to it in his writings. According to Dr. Gwinner, his executor, the MS. consisted of about thirty loose leaves, and was destroyed, in accordance with the directions contained in the last will. A considerable part of its contents, however, was saved and was embodied, without a special explanation at the time, in Gwinner's biography, as Gwinner admitted some years later. With the keen eye of a specialist, Grisebach has detached these remnants from their surroundings and restored them, as far as possible, to the form originally given them. This chapter is therefore different from the section in volume vi. of the 'Nachlass' for which the editor chose the same title.

Schopenhauer was not always in the mood for conversation, but, when he was, and had sympathetic listeners, he astonished them by his fluency, wit, and apt illustration, and made the hours fly like minutes. He liked to monopolize conversation, on the principle that when the lion roars smaller beasts are awed into silence, and he brooked no contradiction. Being able to converse in four or five languages, he found himself at home everywhere, but he was far from being at home to everybody. Robert von Hornstein called on him one day and was pleasantly received. When he was ready to go, Schopenhauer said: "You owe the fact that I received you to my housekeeper, who said you were a student. Had you been a professor of philosophy I would not have seen you. Professor Weisse of Leipzig came to call on me one day, but I shouted loud enough for him to hear, 'To Professor Weisse I am not at home.'" *Philosophie-Professoren* were his pet aversion. Their tactics of "ignoring" him roused his fury daily, and he actually consulted a lawyer to find out how far he was allowed to abuse these men without incurring an action for libel. Frauenstädt ventured to say one day that he thought there ought to be no attacks in philosophical works on ephemeral contemporaries; to which Schopenhauer retorted that his attacks were like the silken cord which the Sultan sends to those he wants to throttle. In conversation he was of course even less reserved than in his writings. "What do you think of Hegel?" he was asked one day by an American. "Hegel is a charlatan," replied Schopenhauer, turning his back on the interviewer.

It seems rather odd that so notorious a woman-hater as Schopenhauer should have put down among his "favorite quotations," which Grisebach has brought together, Byron's "The more I see of men, the less I like them; if I could but say so of women, all would be well." In his conversations he frequently noted with satisfaction that he had been the first to give proper attention to two subjects neglected heretofore by philosophers—sexual love and spiritism (clairvoyance, mind-transference, etc.). Differing from Lichtenberg, he held that sentimental love is less easily suppressed than physical passion. To Challemel-Lacour he remarked that "women performed a miracle when they spiritualized love." Nevertheless, he writes, in one of his jottings, εἰς ἑαυτόν, that "marriage is a debt which is contracted in youth and paid in old age, and Balthasar Gracian was right when he called a man of forty a camel simply because he had a wife and child; for the usual goal of the so-called career of young men is to become some woman's beast of burden." "Matrimony—war and want!" and *pater semper incertus* are other expressions of the pessimist. He was proud, by the way, of being styled a pessimist, and one day called a friend's attention to the fact that in one year the three greatest pessimists were in Italy at the same time—he and Byron and Leopardi. He considered Byron England's greatest poet after Shakspere, and always regretted that, owing to an accident, he did not deliver the letter of introduction to him he had in his pocket from Goethe.

It is well known that Schopenhauer's high opinion of himself nearly counterbalanced the professional "Ignoriren" by his contemporaries of which he complained so much. He informed Frauenstädt that he once intended to choose for his seal a sphinx plunging into an abyss, because he was convinced that he had "solved the world-riddle." And yet he was not quite satisfied with himself. His theory was that intellectuality has its expression in the forehead and the eyes, the moral character in the mouth and chin. He frankly confessed that he did not like his lower face—probably all the less because he felt that it did not contradict his theory. On the other hand, he spoke with satisfaction of an Italian, a stranger, who said to him he could see from his face that he must have written a great work, and of an Englishman who insisted on sitting opposite him because he "liked to see his intellectual face." He loved to point out wherein he and his works differed from others and their writings. "The happiness of ordinary persons consists in the alternation between work and enjoyment, but in my case the two are identical." "Most books are doomed to oblivion. A lasting impression is made by those only into which the author has put his own self. . . . In *my* books my entire individuality is embodied." He was particularly proud of a compliment Goethe once paid him: "Only twenty-six years old, and already so rich in experiences! How much I could have accomplished had I had such an abundance of knowledge at your age." He believed, however, that a man's best works are created in old age. To illustrate his love of work and thoroughness, he said that he devoted a whole winter to reading Greek tragedies as a preparation for a few pages in one of his books.

A few characteristic miscellaneous utterances may be added. Schopenhauer's father was a merchant, and the son had a special respect for merchants, because, as he said, they are more liberal and generous than others. The Jews he pronounced a cheerful, optimistic nation. Negroes ought to put Schopenhauer on their banner, for he believed that man was originally black. The content of history, he said, consists in "European cat-fights" *(Katzenbalgereien).* The four greatest novels ever written are 'Tristram Shandy,' 'Wilhelm Meister,' 'Don Quixote,' and the 'Nouvelle Héloïse.' "Romanticism is a product of Christianity: ecstatic religiosity, fantastic worship of woman, and knightly valor—God, woman, and the sword—are its insignia." But the most characteristic observation in all this table-talk is what Schopenhauer said regarding his best friends—"If there were no dogs in the world, I should not care to live."

Die Fabeln der Marie de France. Herausgegeben von Karl Warnke. (Bibliotheca Normannica, VI.). Halle: Niemeyer. 1898.

With the publication of the Fables of Marie de France we have now all the works of this famous Anglo-Norman poetess in critical modern editions; the Lays having been published by Warnke in 1885, and the Purgatory of St. Patrick by T. A. Jenkins at Philadelphia in 1894. The late Prof. Mall gathered materials for an edition of the Fables, and in 1885 published a preliminary study of the relation of Marie de France to other fabulists of the Middle Ages. After his death, his papers were handed over to Warnke, who, in the present edition, has given full credit for the assistance derived from them, and as a rule has confirmed Mall's conclusions on doubtful points. The chief point on which the two scholars do not agree is in regard to the order in which Marie composed her three writings. Mall, followed by Jenkins, maintained that she wrote the Purgatory first, then the Fables, and finally the Lays. As the Purgatory cannot have been written till about 1190, this theory would make Marie's period of writing later than has usually been supposed. Gas-

ton Paris has shown that the Purgatory was certainly her last work; he places the Fables first (about 1170) and the Lays second (about 1180). Warnke, however, gives strong linguistic and literary reasons for placing the Lays first, and the Fables second.

Born in France, Marie spent most of her life in England, where at this time fables were a particularly popular form of literature. In accordance with the usual custom of fable-writers, she calls her book 'Esope'; a writer of this name, she says, turned the Fables from Greek into Latin; King Alfred then translated them into English, and she from English into French. Although the English version is not now known, there are sufficient reasons for accepting Marie's statement as to its existence, though not, of course, the attribution to King Alfred. For a number of the fables no source can now be pointed out. Many of them, however, come down in regular descent from Phædrus, through the prose paraphrase which goes by the name of Romulus. The others, more interesting because less known, include monastic tales, comic stories of peasants, episodes from the beast-epic, and stories of Oriental origin; a few show traces of the Greek forms of the fables, as opposed to the conventional Latin forms, and these are especially interesting, for they indicate that the Greek fables descended to the Middle Ages, not merely through the medium of Phædrus and Avianus, but also in popular tradition. Many of the fables in Marie's original undoubtedly had no written source, and some of them are clearly mediæval in origin.

Warnke does not go deeply into this complicated question, reserving it for subsequent investigation; yet he treats carefully the relations of a number of fable-collections which group themselves around Marie, and he argues, frequently in opposition to Gaston Paris, Hervieux, Joseph Jacobs, and other writers who have treated the subject, that the writers of all these collections were directly influenced by Marie, and not she by them. Of the three Latin collections, one, which Hervieux erroneously regarded as a direct ancestor of Marie's, is considerably later than that, and drew from half-a-dozen other collections. In regard to the Hebrew Fables of Foxes by Berachyah ha-Nakdan, the influence of Marie seems well established in at least one instance, but it was limited, and cannot have existed throughout even the fables which the two collections have in common. Since in at least one instance the Hebrew version is of an older type than Marie's, Berachyah may have drawn both from her and from her source. In any case, Warnke is right in rejecting the fanciful views of Jacobs on this subject. Finally, we have a nearly contemporary Italian translation, which indicates the wide popularity of Marie's collection; and the original French exists in no fewer than twenty-three manuscripts. This number is, of course, not comparable to the more than one hundred manuscripts, in Latin and in various translations, of the so-called 'Anonymus Neveleti,' the most widely known fable-book of the Middle Ages. As this work, however, is a regular descendant from Phædrus, and thus semi-learned, Marie's collection is really more interesting, and a further study of her sources will throw light on many points in the transmission and composition of popular tales, fables, and jests in the Middle Ages.

For such study, and for linguistic study also, Warnke's edition is of the highest value and importance. An elaborate comparison of the manuscripts, abundant critical apparatus, a grammatical treatise, notes, and a full vocabulary, render the book exceptionally easy and pleasant to use. The Fables were previously available only in the edition of Roquefort, 1820. This edition, excellent for its day, has done good service, but the time had come for one in more modern style. There is still much to be done in the field of mediæval fable literature. Of the other Old French versions, for instance, the Isopet of Chartres is entirely unobtainable, and two others are to be had only in the edition of Robert, 1825; while only one, the Ysopet of Lyons, exists in a modern edition, that of Foerster. It is gratifying to observe that more and more attention is being paid to this fruitful and interesting branch of literary study.

Township and Borough: Being the Ford Lectures delivered in the University of Oxford in the October term of 1897. By Frederic William Maitland, LL.D., Downing Professor of the Laws of England in the University of Cambridge. Macmillan. 1898.

The Mr. Ford who, eight and twenty years ago, left a quite insufficient sum of money to found a "professorship" of English history at Oxford, built better than he knew; for a benevolent Court of Chancery has not scrupled to listen to Oxford's representations, and has permitted the application of the endowment to a far wiser purpose—to the establishment of an annual lecturership which will doubtless bring to the University, year after year, some of the most distinguished historical scholars of the time. As the first fruits of the Ford foundation we have already had Mr. Gardiner's 'Cromwell's Place in History'; and now the series is worthily continued by a work of a quite different sort, Professor Maitland's lectures on the beginnings of English town history, illustrated by the antiquities of his own borough, Cambridge. To a university where, since the departure of Dr. Stubbs, English institutional history has been comparatively little investigated, though taught to increasing crowds of undergraduate students, comes the representative of a sister university, who has cast more fresh light on the subject than any of his contemporaries, but who finds at home comparatively few undergraduates to listen to him.

The present set of lectures forms a supplement to the chapter on the Boroughs in Professor Maitland's recent and substantial treatise, 'Domesday Book and Beyond.' It contains, probably, no idea that is absolutely new to the careful readers of that book. Mr. Maitland abides by his "garrison theory," suggested to him by Dr. Keutgen's essays on German town history—the theory that the "burg" was first differentiated from the rural village by its establishment as a shire stronghold, wherein the thegns of its shire were bound to keep houses and retainers. But he gets no fresh evidence for this contention from Cambridge, and, in deference to Mr Tait's criticism, he abandons one supposed piece of evidence. He "feels bound to confess," moreover, "not that he had said too much of the borough as a military centre," but that he had "said too little of the borough as a *tún*," *i. e.*, as an agrarian organization, "and as the market and moot-stow of a shire." Accordingly, he now lays great stress on the agricultural basis of the history of Cambridge, on its "fields" and meadows and commons. Old Loggan's engravings, showing the "open fields" with an almost suspicious clearness, and the ordinance of 1624, defining the pasture rights of "every occupier of an ancient tenement having of old-time broad gates," come at the opening of the book, and create a rural atmosphere which clings to it throughout. But Prof. Maitland shows, by the aid of a minute analysis of the early *terriers*, that the "shell" of the village community was a shell that was soon outgrown. He finds no trace of "a knot of land-owning patricians, the successors of old hidesmen." "Already in the twelfth century, the burghal society is versatile and heterogeneous. Some wealthy burgesses own land; others own none. The market has mobilized the land."

Of more general interest, however, than the detailed history of a particular English borough, which, after all, tells us little more than we could have guessed, and makes no positive contribution to the vexed question of "origins," are Mr. Maitland's observations on the development of certain fundamental ideas which we are still apt to take for granted. The proposition which Gierke has worked out with so much elaboration in his 'Deutsche Genossenschaft,' that the *communitas* of the Middle Ages only slowly grew into the unity of the "corporation," is here made to unlock many doors, and even furnishes a palliation for the immorality of a certain Cambridge common-councillor in the evil days before municipal reform. "The village community was not corporate. Corporateness came of urban life"; but it would seem that in the minds of some town councillors the evolution of the idea was not complete even in 1833.

Nor is this a mere sophistic distinction. The idea of the "corporation" worked itself out *pari passu* with the idea of "property." As Mr. Maitland makes clear, when King John granted the vill of Cambridge to the burgesses, nobody could have told us whether he conferred "ownership" in the soil upon a "corporation," for the simple reason that nobody could have understood the terms of our question. For "what we have to watch in early times is not a transfer of something, some thing, called 'ownership,' from one sort of 'units' "—whether tribe, clan, village community, or individual—"to another. It is the crystallization round several different centres and in very different shapes of that vague 'belongs' which contains both public power and private right, power over persons, right over things." This is a view of the matter which, even if it is implicit in Gierke, and suggested in Mr. Baden-Powell's treatises on India, no one has yet stated so pointedly as Prof. Maitland; and if it is confirmed by further consideration, it is bound to have an effect on our notions of the evolution of society which will extend immeasurably beyond the "green balks" of "open fields."

The Arrangement of Atoms in Space. By J. H. van't Hoff. Second revised and enlarged edition. With a Preface by Johannes Wislicenus. And an Appendix, "Stereochemistry among Inorganic Substances," by Alfred Werner. Translated and edited by Arnold Eiloart. Longmans, Green & Co. 1898. Crown 8vo, pp. 211.

Following the title-page, which calls this the second edition, is a "Preface to the First

Edition," dated February, 1894, and beginning with the words, "The first edition of this little book appeared in 1877." Next comes the "Preface to the Second Edition," dated April, 1894. The explanation is that the heading of the first preface was due to a German editor: the Germans use ordinal numbers in a way that is all their own. This book took its origin in the 'Vorsteel tot Uitbreidung der Structuur-Formules in de Ruimte,' published by Van't Hoff in 1874. Afterwards he published 'La Chimie dans l'Espace,' which was freely translated into German in 1877 by F. Herrmann. In 1887, Van't Hoff published 'Dix Années dans l'Histoire d'une Théorie'; and the present work is more nearly a revision of that than of either of the earlier brochures.

The idea of accounting for the properties of chemical bodies by the arrangement of atoms in tridimensional space was started almost simultaneously by Van't Hoff and Le Bel. There are a great many facts in its favor, and the theory can boast its successful predictions. There are no facts conclusively against it. Nevertheless, beyond a certain class of bodies it offers no great attractions. It is important, valuable, and no doubt in part true. Nevertheless, it is not entirely satisfactory. All that the general reader wants to know about it might be told in one short chapter of the popular modern chemistry which has yet to be written.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, Sarah L., and Gilbert, Charles B. A Reader for Higher Grades. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co.
Beazley, C. R. John and Sebastian Cabot. The Discovery of North America. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Carlyle, Thomas. History of Frederick the Great. Vol. VII. [Centenary Edition.] Scribners. $1.25.
Driver, Prof. S. R., and White, Rev. H. A. The Book of Leviticus. [Polychrome Bible.] Dodd Mead & Co. $1.25.
Faunce, Rev. D. W. A Young Man's Difficulties with his Bible. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. $1.
Gilman, Arthur. Dryden's Palamon and Arcite. Boston, Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 25c.
Gras, Félix. The Terror. A Romance of the French Revolution. Appletons. $1.50.
Harland, Henry. Comedies and Errors. John Lane. $1.50.
Lang, Andrew. The Making of Religion. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Lord, Prof. J. K. M. Tulli Ciceronis Laelius de Amicitia. Revised ed. American Book Co.
Mathews, F. S. Familiar Life in Field and Forest. Appletons. $1.75.
Meredith, George. Rhoda Fleming. The Egoist. Scribners. Each $1.50.
Newdigate-Newdegate, Lady. The Cheverels of Cheverel Manor. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
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